EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward
Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the EU has been entitled to support, coordinate or complement Member States’ activities in sport. European sports policies of the past decade are characterised by numerous activities and by on-going differentiation. Against this backdrop, the study presents policy options in four key areas: the first covers the need for stronger coordination; the second aims at the setting of thematic priorities; the third addresses the reinforcement of the role of the EP in sport and the fourth stipulates enhanced monitoring.
## CONTENTS

### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS
6

### LIST OF FIGURES
10

### LIST OF TABLES
10

### EXECUTIVE SUMMARY: THE PARLIAMENTARY DIMENSION OF EUROPEAN SPORTS POLITICS AND POLICIES
11

- Background: Treaty change and policy evolution
- Key Findings: Institutional and sectoral dynamics
- Recommendations: Coordination, Prioritisation, Parliamentarisation and Information

### 1. PREFACE / INTRODUCTION
14

1.1. Background and Framework
14

1.2. Content and Outline
15

1.3. Methods and Documents
16

### 2. THE »PAST«: EUROPEAN SPORTS POLITICS BEFORE AND AFTER ‘LISBON’
18

2.1. The emergence of sports politics at European level
18

2.2. The European Parliament and sports politics before ‘Lisbon’
20

2.3. Experiencing the implementation of sport into the treaties
23

2.3.1. The European Commission
23

2.3.2. The Council and the Council Presidencies
26

2.3.3. The advisory EU bodies
27

2.4. The European Parliament and sports politics after ‘Lisbon’
28

2.5. Sporting organisations
32

### 3. THE »PRESENT«: CURRENT ASPECTS OF EUROPEAN SPORTS POLICIES
34

3.1. Political Dimension
35

3.1.1. Human and Social Rights
35

3.1.2. Good Governance and Integrity
38

3.1.3. Doping
40

3.1.4. Sports Diplomacy
42

3.1.5. Sport and Environment
43

3.1.6. Hosting Sport Mega Events
46

3.1.7. Violence, Racism, Homophobia, Spectators
46

3.2. Economic Dimension
48

3.2.1. Sports Industry
48

3.2.2. Media Sports and Digitalisation
49
3.2.3. Employment Relations 50
3.2.4. Regional Development 51
3.2.5. Free Movement for professionals 52
3.2.6. State Aid 53
3.2.7. Sporting facility building 55
3.2.8. E-Sport 56

3.3. Socio-cultural Dimension 57
3.3.1. Grassroots sports, sport for all and informal sport 58
3.3.2. Youth development 60
3.3.3. Volunteering 61
3.3.4. European Qualifications Framework and Dual Career 62
3.3.5. Physical education and health enhancing physical activity 64
3.3.6. European Week of Sport and European School Sport Day 69
3.3.7. Safeguarding of children 70
3.3.8. Diversity, women in sport and underrepresented groups 72
3.3.9. Social inclusion 75

3.4. Current issues/ Hot Topics 77
3.4.1. Brexit 77
3.4.2. Refugees 79
3.4.1. Multi-Annual Financial Framework 80
3.4.3. COVID-19 pandemic 81

4. ASSESSMENT AND PRIORITIES: DELPHI STUDY 87
4.1. Three Dimensions of Sports Policy Over Time 89
4.2. Relevance and Importance of EU institutions 90
4.3. Contact with EU institutions and bodies 91
4.4. Relevance and Importance of Political Sectors over Time 93
4.5. Additional Sectors 97
4.6. Relevant Organisations and Federations 98
4.7. Interim Conclusions from the Delphi survey 99

5. CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES: SCENARIOS FOR EUROPEAN SPORT POLITICS AND POLICIES 101
5.1. General Conclusions: Growth and Differentiation 101
5.2. Options for the Future: Scenarios for the future of European sports politics and its parliamentary dimension 104
5.2.1. Short term – the »status quo«-scenario 104
5.2.2. Medium-term – the »gradual communitarisation«-model 104
5.2.3. Long term – the »supranational« scenario
5.2.4. Spill-back – the »re-self-governance«-scenario

6. RECOMMENDATIONS: REFINE, REFORM, REMODEL AND REVIEW

6.1. Twelve key recommendations at a glance
6.1.1. Refine – Coordination
6.1.2. Reform – Prioritisation
6.1.3. Remodel – Parliamentarisation
6.1.4. Review – Information

6.2. Additional recommendations
6.2.1. Refine – Coordination
6.2.2. Reform – Prioritisation
6.2.3. Remodel – Parliamentarisation
6.2.4. Review – Information

REFERENCES

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Sector-based policy recommendations
Annex 2A: Selected basic documents of EU sports policy
Annex 2B: Selected Commission’s and Parliament’s sports-related research activities
Annex 3: Timeline: Milestones in European sports politics and policies
Annex 4: Overview of sports policy fields at EU level
Annex 5: Delphi study invitation letter and information sheet
Annex 6: Delphi study online survey
Annex 7: Organigram of the Study project
# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ACES Europe</td>
<td>European Capitals and Cities of Sport Federation</td>
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<td>ASPIRE</td>
<td>Activity, Sport and Play for the Inclusion of Refugees in Europe</td>
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<td>AVMSD</td>
<td>Audiovisual Media Services Directive</td>
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<td>BRICS countries</td>
<td>Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa</td>
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<td>CBI</td>
<td>Centre for the Promotion of Imports from developing countries</td>
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<td>CDDS</td>
<td>Committee for the Development of Sport</td>
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<td>CEDEFOP</td>
<td>European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training</td>
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<td>CEN</td>
<td>European Committee for Standardisation</td>
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<td>European Research Council on Physical Education and School Sport</td>
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<td>CEV</td>
<td>Champions League Volleyball</td>
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<td>CFR</td>
<td>Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union</td>
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<td>CoE</td>
<td>The Council of Europe</td>
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<td>CoR</td>
<td>(European) Committee of the Regions</td>
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<td>COSI</td>
<td>Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative</td>
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<td>CRF</td>
<td>COVID-Recovery Fund</td>
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<td>Corona Response Investment Initiative Plus</td>
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<td>DG EMPL</td>
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<td>DROI</td>
<td>European Parliament’s subcommittee on Human Rights</td>
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<td>German Sports Federation</td>
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<td>Digital Single Market</td>
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<td>EC</td>
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<td>ECJ</td>
<td>European Court of Justice</td>
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<td>Economic and Social Committee</td>
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<td>ECRIS</td>
<td>European Criminal Records Information System</td>
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<td>EDPB</td>
<td>European Data Protection Board</td>
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<td>European Esport Federation</td>
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<td>European Federation of Company Sports</td>
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<td>EGDF</td>
<td>European Games Developer Federation</td>
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<td>EGLSF</td>
<td>European Gay &amp; Lesbian Sport Federation</td>
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<td>European Handball Federation</td>
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<td>EHLA</td>
<td>European Healthy Lifestyle Alliance</td>
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<td>EIGE</td>
<td>European Institute for Gender Equality</td>
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<td>EMCA</td>
<td>European Multisport Club Association</td>
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<td>ENGSO</td>
<td>European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation</td>
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<td>ENSE</td>
<td>European Network of Sport Education</td>
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<td>EOA</td>
<td>European Organisation of Olympic Academies</td>
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<td>EOC</td>
<td>European Olympic Committees</td>
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<td>EOSE</td>
<td>European Observatoire of Sport and Employment</td>
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<td>EP</td>
<td>European Parliament</td>
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<td>EPC</td>
<td>Energy Performance Certification</td>
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<td>EPFL</td>
<td>Association of European Professional Football Leagues</td>
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<td>EPSI</td>
<td>European Platform for Sport Innovation</td>
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<td>ERDF</td>
<td>European Regional Development Fund and Cohesion Fund</td>
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<td>ESC</td>
<td>European Solidarity Corps</td>
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<td>ESF+</td>
<td>European Social Fund Plus</td>
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<td>ESIF</td>
<td>European Structural and Investment Funds</td>
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<td>Esports Integrity Commission</td>
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<td>Electronic Sports League</td>
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<td>ESSD</td>
<td>European School Sport Day</td>
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<td>European Sport Workforce Development Alliance</td>
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<td>European Transnational Cooperation</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>EU PA GL</td>
<td>European Physical Activity Guidelines</td>
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<td>EUPASmos</td>
<td>European Union Physical Activity and Sport Monitoring</td>
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<td>EUPEA</td>
<td>European Physical Education Association</td>
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<td>EuPEO</td>
<td>European Union Physical Education Observatory</td>
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<td>EUROFIT</td>
<td>European Fitness Test</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
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<tr>
<td>EuropeActive</td>
<td>European Health and Fitness Association</td>
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<td>EQF</td>
<td>European Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>EVS</td>
<td>European Volunteer Service</td>
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<td>EWoS</td>
<td>European Week of Sport</td>
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<td>EYCS</td>
<td>Council of Education, Youth, Culture and Sport</td>
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<td>EYES</td>
<td>European Year of Education through Sport</td>
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<td>EYSF</td>
<td>European Youth and Sport Forum</td>
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<td>FEDAS</td>
<td>Federation of European Sport Retailers</td>
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<td>FESI</td>
<td>Federation of the European Sporting Goods Industry</td>
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<td>FIBA</td>
<td>Fédération Internationale de Basketball</td>
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<td>FIFA</td>
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<td>FINA</td>
<td>Fédération Internationale de Natation</td>
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<td>Rugby Europe</td>
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<td>FIVB</td>
<td>Fédération Internationale de Volleyball</td>
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<td>GBER</td>
<td>General Block Exemption Regulation</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GDPR</td>
<td>General Data Protection Regulation</td>
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<td>HEPA</td>
<td>Health-Enhancing Physical Activity</td>
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<td>HEPA XG</td>
<td>Expert Group on Health-Enhancing Physical Activity</td>
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<td>HLG</td>
<td>High Level Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>HSSF</td>
<td>Hungarian School Sport Federation</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICSS</td>
<td>International Centre for Sport and Security</td>
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<tr>
<td>IIHF</td>
<td>International Ice Hockey Federation</td>
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<tr>
<td>INTERREG</td>
<td>European Territorial Cooperation Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOC</td>
<td>International Olympic Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>Intellectual Property</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISCA</td>
<td>International Sport and Culture Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISFE</td>
<td>Interactive Software Federation of Europe</td>
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<td>ISPPPI</td>
<td>International Standard for the Protection of Privacy and Personal Information</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISU</td>
<td>International Skating Union</td>
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<td>JRC</td>
<td>Joint Research Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGBTQI+</td>
<td>Lesbian, Gay, Bi-, Trans-, Queer- and Intersexual Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSB</td>
<td>regional sporting federations</td>
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### EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>MEP</td>
<td>Member of the European Parliament</td>
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<td>MFF</td>
<td>Multiannual Financial Framework</td>
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<td>NFL</td>
<td>National Football League</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>NOC</td>
<td>National Olympic Committee</td>
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<td>NPI</td>
<td>Normalised Performance Indicators</td>
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<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>PA</td>
<td>Physical Activity</td>
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<td>PAH</td>
<td>Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons</td>
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<td>PE</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>POINTS</td>
<td>Points of Contact for Sporty Integrity</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMEs</td>
<td>Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises</td>
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<tr>
<td>SURE</td>
<td>Temporary Support to Mitigate Unemployment Risks in an Emergency</td>
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<td>SWD</td>
<td>Commission Staff Working Document</td>
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<td>S4GG</td>
<td>Sport for Good Governance</td>
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<td>TFEU</td>
<td>Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union</td>
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<td>UEFA</td>
<td>Union of European Football Associations</td>
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<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>USSR</td>
<td>Union of Socialist Soviet Republics</td>
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<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education Training</td>
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<td>WADA</td>
<td>World Anti-Doping Agency</td>
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<td>WADC</td>
<td>World Anti-Doping Code</td>
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<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>XG GG</td>
<td>Expert Group on Good Governance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Overview of sports policy fields at European level 35
Figure 2: Importance of the three dimensions over time – by group 89
Figure 3: Importance of the three dimensions over time - aggregated results 90
Figure 4: Relevance and Importance of EU Institutions - By Groups and Aggregated Results 91
Figure 5: Contact with EU Institutions and bodies - by Group 92
Figure 6: Past and Future Importance of Sectors - Experts and EU Representatives 95
Figure 7: Past and Future Importance of Sectors - All Groups 95
Figure 8: Additional sectors relevant for EU sports policy 98

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Overview of frequencies of sectors in the Questions and Answers of the EP 31
Table 2: Sectors of EU Sports Policy - Administration and Intervention (alphabetical order) 88
Table 3: Frequency of contact with EU Institutions and Bodies 92
Table 4: Rated Sports Sectors over the Past, Present, and Future EU Sports Policy Periods 94
Table 5: Most relevant sports policy sectors of the present – by Groups 96
Table 6: Sectors Relevant for Sports Policy in the EU (Round 2) 97
Table 7: Overview of scenarios of European Sports Politics and Policies 107
Table 8: Scheme for categorising purposes 112
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY: THE PARLIAMENTARY DIMENSION OF EUROPEAN SPORTS POLITICS AND POLICIES

Background: Treaty change and policy evolution

The Lisbon Treaty marked an important milestone for sports politics and policies in Europe. The EU was given a legal basis for shaping European sports policies in the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) in 2009. This has provided the EU with an explicit power to act in sport. Since Lisbon, the EU has had competence to support and coordinate activities in sport, but it cannot pursue harmonisation or shift competences. The current sports policy activities of the EU institutions are therefore mainly aimed at soft policies such as fostering exchange and values in sport as well as developing the European dimension of sport. This is mirrored particularly in distributive measures and the allocation of goods and resources.

Despite the limited formal expansion of the EU’s competences, the implementation of EU sports policies has provided a fundamental evolution to the European dimension of sport. A steadily growing number of public and private actors are involved, more and more sectors and policy areas are covered; enhanced funding and increasingly complex forms of interest representation illustrate the key characteristics of sports-related dynamics and growth at European level. In summary, over the past decade European sports politics and policies have been characterised by on-going processes of growth and differentiation while the demand for priorities and suitable forms of coordination has risen.

Key Findings: Institutional and sectoral dynamics

EU sports policy encompasses activities of the EU institutions and the Member States and the activities of the European sporting federations and other European interest organisations and national sporting organisations.

1) A key feature of European sports politics and policies is a continuing horizontal differentiation of public and private stakeholders. While for many years European sporting federations made sports-related decisions largely autonomously, today, leagues and clubs, players’ and coaches’ representatives, players’ advisors and various agencies have entered the scene. Since the 1990s, a growing number of private actors have established sports-related, special-purpose associations at European level seeking to influence sport in Europe.

2) In addition to the number of actors, sectoral growth and differentiation can be identified as a second key feature of European sports politics. Today, there are hardly any sports-related sectors that are not covered by activities at European level. This study explores these policy sectors against the backdrop of four structural dimensions: the political dimension, the economic dimension, the socio-cultural dimension and a transversal dimension referring to pressing challenges.

3) The increasing activities at European level and the growing number of actors involved have led to a widening procedural differentiation in sports politics. More and more actors with more varied interests have led to an increasing complexity in procedures and possibilities for participation in decision-making on sport.

4) The Member States, which were initially not very receptive to the transfer of competences on sport to the European level, have recognised in several ways the benefits of Europe-wide
coordination of public interests in sport, beyond the direct access of the federations. They are committed to and constructively engaged in European sports policy, particularly within the Council.

5) Interinstitutional cooperation in sport between the Council, the Commission and Parliament has become more structured, yet there is still a lack of regular cooperation in terms of formal arrangements and procedures.

6) Societal changes have led to public and private actors being confronted with ongoing debates on the multidimensional roles, function and character of physical activity and sport at European level.

7) In light of the International Skating Union decision of the European Commission and the most recent related ruling of the European Court of Justice, the debate on the future of the European sport model and its specificity based on the principles of solidarity, inclusivity and voluntary work remains a relevant topic.

8) Though the conflict between autonomy and intervention in sport continues, a fissure seems to have emerged in the relationship between the interests of traditional (non-profit) sporting organisations and commercial providers in the industry.

9) Even though the increased attention paid to sport at European level has led to a central commonality among the actors, this did not result in uniform reaction patterns and adaptation processes.

10) European sports politics and policies are neither fixed in institutional nor procedural terms, nor in sectoral perspectives, but are subject to ongoing changes in the light of individual case decisions.

Recommendations: Coordination, Prioritisation, Parliamentarisation and Information

Based on the observations and data of this study, four core areas with recommendations for the future of European sports politics and policies have been identified:

The first area covers the need to revise the field in view of coordination and cohesion, and the adoption of a more holistic approach. Since the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon, European sports politics and policies have been fundamentally redefined and further developed in the past decade. However, this ongoing differentiation has not led to greater visibility and efficiency and thus has not improved the (output) legitimacy of European sports policy. A key recommendation is to improve coordination. Both intra and inter-institutional cooperation must be enhanced. There should also be greater consultation with sporting federations and specialist stakeholders in sport and the Member States. Against this background, it seems necessary to strive for structural adjustments in the sense of a general refinement embedding sport in political, economic and social development strategies and programmes. Exploiting broader cross-sectoral linkages and mainstreaming sport into other relevant EU policies is a key tool in ensuring greater cohesion in this first core area.

The second area is aimed at the policy fields. Even though only rudimentary overarching recommendations for action can be made here and each field deserves to be dealt with in its own right, which cannot be done within the framework of a general recommendation, the corresponding proposals are intended to underpin the importance of some particular fields. After more than 10 years
of dealing with sport anchored in primary law, core areas are emerging that should be given special attention in terms of profiling and priority setting. Consequently, this study proposes not only to consider the scope of EU sports policies further, but also to pay particular attention to the following four pillars: integrity, physical activity, health and education. In addition, the challenges caused by COVID-19 need to be addressed. On this basis, an action plan should be drawn up with tangible support mechanisms.

The third area addresses the parliamentary perspective and the role of the European Parliament (EP). In the past, the EP has managed to anchor the European dimension of sport in the public consciousness through hearings and debates as well as policy initiatives and statements. However, the CULT Committee could improve its current performance in sports policy by tabling issues relating to sport and sports services on the agenda more often. Both horizontal cooperation of the CULT Committee with other standing committees on sport matters and vertical cooperation with national parliaments could be increased. In terms of proactive policy advice, the EP should make far greater use of the expertise of sporting federations and organisations. Considering the role of parliaments as a forum and an advocate for public debates on sport, the EP should provide a framework to establish regular communication on sport.

Finally, the fourth area encompasses the necessity to create the basis for successfully developing European sports policy in a lasting and sustainable manner by expanding and deepening the knowledge and information base and including all Member States in the studies. Moreover, improved access to existing materials on the development of sport at European level should be offered while encouraging a broader dissemination of existing studies on sport. An annual report on European sports (policy) development published by the European institutions would be an important instrument for improving access to information and data. In addition, specialised transnational and comparative studies covering a larger number of Member States and organisations could be undertaken in the future to offer deeper insights into European sports policy.

In the sixth chapter, this study offers 12 key recommendations for the core areas listed here. Further recommendations and actions are subsequently provided for each area, which take into account the high degree of sports policy development that has already been achieved at European level.
1. PREFACE / INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and Framework

The EU was given a legal basis for shaping European sports policy in Article 165 of the TFEU in 2009 (Lisbon Treaty). While the EU was positioning itself in the field of sports before, the Treaty revision provided an explicit power to act in sport for the EU and its institutions. Since then, the European Commission, the Council, the European Parliament as well as the advisory bodies have promoted, supported and coordinated a large variety of activities in sport together with Member States. However, the EU could not pursue harmonisation or shift competences in sport. The decision-making in sport remains predominantly a national competence.

European sports policy is characterised by growth and differentiation. While in the 1980s and 1990s activities were primarily geared towards strengthening the European dimension of sport only in selected sports areas, today there is hardly any field of sport that is not dealt with also at European level. From human rights and good governance along sport’s impact on the economy and regional development to health enhancing physical activity (HEPA) and social inclusion – the on-going trend of an ever-larger sectoral differentiation can be considered as a core development of European sports policy.

Private sporting organisations are key players in sports politics and policies. For decades, primarily the European and international sporting federations shaped sport in Europe. Since the 1990s, however, a growing number of private actors have established sports-related special-purpose associations at European level, seeking influence on sport in Europe. Today, EU sports politics and policies encompass activities of the EU institutions and Member States of the EU as well as actions of European sporting federations, national sporting associations and sports-related special-purpose associations. In light of these observations, horizontal differentiation of stakeholders is another key trend of European sports politics. The progressive intertwining of sport with other areas of society has led to a situation in which an ever-increasingly number of stakeholders are bargaining sports-related interests. Whereas for many years, European associations in sport made sports-related decisions largely autonomously, today leagues and clubs, players' and coaches' representatives, players' advisors and various agencies, courts and a growing number of public actors are also active in the field.

This horizontal differentiation in sports policy is counter-balanced by a vertical differentiation. Sport policy activities are no longer limited to national or sub-national structures but extend beyond national borders. Cross-border competitions such as World-Cups and European Championships are taking place in a transnational context as do corruption and betting fraud.

Looking at the evolution of the EU as a whole, sports policy development marks a comparatively young field. The emergence of the political dimension of European sports is still in its formative phase. At the same time, however, it is also one of the European policy areas in which only a limited number of academic studies are available. Research on European sports politics and policies is no longer marginalised but remains somewhat fragmented. At the beginning of the 1990s, it was relatively easy to systematise from a social science perspective Europe-related sports research due to the clarity of the topics and actors. However, with increasing differentiation processes, the situation has now become almost confusing. At its core, research on this topic is conducted primarily by a network of political scientists and legal scholars, which meets annually at the Sport&EU conferences. The anthology of Anderson, Parrish and Garcia (2018) including many academics from this network is one of the very few books that contribute to a more comprehensive overall understanding of EU sports politics and policies based on empirical research.
The parliamentary dimension of European sports politics as such and the role of the EP have not yet been considered in detail. Moreover, the interplay of different actors and activities in a larger number of policy fields or sectors (political, economic, and socio-cultural), has not yet been examined thoroughly neither. Against this backdrop, this study takes all three analytical political dimensions into account. While ‘polity’ refers to the constitutional and legal framework, ‘politics’ deals with the process-related dimension and the interaction between the players involved in the political process. The ‘policies’ dimension addresses the content-related ways in which solutions to problems are found.

In addition to these three dimensions, this study addresses past, current and future developments in sports policy and politics, distinguishing between the period before and after ‘Lisbon’ (chapters 2 & 3), thus reflecting the significance of the most recent Treaty revision as a milestone in European sports politics. Accordingly, this study combines the assessment of the earlier contexts with the development of fresh perspectives for EU sports politics and policies up until the new work plan for Sport that has been introduced in late 2020 covering both structural and policy-related aspects. Based on these findings and assessments, this study finally points out perspectives for the future.

1.2. Content and Outline

The Executive Summary presents the key results of this study, including key recommendations for the future. The second chapter offers an overview of previous developments in European sports politics from an institutional perspective. A basic description of different time periods and a closer look at institutions and actors seem necessary considering the changes and – more explicitly – the opportunities and constraints of the current situation. Informal practices of information and mutual exchanges of views on sports politics between the EU institutions and other bodies are also considered. Since research on European sports politics is limited, and the assessment of its past and presence is still a work in progress, various annexes (see pages 148 et sqq.) have been attached, providing systematic overviews of documents and actions.

The third chapter examines the current status of European sports policy, especially from the perspective of individual policy fields (sectors). Given its general approach, this study covers both elite sport and sport for all aspects, including less-organised and informal aspects of sports. To provide a structure for these diverse activities, the study explores the policy fields/sectors against the backdrop of four structural dimensions: the political dimension, the economic dimension, the socio-cultural dimension and a transversal dimension referring to current issues that are having a particular urgency. Each of these four dimensions encompasses several sport policies as sectors. However, it is not always possible to assign these policies unambiguously to one dimension. In addition to the respective policies, particular attention is paid to European sport policies’ individual programmes and activities. These include sport in Erasmus+ or the European Week of Sport (EWoS). When addressing the very recent topic of COVID-19, this study focusses on broader implications about EU sports policy. The current pandemic is a unique situation in the history of the EU, still very new, not researched in-depth, and subject to on-going changes. Another ‘hot’ topic that is addressed is the Brexit and its implications on European sport. The British sport-for-all sector and non-profit sports sector have always been large and influential on the EU level. Their withdrawal from the EU will place many interest groups and NGOs with significantly less EU representation as well as impact the football business and equestrian sport, next to others.

A Delphi study was undertaken to investigate and document the diversity and scope of European sports policy, (4). Its aim was to elaborate a ranked assessment profile about the most relevant dimensions of EU sports policy and related sectors according to the scope and variety of stakeholders.
in the field of sport. 187 individuals from seven different stakeholder groups participated in the first round of this study; 183 took part in the second round. Participants in this study came from a heterogeneous collection of groups and institutions and were purposively sampled as a representative group of sports policy stakeholders in the EU. This approach may contribute to a more systematic assessment of the scope of policy fields, and it may offer new insights into the relevance and impact of previous actions and activities.

The fifth chapter (5) assesses European sports politics and policies in analytical terms and provides the conclusions of this study. Attention is directed towards the effectiveness and legitimacy criteria. Analytical categories, such as transparency, voice and accountability are also taken into consideration. Following the institutional perspective, particular consideration is given to the strengths and weaknesses of parliamentary involvement in sports politics. In addition, this chapter also presents a set of scenarios projecting the future development of EU sports policy and politics against the backdrop of general trends in the EU integration. This analysis is made with reference to four particular scenarios (current state of affairs as ‘treatysation’, gradual communitarisation, supranational structures and re-nationalisation) considering the evolutionary processes of the EU and its open finalité politique.

The sixth chapter (6) presents 12 key recommendations and a larger set of additional recommendations in light of the conclusions and scenarios from the previous chapter. Considering growth and differentiation as a significant trend of European sports politics and policies, the recommendations are drawn in light of structural perspectives (refine), sectoral perspectives (reform), parliamentary perspectives (remodel) and monitoring perspectives (review).

### 1.3. Methods and Documents

From a methodological perspective, this study is based on two essential methods:

1. A multi-level desktop analysis of past and present European sports policy documents published by the EP, the EC and the Council, stored in the various databases of the EU. Special attention is given to EP publications, including reports and written questions of MEPs that have so far been largely neglected by academic research. All in all, the research undertaken on these primary sources provides an inventory of European sports policy and politics. The (third) chapter on EU sports policies relies on a broader scope of sources including EU and national decisions, budgetary matters, debates, relevant domestic and EU case law, and media (newspaper) articles. The outcome of analysis has been supplemented and exceeded by including relevant academic journal articles and related book chapters on the different sports policy fields.

2. An empirical Delphi Study on European sports policy-making with data collection and assessment of seven different sample groups of European sport stakeholders with around 200 participants. The Delphi-Study presented in the fifth chapter is targeted to evaluate the relevance and impact of different sport-policy sectors and institutions. It is based on individuals and institutions involved and participating in EU sports policy matters. Participants include individuals associated with 1) the European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation (ENGSO); 2) the European Network of Sport Education (ENSE); 3) the European Physical Education Association (EUPEA); 4) European sporting associations, 5) national sporting organisations (Sport org). In addition, 6) academic experts in the field and 7) past and present EU representatives have participated.

This part of the study includes data from all 27 EU Member States and offers an opportunity to compare empirical data with material manifested through literature review, allowing an originally comparative view.
The data of this study was collected until its submission on December 18th 2020. Due to the decisions that were taken in view on Brexit and the Multiannual Financial Framework (MFF) of the European Union in the further course of December 2020, some minor updates have been made.
2. **THE »PAST«: EUROPEAN SPORTS POLITICS BEFORE AND AFTER ‘LISBON’**

### KEY FINDINGS

- While the Council of Europe already dealt with sport at European level in the 1960s, EC/EU began to address sport at the EU level in the 1970s, still before sport was implemented in formal treaties. By addressing human rights in sport, the EP has become a pioneer of EC/EU sport policy.
- In terms of content, two strands of EU sport policy can be distinguished: direct and indirect sport policy. While the first refers to the legal basis of sport at European level and mostly focuses on social, cultural and educational facets of sport, the second refers to EU sport policies as a consequence of economic integration and the common market.
- A significant change for sport after Lisbon is mirrored in a new institutional setting and substantial financial support. The EU institutions have developed sports-related working structures such as the EU Work Plan for Sport or Erasmus+ funding.
- Organised sport has made strategic efforts to co-shape EU sport policy. In addition to many European umbrella sport federations, a diverse and complex field of (national) sport association and European special interest groups has shifted attention to the European level.

#### 2.1. The emergence of sports politics at European level

None of the original treaties on European integration contained any provision for sport. For decades, sport was regulated at European level primarily by organised sport and by European sporting federations with a strong linkage to the national sporting associations (König, 1997; Parrish, 2003; Siekmann & Soek, 2005; Tokarski et al., 2009). In many EU Member States, sporting organisations enjoyed and still enjoy a wide-reaching autonomy from government intervention (Grodde 2007; Klaus, 2013; Hallmann & Petry 2013). The Council of Europe’s first sport policies focused on sport for all, elite sport and school sports – including the important European Sport for All Charter in 1975 and the first manual of the European Fitness Test (EUROFIT) in 1985 – while the European Community institutions treated sport only with restraint. Still, the first initiatives to deal with sport at the EU level were launched by the European Parliament already in the 1970s. The Annex 3 of this study includes a timeline revealing the involvement of the various bodies and institutions.

The EU’s sport structures are regularly characterised by the dichotomy of economic and social trajectories, thus indicating two paths of development (Mittag, 2009, 2010, 2018; Garcia, 2010). On the one hand, the customs union, the common market, and sports-related activities in other EU policy areas have an impact on sport. Succeeding earlier debates on special clauses in sport, the Bosman ruling of the ECJ in 1995, which was based on the free movement of workers and resulted in the abolition of transfer fees after the expiry of the contract and the renunciation of player quotas among the EU citizens, paved the way for increased sports policy activities by the EU institutions. On the other hand, since the 1980s, an alliance of Member States, sporting federations/associations, and Community institutions have been working to give sport’s social and societal role a direct legal basis at European level, in order to ensure special rules and safeguards for sport beyond the logic of the common market.
EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

(García & Weatherill, 2012). These two paths of dealing with sport at European level have been characterised in academic literature as **indirect and direct EU sports policy**. Indirect EU sports policy refers to the impact that common market policies have on sport. In contrast, direct EU sports policy refers to developing a European dimension of sport with a strong focus on the social, cultural, and educational facets of sport.

A second approach to classifying EU sports politics refers to the process-related dimension and the emergence of European sports policy. The most relevant historical caesura is marked by the anchoring of a **legal basis for sport in EU treaties**. Sport was included in Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU in 2009 (**Lisbon Treaty**). This Treaty change has provided an explicit power to act in sport for the EU: since then, the EU is entitled to promote, support, and coordinate sports-related activities, but it cannot pursue harmonisation efforts or shift competences in sport (García & Weatherill, 2012; Eichel, 2013; Florian, 2014). As the EU and its forerunners did not have any formal competencies in sport before the Lisbon Treaty, this phase has been largely ignored in studies. However, it should not be overlooked that there were already significant activities in sports before 2009. From an institutional perspective, this period can be divided into the phases of coexistence (1974-1991) and cooperation (1992-2009). The European Community was confronted with sports policy considerations when the first lawsuits against national clauses in sport arose in the mid-1970s. In the case of Walrave/Koch - Association Union Cycliste Internationale, the ECJ ruled in 1974 that sport falls under the Community law if it is linked to an economic objective. Two years later, in the ‘Donà/Mantero’ judgement, the ECJ made more fundamental references to the provisions on freedom of movement in the European Community. It held that restrictive quota regulations for foreign professional footballers – and thus also players from European Community Member States – were invalid. Notwithstanding this, negotiations were conducted in the following years between the European Community and UEFA, in which an informal agreement was reached that allowed exceptions (3+2 rule in soccer), which were also adopted by the national associations.

Independently of these issues, which were primarily related to professional sport, the European institutions began to deal with the social dimension of sport in the 1980s, not least in the context of the debates on a ‘Citizens’ Europe’. In particular, the EP (Larive Report, 1988) and the Commission (SEC(1991)1438final) made calls for the development of an action programme for sport and stronger European coordination for the social aspects of sport. These activities mark the transition from **coexistence to cooperation** in sport at European level. The **European Commission** promoted the establishment of the ‘European Sport Forum’, organised annually in conjunction with European sport umbrella organisations such as European Olympic Committees (EOC) and others from 1991 to 2003. The EC also started to support sport events financially. The newly established ‘European Youth Olympic Festival’ celebrated for the first time in Brussels in 1991, was financially supported with European funds. Financial support was also given to the Barcelonian Olympic Games of 1992 when the Olympic Games came back to Europe 20 years after the Munich 1972 Games. However, since no explicit EC/EU competence was laid down in the Treaties, the European institutions encountered constitutional difficulties allocating financial resources to sport. With the Eurathlon programme, the EC had even launched its own sports funding by an ECJ ruling due to the lack of a legal basis in sport. Against this backdrop, the development of a coherent policy for sport became rather challenging. The decisive impetus for stronger interaction of sports policy structures at European level ultimately came from the **European Court of Justice**, which changed the essence of sport and its organisational structure in 1995 with the Bosman ruling (Mittag 2007; Weatherill, 2010).

Below the level of primary law, the involvement with sport at European level has gained further momentum, reflected in institutionalisation processes. As early as the beginning of 1997, the EC
adapted its organizational structures and established the ‘Sports Unit’ within the framework of the Directorate General for Education and Culture, which – in changing organisational contexts – is primarily responsible for the coordination of sport. Various committees of the EP also started to deal with sports issues. The most important role is played by the ‘Committee on Culture and Education’ whose competences include sport. Finally, the Council is also concerned with sports policy issues. Although there has been no official Council formation ‘Sport’ until the Lisbon Treaty came into effect, the national ministers responsible for sport have held informal meetings since the turn of the century.

The ‘Declaration on Sport’ adopted as (non-binding) part of the Amsterdam Treaty in 1997 emphasised the social significance of sport but did not grant a direct mandate to promote sport actively. While a discussion paper of the EC in 1998 explained the ‘European Sport Model’, the Commission’s report drawn up in 1999 for the Helsinki European Council (COM(1999) 644 final) claimed the preservation of current sports structures and the social function of sport within the EU. In annex IV to the conclusions of the Nice Summit in 2000, the Heads of State and Government stated that the social and cultural dimension of sport should be taken more into account in both national and Community policies and that sport, including its social function, should be promoted more effectively. At the same time, however, the autonomy and specific characteristics of sport were again underlined.

Only two years after the Nice Declaration, the debate on sport’s constitutionalising at European level reached a new dimension with the work of the Convention on the Future of Europe. Several members of the Convention had proposed that, for the future, sport should be identified as a policy area in its own right in which the Union can complement the actions of Member States. This explicit reference to sport was also included in the text of the Treaty establishing a European Constitution, which was adopted in June 2004 by the then 25 EU Heads of State and Government. Although this did not give sport a unique selling point – originally an exclusive article on sport had also been discussed – and although support, coordination, and supplementation only provided for limited influence and competences for the EU institutions, it was the first time that sport was anchored in the primary law of the Union. Following the negative referenda in France and the Netherlands and a period of reflection lasting several years, the provisions on sport of the failed Constitutional Treaty were incorporated into the Lisbon Treaty without changes.

Closer cooperation between the Commission, Parliament, and the Olympic Movement became visible in 2004. Ties between the EOC, when Jacque Rogge was IOC president, and the EC were established in the 1990s. A few weeks after his election as the new IOC President in 2001, Jacque Rogge met Viviane Reding, the responsible commissioner of the Directory General for Culture and Education. The ‘European Year of Education through Sport’ (EYES) and the Olympic Cultural Programme of Athens’s Games in 2004 were further expressions of this growing cooperation. These mega events supported the Olympic values, judged by the EC as being also the European values of sport. The EC sponsored forty young people holding Master of Education degrees to participate in the Athens’ Olympic cultural programme. With the preparations of EYES and financial support for almost 180 physical activity and sport events on grass-root level for young people in the old 15 and new 10 EU Member States (Janssens et al., 2004), the European and Olympic Year of 2004 turned attention to the socio-cultural dimension of sport in Europe.

2.2. The European Parliament and sports politics before ‘Lisbon’

Compared to the EC and the Council, the EP has dealt with sport at a comparatively early stage as it can act on its own initiative on all questions of European integration. Not only the scope of content, but also the procedural diversity of European sports policy is reflected in these activities of the European Parliament, which include reports and resolutions as well as hearings and plenary debates:
As early as 1966, the EP produced a first working paper on sport in the European Economic Community ('Report on behalf of the Committee on Research and Culture on the creation of a European Patent for popular sports'). The relationship between sport and politics was addressed in March 1978, when the EP’s Political Affairs Committee agreed to hold a public hearing on human rights violations in Argentina (European Parliament, 2018a). The hearing was scheduled shortly before the opening ceremony of the World Cup 1978 in Argentina aiming to raise public awareness on this sport mega event. This hearing had a particular impact on the evolution of the EP since it was the first public hearing dealing with a topic that was not covered by the European Community treaties. In the 1980s, the EP took a closer look at the Olympic Games and discussed the boycott of the Moscow Games. Given the humanitarian aspects, the EP adopted a resolution claiming that the Member States of the European Community should address their NOCs to consider that their teams and individual athletes will not take part in the Olympic Games.

Another topic of the 1980s sports policy was the invention of a ‘European athletics meeting’ in Strasbourg to strengthen elements of European identity. This proposal was made even before the Adonnino report (COM(1985) SN/2536/3/85) stating that sport ‘has always been an important area of communication between peoples’ (Bulletin of the EC 7/1985). Both challenges and dark sides of sport were in the focus of the EP early on, for example when questions of professional employment after a sporting career were discussed (EP Document 1-573/83, 13 July 1983) or vandalism and violence in sport have been addressed (EP Document A2-70/85).

The first comprehensive paper of the EP on sport in its entirety came from the rapporteur Jessica Larive (LD), who, in February 1988, presented a report on the importance of sport in a citizens' Europe (Larive Report), placing a particular emphasis on the social aspects of sport. She focused on four items and presented demands associated with them: 1) an international strategy to cope with social aspects of sport; 2) exploring the impact of the Single European Market on sport; 3) promoting the Community dimension of sport and 4) developing an action programme for sport.

One year later, in March 1989, the EP presented a report in which the rapporteur James L. Janssen van Raay (EPP) criticised the transfer system in professional football, showing the non-compliance with the European Community Treaty. Five years later, a resolution dealing with the European Community and sport was adopted (OJ C 205, 25.7.1994, p. 486.). The EP reacted to the Bosman ruling on 20 March 1996 with a public hearing exploring sport after the Bosman ruling. A further hearing was held on 19 March 1997 by the Committee on Culture, Youth, Education and the Media on ‘Sport, Youth and the Media: should the EU play too?’.

The ‘Pack Report’ (EP Document A4-0197/97) of the EP published in 1997 (named after the author Doris Pack, EPP) is another critical document on sport at European level calling upon the European Community to realign its direct sports policy actions. The Parliament explained its view that the EU should acknowledge the important cultural, economic and social phenomenon of sport in its Treaties and through the measures it implements. The author also criticises the Commission’s failure to mention sport in the White Paper on Education and Training. The Pack Report represented a renewed attempt to handle the balancing act between the various dimensions of sport at European level. The Pack Report highlights the multi-faceted nature of sport and criticises that the ECJ has limited sport just to the economic level. At the time, the EP called for substantial progress to be made in the direction of an established EU sports policy by a) incorporating sport into the Treaty Establishing the European Community, and b) by drawing up a Green Paper including an action plan on sport.

The Parliament elected in 1999 had 17 standing committees. The EP decided to add the term ‘sport’ to the denomination of the Committee on Culture, Youth, Education, and Media, which thus became the
‘Committee on Culture, Youth, Education, the Media, and Sport’. Although this designation had officially been dropped in 2004, the committee regularly deals with sport. At the turn of the century, further documents of the EP on particular problem areas have been published. These included, among others:

- ‘Resolution on urgent measures to be taken against doping in sport’ (9 April 1999, OJ C 098, 09/04/1999, p. 0291)

The EP passed a ‘Resolution on 8 May 2008 on the White Paper on Sport’, published in the Official Journal (P6_TA(2008)0198 or OJ C 271E, 12.11.2009, p. 51–67). The first paragraph of the resolution marks the Parliament’s position in the context of the White Paper: ‘The European Parliament taking account of the specific nature of sport, its structures based on voluntary activity and its social and educational function’ (P6_TA(2008)0198, p. 51). It is apparent that the EP marks voluntary activity as a trademark of sports and focuses on social and particularly educational purposes much stronger than the EC which linked sports much closer to organised and professional sport activities and with the function of health and competition in the White Paper of Sport. The EP resolution is divided into two parts: the first part of 45 references and administrative links to previous documents (no. A up to AN), and a second part including nine headings of policy sectors (organisation of sports, #1 to #19; doping, #20 to #27, education, young people and health, #28 to #44, social inclusion and anti-discrimination #45 to #60, sport and third countries #61 to #64, sport events #65 to #69, economic aspects #70 to #94, issues related to the employment of sportspeople #95 to #107, and EU sport funding #108 to #114).

Besides the Resolution of the White Paper of Sport, there were some discussions in the EP about the White Paper, documented by written questions and answers of MEPs. In total, of the three periods of investigation (2004-2009, 2009-2014, 2014-2019) thirteen questions on the White Paper and the EU Physical Activity Guidelines were asked by MEPs, mainly in the years of 2009 to 2014 (eleven).

In addition to the Arnaut Report (Arnaut, 2006) presented by the Council in 2006 and the EC’s ‘White Paper on sport’ (COM(2007) 391 final) launched in October 2007 and coordinated by the head of the Sports Unit at that time, Michal Krejza, the ‘Report on the future of professional football in Europe’ (EP Document A6-0036/2007) adopted by the Parliament in February 2007, which was essentially drafted by the rapporteur, Belgian MEP Ivo Belet (EPP), marks the core document of the EP in the first decade of the 21st century. As with the Arnaut Report, experts from UEFA, FIFA, and individual clubs, as well as national ministries, were interviewed on the subject in a public hearing before the publication of the report. The report’s declared goal was to achieve greater fairness in sport: clubs should make a voluntary commitment to combating doping and distributing the revenue – for example, from the marketing of television rights – more fairly. In addition, an awareness campaign against violence in stadiums was to be launched. Given the evidence of mismanagement in some professional clubs, the Parliament also called for a uniform club licensing procedure with an integrated cost control system. Ultimately, the parliamentary report’s tenor was similar to that of the report produced by the Council: primarily, more effective self-regulation was demanded – but cautious changes to the legal framework were also considered.
Until the early 1970s, the EP had no legislative powers, but only the right to be consulted on legislation in specific policy areas. The right to be consulted was not extended until 1970, when the Community received its own budget. The Own Resources Decision of April 1970 provided the Community with its own resources. The budgetary regulations of the 1970s paved the way at European level for parliamentary legislative competences. However, the EP did not limit its catalogue of functions to legislation. Sport offers a clear example of the EP’s emerging agenda-setting function. The EP made important contributions to sports policy, particularly between the 1980s and 2000s, before sports competences were enshrined in the Treaties. This contribution was particularly evidenced in the international dimension of sport. During the 1970s and at the beginning of the 1980s, the EP increased its activities on the international political stage. The Parliament already understood its role to be an attentive guardian of human rights worldwide. If one balances the Parliament’s sports-related activities for the period until 2009, it can be seen as an early pioneer of European sports policy.

2.3. Experiencing the implementation of sport into the treaties

Sport had not been included in treaties until the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU) came into force in December 2009. The EU, therefore, had no competence to carry out sport policies directly. Article 165 set the frame to develop a direct supportive and complementary policy in the field of sport. Until then, to avoid accusations that the EU was acting outside its competences, its institutions had linked sports-related funding programmes to existing responsibilities in the Treaties, such as education policy being connected with EYES in 2004. The new competence for sport under Article 165 now allowed the EU to provide direct financial support for sport without having to justify these actions by references to other Treaty articles. Linked to the new competences was, above all, the expectation that the EU would develop a more coherent approach to the challenges in sport. Therefore, the main changes for sport after Lisbon have had an institutional and financial, rather than a legal impact (Anderson, Parrish & García, 2018).

2.3.1. The European Commission

Sport politics at European level are shaped by the mission statements of the institutions. Position papers and programmes initially reflected institutional preferences in sport. One of the most important documents after the Lisbon Treaty came into effect was the EC’s communication on ‘Developing the European dimension of sport’ in 2011 (COM (2011) 12 final), which was preceded by more extensive consultations and the convening of an expert group. Following on from the 2007 White Paper (COM(2007) 391 final), this communication highlights the potential of sport to make a significant contribution to the overall Europe 2020 strategy objectives by improving people’s employability and mobility through sport. At the same time, measures to promote social inclusion in sport are also encouraged. In its communication, which is broken down into the areas of the social role of sport, the economic dimension of sport, and the organisation of sport, the Commission presents a wide range of measures, including the promotion of transnational anti-doping networks, the increased monitoring of state aid rules in sport and support for good governance in sport.

As for the White Paper on Sport and the action plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ – which was an essential part of it – it had been published in 2007 (COM(2007) 391 final; SEC(2007) 934). This marked another step forward after EYES 2004 to promote and highlight the socio-cultural and, particularly, educational dimensions of sport. The White Paper was a turning point in assessing and acknowledging social and educational values of sport as European values, even before the Lisbon Treaty of 2009. With the White Paper on Sport, the socio-cultural dimension in European sports policy received a full new status after the tentative beginnings of the 1990s.
The White Paper is structured in three main dimensions: the ‘societal role of sport’, ‘economic dimension of sport’ and ‘organisation of sport’. Each dimension is divided into different indicators, used to deduce a set of 53 actions to take. The most extended dimension with eight indicators and 32 actions is the ‘social dimension of sport’. It covers the topics of (1) enhancing public health through physical activity, (2) joining forces in the fight against doping, (3) enhancing the role of sport in education and training, (4) promoting volunteering and active citizenship, (5) social inclusion, integration, and equal opportunities, (6) prevention and fight against racism and violence, (7) sharing values with other parts of the world and (8) supporting sustainable development for the environment by sporting facilities and sport events. The scope of the economic dimension of sport included the two indicators moving towards evidence-based sport policies with four actions to take and putting public support for sport on a more secure footing with the recommendation of two actions. The dimension of ‘organisation of sport’ covers another eight indicators regarding (1) the specificity of sport, (2) free movement and nationality, (3) transfers, (4) player’s agents, (5) protection of minors, (6) corruption, money laundering, and other forms of financial crime, (7) player’s licensing systems of clubs and (8) media.

The White Paper is linked to the action plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ which intertwines the recommended actions with Olympic ideals. The White Paper was accompanied by an extended Commission Staff Working Document (SEC(2007) 932), which condensed the White Paper document’s structure and content in a first part and added valuable background information of previous treaty developments, documents, and administration policies in the second part.

One of the earliest reviews of the White Paper was published by Garcia (2009). Garcia criticised the Commission’s position, judging it ‘as `unrealistic` to define a single model of sport for Europe’ (Garcia, 2009, 267). He argued: ‘the European model of sport focused heavily on the role of federations, their regulatory role and their monopolistic position, the White Paper now points towards the emergence of new stakeholders. The Commission, therefore, is not only backtracking in respect to the pyramidal and vertical structure at the core of the European model, but it is also flagging the fact that there are other stakeholders gaining power and importance’ (Garcia, 2009, p. 273). UEFA representative Jonathan Hill argues from a somewhat different perspective, as his assessment of the White Paper reveals: ‘The European Court of Justice’s Meca-Medina decision (2006) cast doubt on sport’s unique features that distinguish it from normal economic activity. The White Paper on Sport appears to reinforce this view’. ‘One might argue, even, that the White Paper represents a step backwards vis-à-vis the Commission’s Helsinki Report of 1999’ (Hill, 2009, p. 253). Another academic article on the White Paper on Sport was published by Rogulski & Mietinnen (2009). They stated: ‘the White Paper was adopted on the basis of the existing Treaty framework and will continue to be the policy framework for the EU approach to sport regardless of the outcome of the Lisbon Treaty deliberations. Most of the points in the accompanying Action Plan are achievable whether or not the constitutional dialogue that has been taking place in the Union leads to Treaty revision’ (Rogulski & Mietinnen, 2009, p. 246). Both authors highlight the execution of the White Paper and endorsement of the EU PE Guidelines (EU Working Group ‘Sports and Health’, 2008) at the first re-invented meeting of the EU Sport Forum.

So, the baselines of sport development in Europe at the time of publication of the White Paper (2007) had already changed into a more horizontal plane, as compared to the 1990s. Some academic discourses and assessments of the European Model of Sport after the publication of the White Paper (Garcia, 2009; Hill, 2009; Rogulski & Mietinnen, 2009; Weatherhill, 2009; Parish, 2018; Kornbeck, 2020) underpin structural changes in the appearance of the sport system in EU. After the turn of the century, the sport system became even more individualised in most Member States and was extended to embrace more target groups, such as infants, the elderly, disadvantaged persons, and refugees. There are some empirical shifts visible one decade after the publication of the White Paper on Sport, which
lead to a critical evaluation of what has been achieved for the actions as indicators of the White Paper’s implementation. It should have been achieved within five years of 2012. This timeline was too ambitious.

The European Sport Forum, initiated by the EC in December 1991 and held annually until 2003, served primarily as a platform for dialogue on sports policy issues with private stakeholders in line with the European Sports Conferences of EP. No forum was held between 2004 and 2007 due to criticism of the lack of opportunities for participation and only consultation conferences were organised during that time. From 2008 onwards, the EU Sport Forum organised by the EC – under a slightly different name – took up again the role of a sport forum, in which governmental and private representatives of sport in the EU Member States, representatives of the EC, the EP, and the Council came together. Since the start of this new manifestation, great importance has been attached to closer coordination with the Council of Ministers and the respective Council Presidency. Immediately after the EU Sport Forum, the Council holds a meeting of the sport ministers at the same venue.

The revitalization of the sport forum has not resolved the issue of suitable forms of communication, consultation, and coordination, since the diverse interests of an increasingly large number of actors can hardly be adequately considered. As a further instrument, the EC relies on structured dialogue with organised sport and bilateral meetings. However, since the sport governing bodies continue to struggle for access and influence despite their coordination and the financial power of some sports, the EC needed to differentiate further its procedures. In October 2014, UEFA signed a formal agreement with the EC (Decision C(2014) 7378 final) in which both partners committed to regular bilateral meetings. The fact that football, in particular, enjoys privileged access is also documented in a joint declaration published on 21 March 2012 by EU Competition Commissioner Joaquin Almunia and UEFA President Michel Platini.

After Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU created the legal basis for the direct promotion of sport at European level, the activities of the EC focused on programme activities. The EC adopted a programme of preparatory actions in the field of sport. With a budget of EUR 4 million, the programme aimed to prepare EU activities following the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty based on the priorities set out in the White Paper on Sport (Rogulski & Miettinen, 2009). In the comprehensive EU programme for education, training, youth, and sport (‘Erasmus+’), which ran from 2014-2020, sport was explicitly taken into account for the first time (De Kind, Scheerder & Vos, 2017). Its share amounts to just under two percent of the total budget and includes around EUR 265 million for programme activities during its first seven-year funding period. EC has recently made a particular effort to double sports-related expenditure under the forthcoming multiannual financial framework 2021-2027 (MFF) and to anchor sport more firmly in the mobility and structural programmes.

The Commission is not only involved in the preparation of activities and distributive measures and – as in other policy areas – in their control (Geeraert, 2013, 2016). In sport, the EU Commission’s control function is also reflected in the initiation of infringement proceedings against EU Member States in the field of sport, including, most recently, the demand for France to levy VAT on tickets for games and sporting events, and the appeal to Austria to consider the free movement of professional ski instructors and schools. Furthermore, the sporting associations are controlled by the EC as well. In 2016, the EU Commission decided to initiate formal anti-trust proceedings against the ISU. The starting point for this was the question of whether federation rules that impose exclusion from competitions on athletes who participate in competitions organised by other organisers beyond the ISU are admissible. In another case, Formula 1 teams themselves asked the EU Competition Directorate General to examine special payments made by the organisers to individual racing teams, which could constitute a potentially unacceptable distortion of competition. In all the cases mentioned above, the central question of
European sports policy is thus whether sport has a specific character and special rights or to what extent an exception to EU competition and anti-trust law is permissible.

Finally, the Commission also has promoted the development of the European dimension of sport through academic studies. The topics that have been addressed are listed in the Annex 2B of this study, offering an overview of the scope of areas addressed. Most recently, analyses have been published on corruption in sport and access to sport for people with disabilities.

2.3.2. The Council and the Council Presidencies

In the 1990s and 2000s, the initiatives to shape European sports policy emanated mainly from the EP and the EC (Kornbeck, 2013, 2020). Since sport was anchored in primary law, the Council has assumed an increasingly important role (Mittag, 2009ff). Under the Spanish Presidency, the Council of Sport Ministers was formally constituted for the first time on 10 May 2010; until then, the Council had only met informally due to the lack of a legal basis. In September 2010, the Belgian Presidency officially established the new Council formation ‘Education, Youth, Culture and Sport’. Under the Hungarian Presidency, the Council Work Plan for Sport for the years 2011-2014 was finally adopted in May 2011 after controversial discussions on the scope and priority of the topics. In the second half of 2011, the Polish Council Presidency – which, together with Denmark and Cyprus, was already the second team presidency after the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty – was given the task of initiating the implementation of the EU Work Plan for sport adopted in June 2011. Poland focused primarily on the social and economic dimension of sport, and paid special attention to its potential for integration.

On the part of the Council, the activities of the six sports-related working groups were the focus of attention under both the Irish and Lithuanian presidencies in 2013. Most of the results of the negotiations and discussions and the conclusions of the specialised working groups are made available online, but they have also raised the question of reforms in the orientation of the working groups, for example during the EU Sport Forum in Vilnius in September 2013. The Irish Council Presidency set its attention on the area of athletes’ dual careers, anti-doping activities, and the mandate for the EU Commission in the negotiations on an international convention of EP to combat the manipulation of sports results. In contrast, the Greek Presidency (2014) focused on the role of major sporting events and the economic significance of sport.

The next EU Work Plan for Sport for the period 2014-2017, adopted by the Council of Sports Ministers on 21 May 2014, established five expert groups addressing match-fixing, good governance, the economic dimension of sport, HEPA, and the development of human resources in sport. Also, the field of doping is dealt with by the national sport directors that meet usually at least once under each EU Presidency. These five working groups of the Council formed the central working unit of sport at European level. Here, Member States and organised sport as well as representatives of the EU institutions, meet to develop the basis for future activities.
The respective Council presidencies also set their own priorities, but increasingly coordinate their activities to pursue long-term and sustainable goals. The Italian Presidency of the Council (2014) placed particular emphasis on sport to integrate the socially disadvantaged and its role as a driver of innovation and economic growth. The Latvian Council Presidency (2015), on the other hand, paid particular attention to strengthening popular sport and promoting a healthy lifestyle. In addition to promoting physical activity among children and young people, the priorities of the Luxembourg Presidency in the second half of 2015 included the role of the EU on the WADA Board and the signing of EP Convention on the prevention of match-fixing. Luxembourg's activities are reflected in the results of the Council of Sports Ministers of 23/24 November 2015, which called on organised sport to offer more non-competitive activities for children and intensify cooperation with local authorities. The Dutch Presidency, which began in January 2016, took a close look at the integrity of sport and paid particular attention to the awarding of major sporting events. With a conference on education in and through sport Slovak Presidency already marked its sports policy leitmotif for the coming months in July 2016.

The most important event in the period 2016/17 was the EU Work Plan for Sport of the Council for the years 2017 to 2020, adopted by the European Ministers of Sport on 23 May 2017. While the previous work plan was criticised for its limited concrete impact and an excessively wide range of topics with too many expert meetings, the new work plan, which came into effect in July 2017 and was extended to the end of the EU financial framework, that is till 31 December 2020, provided greater focus. The third EU Work Plan for Sport adopted by the Council of Sport Ministers thus identified three thematic priority areas for 2017 to 2020: 1) the integrity of sport, with particular emphasis on good governance, the protection of minors and the fight against corruption, match-fixing, and doping; 2) the economic dimension of sport; 3) the relationship between sport and society.

Malta's Council Presidency set its priorities for the first half of 2017 on inclusion and volunteering. In the second half of 2017, the Estonian Presidency focused, among other things, on the future of the sports dimension of the Erasmus+ programme, the dual career of athletes, and structured dialogue between the Member States and sporting federations, while the Bulgarian Presidency (2018) placed the promotion of European values through sport, the fight against doping and the role of popular sport on the agenda. The Austrian Presidency in the second half of 2018 dealt in detail with the economic significance of sport. Under the Romanian aegis (2019) particular attention was paid to activities to increase the participation of people with disabilities in sport. The Romanian Presidency also hosted the European Sports Forum in Bucharest, which remains the main communication platform for representatives of states and associations in sport. The Finnish Presidency, which began on 1 July 2019, focused on negotiations on the multiannual financial framework and the new 'Erasmus+' programme. The Croatian and the German Presidency in 2020 were forced to adapt their original agenda to foster first steps to cope with the challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic. At the end of the German Presidency the new EU Work Plan for Sport for the period from January 2021 to June 2024 was introduced. In continuation of previous activities, the following three dimensions are particularly emphasised: protecting integrity and values in sport; socio-economic and environmental dimension of sport; promoting participation in sport and HEPA.

2.3.3. The advisory EU bodies

The European advisory bodies, the Economic and Social Committee (ECOSOC), and the (European) Committee of the Regions (CoR) have only played minor roles in public perceptions of sport. They have, however, repeatedly expressed their positions by commenting on the key documents of the EU institutions. For example, in its opinion on the White Paper on Sport, ECOSOC (COM(2007) 391 final OJ C 151) supported the Commission’s activities, but at the same time stressed that ‘a joint approach by
several departments at the Community level could have a positive impact on the fragmented measures implemented by governmental structures at national level. The Commission communication ‘Developing the European dimension in sport’ was also welcomed. It was extraordinary that the Economic and Social Committee issued an own-initiative opinion on the topic ‘Sport and European Values’ in 2015 (SOC/514-EESC-2014). The report by the rapporteur Bernardo Hernández Bataller highlighted the many opportunities offered by sport and stated that ‘sport helps meet the EU’s strategic objectives, brings to the fore key educational and cultural values and is a conduit of integration, since it is open to all members of the public, regardless of their gender, ethnic origin, religion, age, nationality, social situation or sexual orientation’.

The Committee of the Regions has also issued opinions on sport. Its Opinion Paper includes 14 general statements as policy recommendations and another 21 topics similar to the 18 indicators of the White Paper. In the general statements as ‘policy recommendations’ the CoR strongly supported assumptions within the White Paper, and expresses some concerns from the perspective of regional and local sport authorities. There are some remarkable statements of the CoR in which the range of recommendations of the White Paper is extended by or/and added with some paragraphs in the Opinion paper, e.g. about the enhancing public health through physical activity (no. 17), the role of sport in education and training (no. 25), the promotion of volunteering and active citizenship (no. 27), the potential of sport for social inclusion, integration, and equal opportunities (no. 35), moving towards evidence-based sports politics (no.46) and structural dialogue with sporting associations and federations (no. 71). The CoR strongly supported the implementation of the White Paper, particularly in the cross-border regions of the Member States.

The CoR recently suggested ‘Main-streaming sport into the EU agenda post-2020’. It not only referred to the importance of sport for ‘promoting health and the adoption of a healthy lifestyle’, but stressed that sport ‘entails significant benefits for local and regional authorities’. Particular importance was attached to the European Structural and Investment Funds for sport initiatives. The opinion also focused on small-scale sporting infrastructures and facilities.

Both bodies have also repeatedly drawn attention to sport by making their Brussels premises available for sports-related conferences. In November 2018, for example, the Committee of Regions organised a conference on EU funding for sport together with UEFA.

2.4. The European Parliament and sports politics after ‘Lisbon’

Following the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the EP commissioned a study on current and future sports politics by a British team of researchers (Parrish et al., 2010), which was discussed in more detail during the study presentation in September 2010 and an expert hearing in November 2010. During this hearing, it was stated that Article 165 complements existing judicial possibilities which allow for the specific nature of sport to be recognised. Article 165 acknowledges that the EU has a strong role in facilitating dialogue, sharing best practice, and ensuring that sporting autonomy is conditioned on implementing good governance in sport. The authors proposed that efforts at encouraging social dialogue in sport – as it has been used in football (Colucci & Geeraert, 2011; García & Meier 2012) – should be maintained, and moves towards a structured dialogue should not undermine these efforts.

Structured dialogue was considered problematic given the diversity of the sports movement while the thematic dialogue with the sports movement should be encouraged. A declaration on grassroots sport was also adopted in 2010 (Written Declaration 0062/2010). The CULT Committee of the EP subsequently called for a comprehensive increase in the sport budget, but this move was only...
partially successful within the EP. In its debates, the plenary of the EP claimed, among other things, that there was a need for action in problem areas such as transfers of minors and players' agents.

Especially in the 2000s and early 2010s, the EP showed considerable interest in football. While at the beginning of the 2010s the Parliament had sought to close ranks with organised football and repeatedly invited both Sepp Blatter (FIFA) and Michel Platini (UEFA) to Strasbourg and Brussels respectively, it later distanced itself and stressed the need for improved integrity in sporting associations.

On 2 February 2012, the EP adopted by a large majority the opinion on the Commission communication ‘Developing a European dimension for sport’ (COM (2011) 12 final), previously discussed in greater detail by the Committee on Culture and Education, which was the lead committee, and drafted by rapporteur Santiago Fisas (EPP). The Parliament’s key demands include the promotion of sport through European Structural Funds and support for dual careers for athletes, and the inclusion of doping in criminal law and the prosecution of match-fixing.

For the EP, the budget negotiations were also an important cornerstone of its sports policy. The MEPs were finally satisfied that, for the first time, a sports chapter with its ring-fenced budget was included in the ‘Erasmus+ programme’. The share of sport accounted for approximately 1.8% of the total budget, including about EUR 238 million for programme activities over the seven-year funding period from 2014 to 2020.

The EP has repeatedly addressed the dark side of sport in its hearings and resolutions. On 18 December 2012, a hearing on sports economic aspects took place under the title ‘Playing by the rules: Financial fair play and the fight against corruption in sport’. On 14 March 2013, the EP adopted a resolution on match-fixing and corruption in sport (P7_TA(2013)009). The Parliament’s resolution on ‘Online gambling in the internal market’(P7_TA(2013)0348) recommended a ban on betting on corner kicks, free kicks, throw-ins, and yellow cards.

To give greater weight to sport, a new sport intergroup was set up in the EP following the 2014 European elections. Its intention was to develop new impetus beyond the activities of the intergroup which already existed between 2001 and 2009, but had been considered ineffective. The EP has also paid close attention to the issue of integrity. For example, on 6 April 2016, a conference on match-fixing was held, hosted by the sport intergroup. The fact that European sports policy is not detached from general political developments is documented by the debates held within the EP on the consequences of the refugee crisis and BREXIT on sport.

On 2 February 2017, the EP adopted the report on an ‘Integrated approach to Sport Policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity’ (P8_TA(2017)0012, coordinated by the Finnish rapporteur Hannu Takkula (ALDE). This report was the most important opinion adopted by the EP during the 9th parliamentary term and contains a comprehensive list of challenges in sport. With the newly introduced category of ‘accessibility’, particular attention was paid to the role of popular sport and the development of physical activity. This focus of the EP was already reflected in the hearing organised by ENGSO in the EP on 6 September 2016 on ‘The Way Forward for Grassroots Sport in Europe’.

The EP’s sport intergroup has traditionally addressed the more professional sports-related issues of dual career, player transfers, and the digital market in sports events. However, the fact that the EP’s activities in sport are wide-ranging is shown by the hearings as well as the meetings of the intergroup on sport, some of which were also held in cooperation with other ‘inter-groups’ or NGOs, for example in April 2018 on the topic of ‘Empowering women through sport’, in May 2018 on the topic of discrimination in football or in June 2018 on the manipulation of sports competitions.
Other activities include a hearing on the football transfer system in September 2018, a session on mental health in top-level sport in October 2018, and a further event on child trafficking in sport. The EP Subcommittee on Human Rights organised an event on major sporting events and human rights in November 2019. In March 2019, the Intergroup Sport organised a conference on sport and regional development. Overall, the EP presented itself as a forum placing particular emphasis on the social and the European dimension of sport. This stance was particularly evident in the EP positions on EU funding programmes, which, like the ESF+ and the Interreg, included references to sport.

An overview of frequencies of sectors in the questions and answers of the EP provides more detailed information on the Parliament's priorities (see Table 1).

The research team assessed the EP plenary website to analyse the frequencies of sectors related to the keyword ‘sport’. The keyword ‘sport’ was searched for all political groups in text for the three parliamentary terms/periods, namely from 2004-2009, from 2009-2014, and from 2014-2019 through the ‘Questions and Union acts’ search mask. In total, 898 entries were examined by matching the titles to the corresponding sector(s).

The quantified results (Table 1) show that the Parliament’s involvement through questions and answers related to sport increased steadily from the first period (2004-2009) up to the third period (2014-2019). However, not all entries could be associated with one of our sectors; this explains the difference between sector counts and total counts. Nonetheless, the interest in the area of sport seems to have increased over time. The overall frequency distribution shows that the ‘Sport Law’ sector has the highest number of entries across all three periods and showed the Parliament’s concern in the relationship between sport and EU law. Furthermore, the sector ‘Sport industry (tourism)’ have become prominent as an area of concern from 2009 onwards and the sector ‘Sport for all’ has developed over time. A peak of interest in the topic of ‘Corruption/Sport betting’ could be seen in the second period with more than 50% of the entries coming from that period. In the last period from 2014 to 2019, there seemed to be a special interest in topics regarding ‘Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)’ (50 entries in total). In comparison to the most discussed issues, ‘E-Sports’, ‘Informal sports’, ‘Brexit’, ‘Multi-annual framework’, ‘Refugees & Migration’ and ‘COVID-19’ were the least discussed. However, it needs to be regarded that topics, such as ‘Brexit’ or ‘COVID-19’, have only recently become prominent.

The overview shows how the topics ranking higher on the Agenda of the EP’s sports policy discussions developed over time. In the first period from 2004-2009, ‘Sport law’, ‘Free movement for professionals’, ‘Doping’, ‘Regional development’, ‘Diversity/Women sport/ Underrepresented groups’, ‘Safeguarding of children/protection of children’ as well as ‘Physical activity and accessibility’ (EU-Week of Sports, School Sport Day)’. In the second period from 2009 to 2014, ‘regional development’ and ‘sport law’ remained prominent, while ‘Corruption/Sport betting’, ‘Sport for all’, ‘Sport Industry’ and ‘Youth Development’ were most prominent. This is also the only parliamentary term in which ‘Volunteering’ became an issue. During the last five years, the Parliament has discussed not only the world of sport, and ‘Sport mega events’ and ‘Human rights’. Additionally, the socio-cultural dimension was increasingly elaborated at EU level, showing high counts of ‘Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)’, ‘Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups’, ‘Safeguarding of children / protection of children’ as well as ‘Physical activity and accessibility’ – contrastingly to the other two periods.

The reason why ‘Sport Law’ is prominent across all parliamentary terms, seems to be the cross-sectional nature of this topic. Against the backdrop of the predominantly economic dimension of the EU/EC, it comes as no surprise that ‘Sport industry’ also is a regular topic, as sport has to react rather than being proactive in that field.
Table 1: Overview of frequencies of sectors in the Questions and Answers of the EP (in text: sport)

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European Games)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Human rights (children, women, athletes)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sport diplomacy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Regional development</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sport and safety environment, animal rights</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Sport Law</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Grassroot sports</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Free Movement for professionals</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Media sports (digitalisation)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Sport industry (tourism)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Sport facility building</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Doping</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Corruption / Sport betting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>47</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Esports</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Social inclusion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Physical activity and ‘accessibility’ (EU-Week of Sports, School Sport Day)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Informal sport</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Sport for all</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Spectator sports</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Volunteering</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Youth development</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
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<td>27. Brexit</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. Multi-Annual Framework</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Refugees &amp; Migration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. COVID-19</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. Environmentally Sustainable Development</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of all sector counts</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>794</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘Sport’ Entries of Q &amp; As in this period</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>898</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The five most frequently cited sectors (or more when several sectors share a rank) for each period and, in the last column, across all periods are marked green, the five least frequently referred are marked red (again, sectors with the same count share a rank). Source: Own research
2.5. Sporting organisations

Before public authorities became more involved in sport at European level, private sporting organisations were the key players in European sports development. Among the first players to become active at European level were the European sporting federations, which were founded as independent continental organisations to complement international sporting federations. In addition to the successive expansion of European sporting federations, a further characteristic of these sporting organisations is that they were primarily oriented towards the organisation of European sports competitions, that they were mostly founded under Swiss law, and that they have their headquarters not only in Switzerland, but also in numerous other European countries. The impact of European integration on these European sporting federations was thus obviously limited.

The situation is different for European interest groups specialised in sport. There are now some 70 organisations at European level representing European sport in various forms. In addition to organisations such as the EOC or the European Paralympic Committee, which claim to represent organised sport on a broad scale, there are also specialised sporting organisations, such as the European Observatory of Sport and Employment (est. 2002) or the European Specialist Sports Nutrition Alliance (est. 2003), which pursue more economic or social interests. Here, the founding processes were much more pronounced in the 1990s and 2000s. Similarly, the association's headquarters are often located in Brussels. This shows the strong orientation of these organisations to the EU.

In parallel with the institutionalisation of sports politics by the Community institutions, the 1990s saw the emergence of an increasing number of sporting organisations. Given the influential role of national associations from the European Member States, from the 1950s to the 1980s only a small number of European umbrella organisations existed. In the 1990s, with the emergence of the internal market, greater attention was paid to the political processes of the EU in Brussels, and even representations of organised sport were established in Brussels. German sport played a pioneering role in this process. In September 1993, on the joint initiative of the then still independent organisations DSB and NOC for Germany and the regional sporting federations (LSB), an EU office for German sport was set up in Brussels, headed by an ‘EU representative for German sport’. In 2009, the European Olympic Committee took over the sponsorship of the office in line with the implementation of sport into the EU Treaties. This step is mirrored by national associations' intensified cooperation and the growing number of European sporting organisations. Under the direction of Folker Hellmund, the EOC EU office is now located in Brussels in the ‘House of European Sport’. It attempts to anticipate the effects of EU legislation on European sport at an early stage, and to influence the shaping of European

1 Three European federations that already existed before the Second World War are: the Ligue Européenne de Natation (est. 1927), Rugby Europe (1934), and the European Golf Association (1937). After 1945 they were joined by the European Boxing Union (1946), the European Judo Union (1948) and the Confederation of European Basebal (1953), the Union of European Football Associations (1954), the Fédération Internationale de Basketball Europe (1957), the European Table Tennis Union (1957) and the European Shooting Confederation (1958).

sports policy. The EOC EU Office also has a networking function between the various national sporting associations and the European sporting federations.

The growing importance of the EU for sport and the strategic efforts of EU decision-makers to give the associations access to the EU institutions resulted in the continuing differentiation of players and the emergence of further European umbrella organisations spanning various sports. These are located partly in Brussels, and in Switzerland, in the vicinity of the international sporting associations. A few associations are also located in other countries, such as the European Gay & Lesbian Sport Federation (EGLSF) in the Netherlands, which was founded in 1989. The number, orientation, and range of these European federations’ activities are now so diverse that a veritable proliferation of sports politics can be observed. What the newly founded European (special interest) sporting organisations have in common is that their primary objective is not – and sometimes not at all – to organise European sports competitions. Rather, they are primarily active as political representatives of interests.

**The differentiation of players at European level continues to this day:** One of the oldest European umbrella organisations is ENGSO (European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation), which was founded in 1995 but goes back to predecessors in the 1960s. Its main aim is to network national sporting organisations with the national Olympic Committees, thereby pursuing an interest representation with a broad sports focus and pan-European perspective, which was initially oriented towards EP. Particularly after the turn of the century, other European organisations spanning various sports were founded: For example, the European Professional Football Leagues (EPFL) was created in 2005 on the foundations of a predecessor organisation that had existed since 1997, to represent the interests of professional football leagues more effectively. This European umbrella organisation now includes 32 national leagues. Professional athletes have established their own cross-sports representation through the organisation EU Athletes – European Elite Athletes Association, which was established in 2007.

In December 2009, the professional sporting federations UEFA (football), CEV (volleyball), EHF (handball), FIBA-Europe (basketball), FIRA-AER (rugby), and IIHF (ice hockey) established an interdependent European representation of the major team sporting federations under the label ‘European Team Sport Association’ to give greater visibility to their common strategic objectives.

In autumn 2015, another **House of Sport** was opened in Brussels, hosting a several sporting organisations and special interest groups: These include EuropeActive (European Health and Fitness Association), FESI, ICSS, and the European think tank Sport & Citizenship, alongside ACES Europe, EMCA, EHLA, Federation of European Sport Retailers, EFCS, and EPSI. Other European organisations that are not exclusively oriented towards sport, such as the European Lotteries initiated in 1983 and reformed in 1999, have to be added. These organisations are merely indicative of the diversity of European sporting organisations and their concerns, suggesting that the issue of **access to or participation in the decision-preparation and decision-making processes** of the EU represents a central challenge (Garcia, 2007; Meier & Garcia, 2013; Chatzigianni, 2010).
### 3. THE »PRESENT«: CURRENT ASPECTS OF EUROPEAN SPORTS POLICIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY FINDINGS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU sport policy topics can be divided into three key dimensions: political, economic and socio-cultural, and complemented by a section related to current issues. Each dimension consists of various sport policies and sectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key EU documents within this chapter are the EC’s White Paper on Sport (2007), the 2011 Communication on Developing the European Dimension in Sport. Furthermore, the EU work plans for Sport, as well as numerous studies commissioned by EC and EP were considered relevant to the analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The political dimension is largely shaped by numerous EU statements and communications having principally soft law characteristics. Key aspects here include the maintenance of integrity and the promotion of value-driven sport developments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In view of the economic dimension particular attention has been paid to the protection of intellectual property rights. Economic-related issues are coined by legally binding EU legislation due to the involvement of various economic and hence “single-market-actors”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU institutions and sport organisations both acknowledge the power of sport to shape society and its unifying and educative role. Due to on-going societal changes in demand for sport and physical exercise, the socio-cultural dimension of EU sport policy faces considerable challenges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In addition to refugee issues, Brexit and the Covid-19 crisis have a significant impact on sport, and as urgent contemporary challenges, they require rapid responses and reaction.</td>
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The on-going processes of differentiation in European sports policy are most clearly visible in the individual policy fields and sectors, which will be examined in detail concerning the political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions, and particularly current, urgent issues. These dimensions can be considered as an update of previous approaches to categorise the pillars of EU sports policy (Halleux 2015, 10)

**Figure 1.** offers an approach to display the diverse and inter-connected variety of policy fields, their current centeredness in the European sports policy discourse and expected future trends (indicated by the grey arrows). It is to be seen as an orientation and starting point for further discussions rather than an exact representation of the status quo. While most policy fields can be classified into one of the three dimensions (political, economic and socio-cultural), this is not as obvious and clear for others. The White Paper for Sport, for example, is a telling example for all three dimensions.

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2 A larger version of Figure 1 can be found in Annex 4.
3.1. **Political Dimension**

The primary challenge of the political dimension of sport is the **protection of integrity in sport**. In line with the reinvention of the concept of **sport values** these topics have become a key issue in the second decade of the 21st century. This dimension’s agenda has been shaped by questions of output legitimacy in organised sport, the future organisation of sport, new instruments and targets, such as the hosting of sport mega events, and the emerging fields of sports diplomacy and good governance.

3.1.1. **Human and Social Rights**

The TFEU offers the legal base for human rights in the EU sports context. Article 6 directly refers to the ‘Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU’ (CFR) that became legally binding when the Lisbon Treaty entered into force (OJ C 326, 26.10.2012, p. 391–407). The 2012 ‘Strategic Framework on Human Rights and Democracy’ includes the objective to mainstream human rights into all EU policies. Although sport is no exemption to these policy fields, neither the former nor the new **EU Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy** specifically refer to sport or physical activity. The EU Work Plan for Sport has named the topic of human rights in the sports context and the Commission’s Expert Group on Good Governance has dealt with these topics from 2014 onwards. In the ‘Report on the implementation and relevance of the EU Work Plan for Sport 2014-2017’, the Council pointed out that problems like data protection, human rights, and major sport events should be linked to joint policy efforts at the level of
the EU (Council 2014/C 183/03). Due to the physical and bodily nature of sport, its discriminatory potential, and the necessity of physical activity to enable people to live a healthy life, the following issues have been particularly prominent in the discussion about human rights in sports:

- **human rights in the context of large sporting events,**
- **rights of professional athletes,** and
- **discrimination in access to sport participation.**

The topic of **human rights in the context of large sporting events** was regularly discussed in the EP’s Subcommittee on Human Rights (DROI) from 2014 onwards. Following the first hearing on sport and human rights focusing on the situation of migrant workers in Qatar in February 2014, a joint hearing on large sporting events and human rights was held one year later together with CULT. Experts drew attention to a range of human rights violations in connection with large sporting events in host countries like Russia (Winter Olympics 2014), Brazil (FIFA Men’s World Cup 2014, Summer Olympics 2016), and Qatar (FIFA Men’s World Cup 2022) such as: the exploitation of workers in sport facility construction for mega events, the discrimination of women, the LGBTQI+ community and other minorities, freedom of speech for journalists, and safety of human rights activists fighting corruption at mega events. MEPs and the chairs of DROI and CULT, Elena Valenciano and Silvia Costa, agreed that the host city election is a major political decision with wide-reaching implications and that sports organizations need to pay attention to the election of hosts. A press release (EP, 2015a) also stated that ‘[MEPs] also expressed their will to work on a resolution on human rights and sports events’. However, such a resolution is still awaited. As requested by the Commission, the Expert Group on Good Governance (XGG) published in 2016 the ‘Guiding principles relating to democracy, human rights and labour rights, in particular in the context of the awarding procedure of major sport events, possibly followed by a pledge board’. The XGG recommended that hosts should be ‘bound to obligations related to legacy and sustainability, and to respecting human rights and labour rights’ (Expert Group on Good Governance, 2016a, p.10) not only during the staging of the event but for the entire ‘life cycle’ from contract to legacy programmes. In the Parliament, DROI held an exchange of views on sport and human rights in the context of large sporting events on two other occasions in July 2016 and November 2018. Major sporting events were even mentioned as a cause of human trafficking by the Commission’s ‘Strategy towards the Eradication of Trafficking in Human Beings 2012-2016’ (COM(2012) 286 final).

A quite relevant topic for **athletes is Rule 50 of the IOC’s Olympic Charter** which restricts the demonstration of political, religious, or racial propaganda for athletes, staff, and spectators at all Olympic venues and which just recently caused discussions when athletes became involved in the ‘Black Lives Matter’ movement. Restrictions of the freedom of speech in the context of other major sport events are nevertheless supported by frequent claims from sport officials about the apolitical nature of sport, even if they are in conflict with the freedom of expression and information (Article 11, CFR). To date, there are no EU policies on this topic. This is all the more salient since, especially in team sports, interest groups and collective representation organisations have been established in recent years by athletes and players. Against this background, academic studies have already examined the position of athletes in the network of clubs and associations at the beginning of the 21st century. It soon became clear, however, that there was no question of classic co-determination in the sense of co-decision or participation in entrepreneurial or association-related decisions. So, a sport-specific form of representation developed within the framework of athlete commissions became established. This development was welcomed by the athletes themselves but was sometimes also criticised as an ‘alibi’. 
In the course of the continuing commercialisation of sport and a growing awareness of socio-political issues among athletes, political issues in sport have recently come increasingly into focus. In the meantime, they have even become a central topic of sports policy, which is repeatedly taken up in media coverage. The best-known case is that of NFL professional Colin Kaepernick, who as the quarterback of the San Francisco 49ers in August 2016 protested against police violence and racism by kneeling for the duration of the pre-game national anthem. The protest was joined by other players, fuelling an emotional debate in the US not only on the relationship between sport and politics but also on the issue of solidarity and collective representation in sport.

Only rudimentary research has been conducted in sport into why, how, and by whom social responsibility might take place, and little is known about the potential and limits to be found in this context. Bridging the gap between theory and practice and the question of which forms of social responsibility in sport have proven to be sustainable have only been explored in broad outline.

The rights of professional or elite athletes are closely linked to human rights due to the bodily nature of their profession and the public interest concerning their private lives. Given elite athletes’ mental and physical integrity (Article 3, CFR) and their treatment within the work environment (Article 4, CFR), violations throughout many sport systems can be assumed. Especially in competitive youth sport, it can be questioned if ‘the child’s best interests […] always is] a primary consideration’ and if the athletes’ views are ‘taken into consideration on matters which concern them in accordance with their age and maturity’ (Article 24, CFR). The safeguarding of children has been a regularly discussed topic in European sports policy (for more on this see 3.3.9, in contrast to the issue of emotional and mental abuse of adolescent athletes. The right of ‘Respect for private and family life, respect for home’ (Article 8) of the ‘Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms’ has been a topic frequently discussed since the implementation of the WADA ‘Whereabouts’ system. In 2018, the ECHR decided that the system did not violate Article 8, as it was consistent with the need to ensure sport’s integrity (European Court of Human Rights, 2018). In professional football, some recruiting practices are criticised for involving elements similar to human trafficking and, therefore, for being in violation of Article 5 of CFR. This was addressed by the European Parliament in two written questions about child trafficking in the sports industry in 2018. Also, the Commission’s decision to back FIFA’s decision banning third party ownership in football was supported by the Parliament through a ‘Written Declaration on the ban on third-party ownership of players in European sport’ in 2015 (EP 0066/2015). Although the model of third-party ownership in football is not a human rights violation in itself, the concept is highly controversial and a ‘breeding ground for many of football’s most severe problems […], like] the trafficking of minors’ (Baer-Hoffmann, 2016, p. 162).

Discrimination in sport participation is a problem that occurs on all levels and the dimensions of sex/gender, disability, and age and can either affect active or passive participation (see 3.3.10 and 3.3.11). The topic has been approached by various EU bodies, mostly linked to policies that demand or recommend equal opportunities and inclusion. The Committee of the Regions has repeatedly voiced its opinion about ‘Equal opportunities and Sport’ (OJ C 305, 15.12.2007, p. 53–57), ‘Disability, sport and Leisure’ (OJ C 114, 15.4.2014) and ‘Active ageing’ (OJ C 39, 5.2.2020, p. 53–57). The European Commission addressed discrimination based on disability in 2018 by publishing a mapping study about access to sport for people with disabilities. Based on Article 21 of the CFR, ‘any discrimination based on any ground such as sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or any other opinion, membership of a national minority, property, birth, disability, age or sexual orientation shall be prohibited’. Ethnic discrimination has been researched by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) mostly between 2010 and 2013 but was gradually superseded by other priorities.
The topic of sport and human rights has been integrated into sports policy discussions in EU institutions since 2014 with a strong focus on sporting events, human (child) trafficking, and WADA ‘Whereabouts’ rules. Discrimination is a topic that has received attention through several studies on chosen dimensions but mainly before 2014. Especially ethnic discrimination on different levels of sport was neglected for nearly a decade. Third-party ownership does not seem to be a problem for Parliament as FIFA and UEFA seem to have a self-interest in keeping the practice banned. On intergovernmental level, the Council of Europe is also very active in human rights topics related to sports.

3.1.2. Good Governance and Integrity

Since the beginning of the 21st century, ‘good governance’ has become a buzzword in sport, which is not only associated with high expectations on the part of the public, but is also receiving increasing attention from sporting associations. A more in-depth examination of this aspect by the stakeholders in sports policy has led to a growing focus on undesirable developments such as match fixing (betting as well as the direct manipulation of competition results), fraud or bribery, and mismanagement or taking advantage in sport, summarised under the term of corruption, the ‘abuse of power for private gain’. While it was initially the IOC that had to concede serious misconduct by officials in the wake of the scandal surrounding the 2002 Winter Olympics in Salt Lake City, FIFA experienced the low point of its reputation with the arrests of Executive Committee members at the Zurich Congress in 2015 and the decision on the 2022 World Cup in Football. The call for structural reforms in the international sporting organisations has not fallen silent since then and is also one of the central issues of European sports policy. These expectations include ensuring increased transparency, dealing with the various stakeholders with regards to majority decisions, safeguarding the ethical values of sport against the background of commercialisation, as well as providing the public with information on association decisions, finances, and responsibilities. Hence, the general aim evolved to pursue a sustainable professionalisation process within the sports sector while taking into account stakeholder’s conflicting interests and not inhibiting commercialisation progress to an unacceptable degree.

At the EU level, the concept of good governance has been considered by the establishment of a group of experts on good governance in the framework of the EU Work Plan for Sport 2011-2014, and the issue has been maintained in all work plans for sport ever since. On pan-European interinstitutional level, the CoE’s Convention on the Manipulation of Sports Competitions published in 2014 constitutes an additional key document that aims to provide national systems with the tools, expertise and resources needed in the fight against corruption. In recent years, EU sports policy has been particularly challenged by concrete cases of good governance and integrity in organised sport. The resignation of Michel Platini (UEFA) and Patrick Hickey (EOC), two of the most prominent representatives of organised sport at European level, indicates the difficulties and challenges that European sporting organisations are facing. The solution is not only a change of individual leaders but also an adaptation of the structures of sporting organisations and federations. Examples like the FIFA scandal, and the revealed comprehensive (state) doping system in Russia, which was assessed within the McLaren reports of the WADA, showed that this can hardly be managed from within, i.e. by organised sport alone and hence strengthened the demands for fundamental reforms in sports policy. These appeals did not escape the attention of the stakeholders at the EU level neither, with the result that the topics ‘integrity of sport’ and ‘good governance’, which had been on the agenda for some time, have moved to the top of the priority list of European sports policy. In the last years, increased attention has been paid to good governance within the Expert Group on Sport Integrity under the 2017-2020 EU Work Plan for Sport (successor of the Expert Group on Match Fixing under the 2014-2017 Work Plan).
The preparatory actions for sport and the ERASMUS+ framework have funded many (academic) projects dealing with the implication of good governance principles and anti-corruption measurements. These include among others the project ‘Sport for Good Governance (S4GG)’, led by the EOC EU office, which is based on an educational toolkit and best practice examples. Larger attention has also been paid to the two projects carried out under the aegis of the Danish organisation ‘Play the Game’ by a consortium of research institutes and universities under the ‘Sports Governance Observer’ label. These projects took stock of current governance structures and standards in international and national sporting organisations. To achieve this goal, the project partners developed the benchmarking tool and measuring instrument ‘Sports Governance Observer’, which formed the basis of comprehensive empirical data-gathering. Data were communicated to the sporting organisations and discussed in detail in a constructive and critical dialogue. An important result of the various studies is that the four dimensions of transparency, democracy, control and accountability, and social responsibility as well as the criteria linked to them have now been met with enthusiastic response and have thus contributed to a greater awareness of the subject area. Further programmes, such as ‘PROtect Integrity’, ‘FIX the FIXING’ and ‘Single Points of Contact for Sports Integrity (POINTS)’ were rather related to match-fixing issues and contributed to the development of evidence-based educational tools and the improvement of inter-institutional cooperation. Moreover, the ‘PROtect Integrity’ project collaborated with Interpol and developed, besides face-to-face education courses, the first European-wide, athlete-led whistle-blow system. Most recently, the broad-scaled study ‘Mapping of Corruption in Sport in the EU’ from 2018 completed a mapping review of corruption cases and legal/policy instruments within EU Member States. Its findings highlight the importance of supporting cooperation mechanisms, enhancing knowledge about corruption, developing common definitions and a common understanding of appropriate penalties at the EU level.

The activities of the EU institutions in the field of good governance and corruption are characterised by an on-going effort to raise awareness and keep attention high. The EU institutions admit that it is not their task to manage sporting organisations. However, the EU can offer support to sporting organisations and help them to carry out their activities properly and legitimately. Conversely, however, the threat is made that those who do not want to play by the rules will have to undergo closer scrutiny. In this context, the term ‘supervised autonomy’ has been used in particular. Important instruments in the field of good governance include meetings of the Council Presidencies, meetings with sporting federations building on structured dialogue, studies and conferences of the institutions, particularly in the context of ERASMUS+, and events organised by the EP’s Intergroup on Sport. Financial support for specific initiatives is also provided. During the EWoS in September 2016, a pledge was made to implement good governance in European sport, to which many associations and organisations have signed up.

The EP’s activities in this area do not differ fundamentally from those of the other institutions. Just the scope of the activities is somewhat broader, as the numerous reports adopted between 2012 and 2016 reveal:

- resolution of 2 February 2012 on the European dimension in sport (P7_TA(2012)0025)
- resolution of 14 March 2013 on match-fixing and corruption in sport (P7_TA(2013)0098)
- resolution of 10 September 2013 on online gambling in the internal market (P7_TA(2013)0348)
- resolution of 23 October 2013 on organised crime, corruption and money laundering (P7_TA(2013)0444)
- resolution of 11 June 2015 on recent revelations on high-level corruption cases in FIFA (P8_TA(2015)0233)
The CULT Committee of the EP addressed an oral question to the Commission on match fixing in July 2016, calling for an undertaking to ratify CoE’s Convention on sports match fixing. The most comprehensive document is the resolution of 2 February 2017 on ‘an integrated approach to Sport Policy: good governance, accessibility, and integrity’ calling for a ‘zero tolerance’ policy (P8_TA(2017)0012). Over here the EP reinforced that ‘fighting corruption in sport requires transnational efforts and cooperation among all stakeholders, including public authorities, law enforcement agencies, the sports industry, athletes and supporters’.

Despite continued engagement with the topic, the activities in the area of good governance seem under-developed. The institutions have so far neither issued any statements that specifically address the degree of implementation of good governance measures. Nor is there any regular monitoring; institutions’ preferences and priorities determine the frequency and intensity with which the issue is addressed. No control or sanctions measures are known to exist as these are not desired by organised sport. Against this background, the field of good governance can be best understood as ‘soft law’, in which the aim is not so much a legally binding implementation of criteria, but rather a long-term change in the political culture in sporting organisations.

3.1.3. Doping

Doping is one of the most present and severe threats in the world of sport, challenging some of its core values. In its most recent version of its Code, the WADA defines doping (alongside further regulations) as the possession, usage or trafficking of prohibited substances or methods included in the Prohibited List as well as refusing or failing the control process (WADA, 2019).

The Council of Europe is a pioneer in anti-doping activities at European level. Already in 1967, a first resolution was adopted. The Anti-Doping Convention (ETS 135) of November 1989 by the Council of Europe offered a framework which obtained international recognition (Council of Europe, 1990).

Today, the EU is considered as an important institutional player to protect sportspeople’s physical and moral integrity and, therefore, contribute to the fight against doping in sport. The involvement of EU’s bodies, namely the Commission, the Council, and Parliament in Anti-Doping policies, has been present since the 1990s. The European Commission became actively involved in the creation of the WADA after the 1989 ‘Festina scandal’ at the Tour de France. The EP repeatedly addressed its suggestions and indications within numerous resolutions. From the very start, the EP supported the creation of an international acting and responsible anti-doping agency (OJ C 098, 09/04/1999, p. 0291). Furthermore, it called the EC to foster and promote the cooperation between EU Member States, WADA, and the World Health Organisation (WHO) and to facilitate a sustained information campaign (P6_TA(2005)0134). In its resolution on the White Paper on Sport (P6_TA(2008)0198), the EP asked Member States to define common positions with regards to WADA, UNESCO and the EP. It highlighted the importance of a common legislative approach towards doping (P6_TA(2008)0198). Within the latest two resolutions (2012 and 2017), the EP stressed once more that the threat of misusing methods and substances is causing major problems for sustaining the integrity and reputation of sport. Consequently, it encouraged Member States to propose concrete measures and urged them to adopt national legislation (P7_TA(2012)0025, P8_TA(2017)0012).

Since its foundation, the EU is represented within WADA’s supreme decision-making body, currently alongside three seats staffed by European Member States Portugal, Bulgaria, and Sweden (WADA, 2020a). EU collaboration with WADA took concrete form with the Union’s participation in the revision processes of the 2015 and 2019 WADC (Council 14204/12, Council 7094/18). The European competence due to the Lisbon Treaty’s entry into force provides the EU with competences in the fight against
doping. In accordance with Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU) the EU aims to foster and ensure the protection of physical and moral integrity of sportsmen and sportswomen (TFEU Article 165).

The inter-institutional EU approach in the fight against doping also led to legal issues. When WADA introduced their updated ‘Whereabouts’ system in 2009, athletes and human rights activists raised concerns about athlete’s privacy rights and the protection of sensitive personal data. The obligation for top-class athletes to provide details of their whereabouts aims to ensure a fair and equal doping control system and its conformity with EU law was questioned. But, with the Lisbon Treaty not yet being in force, the Council could only refer the topic to Member States. In 2018, a coalition of French athlete’s unions and individual players challenged the ‘Whereabouts’ regulation concerning Article 8 (Respect for private and family life, respect for home) of the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The European Court of Human Rights found no violation of Article 8 (European Court of Human Rights, 2018). While WADA welcomed this decision as an important part of clean sports, other organizations felt that ECHR failed to account for alternative options to ensure clean sports. Additionally, concerns about human rights violations led the EU to question the WADC data security policies. In 2013, the predecessor to the European Data Protection Board (EDPB), sent a letter to WADA outlining some of its concerns regarding the WADC and its data administration policies (edpb OUT2019-0035). Hence, WADA updated the Code in June 2018 to ensure compliance with the EU’s GDPR, but many concerns remained (Moore, 2020) and the EU expressed its concerns in light of the International Standard for the Protection of Privacy (WADA, 2020b) and Personal Information (ISPPPI). Another stakeholder consultation phase resulted in a redrafted version of the ISPPPI being approved by the WADA Executive Committee in September 2020 (WADA, 2020c).

Doping is not an issue of professional sports exclusively but threatens the sector of recreational sport as well. **ERASMUS+ is seen as an important and useful tool to support anti-doping projects.** Furthermore, the EP’s resolutions were accompanied by numerous Parliamentary Questions to the Commission throughout the last three legislative terms. Questions were mostly related to cooperation issues with WADA and included practice-oriented topics, like funding of cultural projects which inform about doping, doping cases at the Sochi Winter Olympics and the need for an overview of anti-doping legislation of all Member States. The latter request resulted in a large-scale study that evaluated anti-doping laws and practices in the EU Member States in light of the GDPR (van der Sloot et al., 2017). Another example of applied EU anti-doping policy is the ‘forum for anti-doping in recreational sport’ (FAIR), created in 2017, which tackled the previously mentioned issues within the leisure and amateur sport dimension. One of the major findings was the need for further awareness and prevention campaigns related to food supplements amongst youth athletes (Forum for Anti-doping in Recreational Sport, 2019).

Concluding, the respective EU bodies significantly influenced the development of national and in particular international anti-doping policies. The EU pointed out that athletes’ rights in terms of data security have to be protected and repeatedly required WADA to take this into account. Furthermore, the importance of prevention and information amongst amateur and recreational athletes has been acknowledged. The implementation of national anti-doping laws in Member States, such as Germany, France, Austria, Italy and Sweden, shows that the issue is also increasingly tackled at national level. Hence, doping violations can be challenged in front of national courts rather than dealt with only by the ‘lex sportiva’.
3.1.4. Sports Diplomacy

From a historical perspective, there are numerous examples of the (mis)use of sport as a policy instrument. Most examples from the European area were based on the use of sport by authoritarian or even dictatorial regimes. However, growing awareness was given to the idea that sport can be considered as a means of soft power diplomacy. Since the 2000s, the concept of sports diplomacy has increasingly been in the focus of the EU institutions, not only as a result of impulses from the US and Australia but also as a consequence of the increased academic studies focusing on sport as a means of diplomacy by democratic states. Despite the many contradictions of officials in national and international sporting organisations, sport was and is inseparably linked to politics. The current debate about a joint Olympic bid by North and South Korea highlights the intersections between organised sport and (general) political interests. Particular interest has been aroused by processes of reconciliation between formerly rival states, such as the ‘ping-pong diplomacy’ between China and the United States in the early 1970s, the ‘hockey diplomacy’ between Canada and the USSR in the 1970s, the ‘cricket diplomacy’ between India and Pakistan (1987/2005), and the ‘baseball diplomacy’ between USA and Japan (1920s), as well as USA and Cuba (2014ff). Two recent approaches to international relations have accelerated the renaissance of sports diplomacy: Firstly, the leverage of soft power resources, which is defined by Joseph Nye as the ability to obtain desired outcomes through attraction rather than pressure or resources. Secondly, the concept of public diplomacy, which in turn is defined as the mechanisms used by an international actor (state, international organisation, non-governmental organisation, multi-national cooperation, or other players on the world stage) to manage the international environment. However, even if a new relationship between sport and politics has been wider discussed, practices of sports diplomacy are largely unexplored.

A cornerstone for European sports diplomacy was the (non-ratified) ‘(Draft) Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe’. The European Convention officially declared in December 2004: ‘The Union and the Member States shall foster cooperation with third countries and the competent international organisations in the field of education and sport, in particular the Council of Europe’. The EC has taken up this approach and started to pay more attention to the organisation of major sporting events and at the same time to develop the field of development cooperation in sport. In 2006, FIFA and the EC signed a Memorandum of Understanding to make football a force for development in the African, Caribbean, and Pacific countries (EC, 2006). The 2007 White Paper on Sport then explicitly emphasised the perspective that ‘sport can play a role regarding different aspects of the EU’s external relations: as an element of external assistance programmes, as an element of dialogue with partner countries and as part of the EU’s public diplomacy’. In the 2011 Communication on sport, the Commission reiterated its commitment to ‘identify the scope for international cooperation in the field of sport, focusing on European third countries, in particular candidate and potential candidate countries, and the Council of Europe’ (COM(2011) 12 final, p. 18). The increasing attention given to sports diplomacy is largely seen as a response to the crisis in traditional diplomacy. New forums and instruments were perceived as necessary to foster international policy objectives. Sport can play a certain role in achieving foreign policy objectives. In addition to the general perspectives of public diplomacy and cultural diplomacy, the concept of sports diplomacy was also being considered. This is all the more so since values related to sport such as volunteering, civil society and democracy are closely aligned with the values of the EU.

In 2015, Tibor Navracsics, as European Commissioner for Education, Culture, Youth and Sports, set up two so-called high-level expert groups, one of which focused on sports diplomacy. The group presented its recommendations in 2016, emphasising, in particular, the development of an organisational culture of sports diplomacy and the promotion of EU values in the context of major
sporting events. However, the group’s recommendations were also opposing the use of sport to build a European identity. The potential of sport as a diplomatic instrument was discussed at the Council meeting of the Ministers of Sport on 22 November 2016. Its conclusions emphasised that in the future, sport should be used as an ‘inseparable part of public diplomacy’ in cooperation with third countries. Major sporting events should be used to convey European values and sports diplomacy should be given greater consideration in the various activities of the EU Commission and the European External Action Service. The conclusions contained several additional recommendations to advance the agenda of EU sports diplomacy, including the promotion of cooperation between the EU, public authorities and the sports movement; using sport to promote positive sporting and European values; examining the possibility of using sport ambassadors; promoting research and activities based on visits; using sport in the context of accession, association, cooperation, and European Neighbourhood Policy (Council 2016/C 467/04).

The EU Work Plan for Sport 2017-2020 also identified sports diplomacy as an important policy tool. This priority is reflected in the Council’s conclusions on ‘Promoting the Common Values of the EU through Sport’ (Council 2018/C 196/06). This document makes it clear that the development of European sports diplomacy can only succeed with the involvement of sporting organisations. In this sense, the conclusions thus refer to: ‘exchanges between grassroots sporting organisations from EU countries and third countries, sharing values and principles, and illustrating the diplomatic value of such people-to-people relations’ (Council 2018/C 196/06, p.25). European sports diplomacy was put into practice when sport was included in the EU-China High Level Dialogue in November 2017 in Shanghai, where Commissioner Navracsics and Chinese Vice-Premier Liu Yandong met. The EC subsequently sought to extend the ERASMUS+ Sport programme to the Eastern Partnership countries beyond the EU’s borders. The study on sports diplomacy (‘Identifying good practices’) published by the EC in 2018 comprised four recommendations: training and capacity-building events should be organised; sport should be explicitly mentioned as a priority in the relevant EU funding instruments; more research should be done on the current situation of sports diplomacy and measures to disseminate and share knowledge of good practices should be promoted (ECORYS, 2018).

The European Parliament has not yet become active in the area of sports diplomacy. The topic has not been on the agenda of the meetings of the CULT Committee either. Individual MEPs have taken part in events such as the EU sports diplomacy seminar hosted by the EC in Brussels in December 2016 or the ISCA seminar on grassroots sports diplomacy in 2018. However, the EP supported increased financial funding for the cooperation with other countries and regions such as the Eastern Partnership and Western Balkan countries. More concrete activities such as the first explicit support for a city’s bid (Paris) to host the Olympic and Paralympic Games (2024), can be related at least indirectly to sports diplomacy. Seeing the high potential that the new Commissioner for Innovation, Research, Culture, Education and Youth Mariya Gabriel is attributing to sports diplomacy playing ‘a key role in building a stronger Europe in the world (and) reinforcing our responsible global leadership’, this field will have to be taken into closer consideration.

3.1.5. Sport and Environment

There is no specific policy field of sport and environment at the EU level. However, since the Commission’s ambitious European Green Deal of December 2019, sport – like every other sector– has a responsibility to act responsibly for future generations and ensure sustainable use of social, ecological and economic resources. Sport goods and services, their production and their impacts are even more diverse as in other industries and have to be seen as part of the Circular Economy Action Plan laid down in the Communication of the Commission of 2 December 2015 entitled ‘Closing the loop – An EU action
plan for the Circular Economy’ (COM(2015) 614 final). Four of the Green Deal’s nine policy areas presented at the Commission’s website impact the sports sector as we know it (clean energy, sustainable industry, building and renovation, sustainable mobility). Taking into account the so-called Vilnius Definition 2.0 (an EU definition of sport, used for economic purposes), sport is not only responsible for its core sectors’ or statistical definitions impacts but also for the upstream and downstream (broad definition) impacts on the environment.

**Sport facilities**

With buildings being among the most energy-intensive sectors in the EU, both in the actual process and the maintenance, sporting facilities (see 3.2.7) have to be ready for the future. Various policy documents for the building sector have been adopted throughout the years, the latest one being the Commission’s strategy paper on ‘A Renovation Wave for Europe’ (COM(2020) 622 final). **Updating old sporting facilities and building new facilities in a sustainable way** will be a major task for the sports sector. Facilities do not only use space, energy and water, but they also induce traffic and – in the case of artificial turf – release microplastics. Rubber infill material has been assumed to be a potential health threat to sport participants (European Chemicals Agency, 2019). It is also a source of 16,000 tons of microplastics carried from playing areas into the environment each year (European Chemicals Agency, 2020). A restriction on the intentional use of microplastics would certainly incentivise the modification of artificial turf pitches’ building and maintenance.

**Sport events**

Sustainability is necessary for the entire lifecycle of the event, from planning, ticketing and travel, over the delivery of the event and side events to cleaning and waste disposal (and re-use and legacies in the case of mega events). Also, changing climate conditions are affecting competition conditions. Extreme meteorological events and a global temperature increase affect athletes, spectators and equipment.

Sport events attract a large number of people and induce a great deal of travel. While many sport and event organisers try to encourage public transport through minor incentives like combined event plus public city transport, there are no rules or policies for them to take responsibility for participant’s travel emissions. Dolf and Teehan (2015) found that long-distance and air travel cause an extremely overproportioned amount of total travel emissions of an event (in their study, 4% of long-distance travel caused 52% of the emissions).

At the venue, spectators and athletes often consume food and beverages through single-use items. A ban of a wide range of single-use plastic items – including bottles, cups, cutlery, straws, and plates – has been adopted by Parliament and the Council through a Directive on the reduction of the impact of certain plastic products on the environment (Directive (EU) 2019/904). Sport event organisers will have to adapt to these new rules and find new ways to meet the needs of the consumers.

When dealing with mega sport events, travel is rarely the only significant factor. Facilities usually have to be built or updated and turned into single-use venues. These developments often happen without an appropriate legacy plan, or the legacy plans themselves require high ecological investments through renovation or non-sustainable after-uses. An analysis of the London 2012 Olympics has shown that most of an event’s greenhouse gas emissions can be attributed to the legacy phase of an event (Parkes, Lettieri & Bogle, 2016). Although this has been a topic since the 1990s (e.g., Chernushenko, 1994), research on the topic of environmental effects of sport mega events still is rare and accounts for approximately 10% of overall research on sport mega event legacies (Koenigstorfer et al., 2019).
Sporting goods

Sporting goods like equipment and clothing are as well affected by the Commission’s Communication of the Commission of 2 December 2015 entitled ‘Closing the loop – An EU action plan for the Circular Economy’ and will have to integrate into new economy legislations as every other business has to (COM(2015) 614 final). It is not unlikely that this will result in higher (and closer to ‘real’) costs for sporting equipment and clothing. Synthetic clothing is thought to be one of the substantial sources of microplastic in our oceans (De Falco et al., 2019). Most sport clothing consists of large amounts of synthetic material, and microplastic is continuously removed through mechanical impacts and laundry detergent during washing. A lot of sports equipment is made of plastics and often shipped to Europe from Asian and other low-cost producing countries with lower environmental and labour standards.

Sport tourism

Sport tourism depends on ecological conservation on the one hand and tends to exploit the environment used on the other hand to maximise profits. Especially outdoor sports can be seen under the term of ‘tragedy of the commons’, meaning that non-excludable but rival goods tend to be undermaintained and overused. Tourism-dense areas like the Alps and Mediterranean coasts have to balance ecological responsibility and economic rentability. Still, evidence points towards an increased environmental awareness of outdoor tourists (Ardoin, 2015). While the conservation of ecosystems is a local impact, travel to and from destinations as well as accommodation at the destination have wider regional impacts in the form of greenhouse gas emissions (see Wicker, 2017a).

Sport tourism is not the only cause of emission associated with sport participation. Active sport participation includes travel between practice and home, to and from competitions, training camps or day trips, and use of sports equipment and clothing. Wicker (2019) found that active team sports participants perform a little better than those in individual sports and outdoor sports in participation-induced travel.

Achieving carbon neutrality by 2050 is a massive task and requires – in addition to the efforts of political and economic actors – awareness and conscious behaviour change across the European community. Sport has a great potential to mobilise people both through organised grassroots sport and through the role model function of professional athletes and clubs who enjoy a wide audience. Education and sport for sustainable development can make valuable contributions towards that ambitious goal. Adding environmental education and sensibilisation to its portfolio of societal challenges could be an effective way to use the power of sport to channel environmental action in the EU, creating awareness, understanding and responsible behaviour patterns among European citizens.

In conclusion, the commitment to be carbon neutral by 2050 does not leave sports sector untouched and will place massive challenges on entire branches of sports. Sport organisations and event organisers are increasingly becoming aware of the need to attend to these issues and are already place sustainability on their agendas. However, environmental protection and sustainability often come with higher initial private costs and investments which could cause some distress to predominantly voluntary organizations and increase financial entry barriers for participation when not monitored and counteracted by smart policy-making.
3.1.6. Hosting Sport Mega Events

Challenges in the field of sports policy also result from the growing importance of major sporting events. The awarding of hosting a major sports event is one of the most significant decisions in the spectrum of sports policy decisions. Especially in the case of the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup, these decisions are associated with a great deal of public attention. The considerable interest in the award decision can be explained by its effects – not only for the venue or the country where the event is held and for the national association in charge of the event. After all, the hosting decision has a significant impact on the public perception of the event. The financial revenue from the major sporting event influences its scope for action in subsequent years. Moreover, the sporting competitions of the event exert a significant influence on the development of the underlying sport. Even the legacy of sporting associations is strongly influenced by major sporting events. The attention paid to major sporting events is reflected, inter alia, in the fact that in 2020 over five million US dollars were demanded and paid for 30 seconds of advertising in the context of the Superbowl (Su & McDowell, 2020). Over the last two decades, an increasingly comprehensive, complex, and closely meshed network of event application specifications has been established by the international sporting federations. However, there are no uniform standards to date, but rather highly varying awarding procedures and criteria catalogues depending on the federation and event. It can be stated as a major consensus that, in addition to the degree of complexity, the number of conflicts of interest in applications has also increased significantly in recent decades.

For a long time, the bidding for major sporting events took place below the radar of media and public awareness. Given the increasing professionalisation and commercialisation of major sporting events, as well as more detailed knowledge of the connection between corruption and sport, the practice of awarding contracts and venues, that since the turn of the century has increasingly taken account of economically prosperous but politically authoritarian states, has moved more into the political spotlight. Not least the connection between sport and aspects such as human rights, sustainability, transparency, or participation has received special attention. While the European Parliament has already focused on sport mega events in the 1970s and 1980s considering in particular human rights (see above), the awareness waned in the 1990s. It took until the EU Work Plan for Sport 2014-17 addressed the legacy of major sports events among the next key priorities. However, the question of human rights remained on the pan-European agenda. In 2019, the second edition of the Europe Games – after the premiere in 2015 in Baku, Azerbaijan – took place in Minsk, Belarus. Once again, this venue for a major sporting event led to strong media and public attention – and protest. It is in this context that the ‘Institute for Sport and Human Rights’ opened in Geneva on 26 June 2018 by founding Chairwoman Mary Robinson. In addition to the size of sports mega-events, the awarding of hosting contracts and the venue of large sporting events, therefore, poses a key issue in European sports policy.

3.1.7. Violence, Racism, Homophobia, Spectators

Violence, racism, and homophobia are phenomena as prevalent in sport as in society in general, but these phenomena of deviant behaviour are often linked with national or international mega sport events. Such issues are not exclusively linked with football at an EU level but racism and homophobia among sporting actors, spectators, and media can be observed in this specific context. Homophobia and racism, discrimination, prejudice, and antagonism based on sexual orientation or membership of an ethnic group are part of a general social discourse on minority’s rights and protection (CELEX 31996Y0503(02) EN TXT; EPRS_ATA(2019)640140_EN; Shalom et al., 2017; Kyeremeh, 2019). However, violence in sport also involves the aspect of violent behaviour from sportspeople in a specific sport and
the possible connection between the two (Mutz, 2012). Aggressive social interactions like bullying, hazing, and other forms of violent behaviours also occur in the context of sport teams, clubs and organizations.

The relevance of these topics at an EU level is highlighted by several publications. In 1996, the Council of the EU published a recommendation to Member States on guidelines for preventing disorder connected with football matches. The goal was to foster greater harmonization and implementation of procedures that had proven successful in containing disorder at high-risk international matches. With violence at football matches continuing to be a ‘hot topic’, the Council of the EU published a decision (CELEX 32019D0683 EN TXT), authorising Member States to ‘become parties, in the interest of the EU, to the Council of Europe Convention on an Integrated Safety, Security and Service Approach at Football Matches and Other Sports Events’ (Official Journal of the EU, 2019, p. L115/9). The impact of violence at European football matches is also highlighted in a document prepared for MEPs in 2019 (EPRS_ATA(2019)640140_EN) on ‘Preventing violence at football matches’. As stated, in 2016 alone, over 120 million people attended 16.000 football matches across Europe. At those matches, 15.000 incidents were registered, inside and outside of stadiums. Most prominent offences included unauthorised use of pyrotechnics (inside) and violence and vandalism (outside of stadiums).

Racism and violence in sport form one of the six areas, where the Pink Paper of EYSF in 2008 presented recommendations on a European level. At the EYSF 2008, three specific projects focusing on the prevention of and fight against violence and racism in sport were presented.

As part of official EP documents during the 2004-2009, 2009-2014 and 2014-2019 periods, seven written declarations were published focusing on violence, racism, and homophobia. A certain shift in the topics addressed can be observed over the three parliamentary terms. Originally, proceedings involved more often violence specifically in the context of football. Over the two most recent parliamentary terms, topics like bullying, homophobia, verbal and physical violence, and discrimination have arisen. This broadening in the scope of discourse within this sector is probably also one of the reasons, why the policy field of violence, racism, and homophobia has become much more prominent when analysing the written Questions & Answers submitted in plenary sessions. Over the three most recent plenary periods, the numbers focusing on these topics have risen from 4 (2004-2009) to 17 (2009-2014) and 29 (2014-2019). With an overall score of 50 parliamentary Q&A documents, the policy sector also ranks in the top 5 of sectors overall. Looking at the topics discussed in individual proceedings, again, the same trend as with the Written Declarations can be observed. Initially, the Q&As focused on violence and racism in football almost exclusively. Between 2009 and 2014, violence and racism were still the most prominent topics, although now discussed in sport in general. It was only after 2014 that homophobia, gender violence, xenophobia, and discrimination emerge as topics alongside the perpetual discourse on violence and racism in football/sport settings.

Violence, racism, and homophobia are not exclusively linked with competitive and spectator sports. Physical activity and sports on a grassroots and local organizational level need to be targeted and protected from new types of violence, racism and homophobia via internet and social media like cyberbullying. Cyberbullying is a phenomenon that impacts children and youth sport especially on a club level. As such, specific efforts need to be made in order to tackle this phenomenon in EU sporting contexts.
3.2. Economic Dimension

The economic dimension of sport and the industry around it has always played a central role in the various reports of the European institutions. Already in its Communication on ‘Developing the European dimension of sport’, the Commission identified fields where the economic dimension is of central importance (COM(2011) 12 final). These include measuring the economic importance of sport through a Sport Satellite Account, sustainable financing of sport, application of EU State aid rules to sport and regional development, and employability. At the same time, the EC has always stressed the need to take account of national characteristics and different cultural preferences. Since the establishment of the Council working groups, the economic importance of sport has always been taken into account. Initially, this was done under the heading of ‘sport statistics and sustainable financing of sport’, and subsequently as ‘economic dimension’.

Not least as a result of the expanding economic dimension of sport, the increasing number of players, interests and areas of dispute make further regulation necessary, which will foreseeably lead to further conflicts of interest, especially between EU intervention based on competition law and the sports sectors’ call for autonomy. The EU Institutions have recognised and established a distinctive role for sport and its organisations through various Commission Decisions and ECJ case law (ECORYS, KEA, & Sport & Citizenship, 2016). This special nature of sport – or its ‘specificity’ – allows for some conditional exemptions from EU competition law and, therefore, shapes the economic dimension of sport differently from other markets. Still, the general framework of the common market has not been fundamentally overridden, but rather has been reassessed in each case. In particular, the above-mentioned ISU decision of the EC of December 2017 (see 2.3.1 on the question of the rights of athletes vis-à-vis sporting associations acting as monopolists, furthers the potential for conflict in this regard. It puts the sporting associations under pressure to adapt, given the tension between the autonomy and monopolies of sporting organisations and EU competition law.

3.2.1. Sports Industry

The economic dimension of sport covers a wide range of goods and services related to sport, which is usually divided into upstream and downstream sports-related industries. These economically relevant sectors include sporting goods, sports services and sports facilities, and sports advertising, sports sponsorship and sports media rights. There are also other areas indirectly related to sport, such as sports tourism and the health sector. Given the many overlaps, it is difficult to narrow down the exact scope of the sport economy.

Studies have shown that in 2012, sport’s contribution to the overall economic gross domestic product in the EU was EUR 279.7 billion, which corresponds to a share of 2.12 percent of the total GDP. Furthermore, around EUR 5.67 million employees in sports industry have been counted in the year 2012, which corresponds to a share of 2.72% of Europeans employed in a sports-related industry (European Commission, 2018a). There are also sports-related industries, which play an important role through interdependence with other sectors or create spill-over effects. Given these financial issues, the economic dimension of sport is of central importance not only to individual Member States but also to the EU as a whole.

Sporting goods are also relevant to the EU’s trade. In 2018, there was a value of EUR 10.9 billion in exports and EUR 11.4 billion in imports with non-EU countries (Eurostat Statistics Explained, 2020). Eurostat Statistics Explained (2020) also found a 71,3% increase in exports and 59,4% in imports. The shares of intra- and extra-EU trade largely differ from Member State to Member State, with an EU average of 60% (intra-EU) to 40% (extra-EU). According to a market analysis by the Dutch-based
Centre for the Promotion of Imports from developing countries (CBI), the biggest exporters in the sportswear sector are companies in Germany, Italy, Belgium, France, and the Netherlands (CBI, 2020), which were also the Member States reporting the largest overall exports. Market demands vary widely across the EU, due to variations in sports practices from country to country. However, recreational sport is usually the most important market segment, ahead of equipment for individual professional and amateur athletes and whole teams. Articles for leisure sports, such as outdoor, running, and cycling, account for a significant share of business alongside gymnastics and sports equipment. Recently, intelligent technologies (i.e., portable equipment) and larger durable consumer goods (i.e., camper vans, boats) have also been increasingly added to this market.

Among the issues to which the Commission has paid particular attention is the protection of intellectual property rights. This concerns in particular large companies and well-known brands. Since most parts of production have been outsourced to Turkey and Asia, the main areas that remain in Europe are research, design and marketing. Wearable technology (product innovation) and 3D printing (process innovation), for example, are considered to be two of the most important recent achievements, which have also a significant impact on sport. Brand protection is of particular importance to protect the innovations achieved here. This issue is one of the biggest challenges in the sporting goods sector, as counterfeiting of sporting goods has a significant impact on the turnover achieved and also on jobs. In this context, the development of the unitary patent and the improvement of the EU rules on trademarks are among the most important activities. At the same time, however, attention has also been paid to SMEs that have not outsourced their production to the same extent and tend to concentrate on national or regional markets.

Furthermore, the Commission has published various studies on the sports industry's role and economic dimension in sport. From Parliament, this dimension has received less attention. As a rule, Parliament has stressed the importance of sport for development and employment and, for example, when the key role of sport for refugees in their integration into the labour market is cited (P8_TA(2016)0297). In addition to general regional development, particular attention has also been paid to tourism development. Sport is seen as a medium for both spectator sport and recreational sport to attract tourists to certain areas of Europe.

3.2.2. Media Sports and Digitalisation

Within the last decades, globalisation processes led to a general political, economic, and socio-cultural internationalisation. One of the key drivers for these developments is the on-going digital transformation. Even if sport markets, organisations, events, and programmes often require physical participation to at least some degree, digitalisation transformed the sports industry massively through new media channels and broadcasting formats. The Commission recognised the scope of digitalisation and in particular the distribution of audio-visual rights via digital channels in its White Paper on Sport (COM(2007) 391 final) as a key element for sporting associations and federations to generate income. Especially for football, revenue from media rights is one of the biggest income sources, and practices like collective selling, territorial exclusivity, and the listing or blocking of events were developed to secure the funding.

At an EU level, it is especially the dimension of the Digital Single Market (DSM) which has been part of EU sports policy in this context. The 2014-2019 Commission’s DSM strategy to establish a digital single European market aimed to foster the best possible access to the digital market for both individuals and businesses. This removal of location-based discrimination for online services and the abolition of roaming charges in June 2017 enabled European citizens to use sport broadcasting abonnements regardless of their abode (European Portability Regulation as well as the Geo-Blocking
Regulation Commission, 2018b). The EP co-shaped this policy field to a large extent with the Council (Regulation (EU) 2017/1128, Regulation (EU) 2018/302). As a result, consumers are now temporarily able to use their subscription anywhere in the EU. The EP’s involvement in the topic is also shown by numerous questions towards the Commission within the 2009-2014 legislative term (13 Written Questions), mostly regarding media rights and broadcasting.

Most recently, specific attention has been devoted to the fight against online piracy of live events. In a study commissioned by the European Parliament, it has been discussed whether the current EU legal regime provides an adequate level of protection against this kind of piracy (Panella/Firrito 2020). The study estimates that there were approximately 7.6 million subscriptions to illegal broadcasting platforms in the EU in 2019 and that up to 16,000 potential new jobs are lost each year as a result of online piracy of sport broadcasters. The CULT committee recognises the problem of online piracy of sporting events. It has asked the Commission in January 2021 to draft a legislative proposal to address the problem of online piracy of sports broadcasting.

Another key document for the regulation of media coverage and broadcasting of sport events is the Audiovisual Media Services Directive (AVMSD). Adopted in 2018 by the Council and Parliament, the directive allows Member States to identify events of major cultural importance for its citizens that have to be available on free-to-air television (Directive (EU) 2018/1808). These events are mostly national and international sporting events and although the AVMSD does not restrict the acquisition of rights to broadcast an event, it restricts the – usually awarded – exclusiveness to do so (Cattaneo & Parrish, 2020). The AVMSD strengthens the position of Member States by acknowledging sport as a cultural good that cannot simply be sold to the highest bidder. While this is a win for the consumer, it might lower revenues from media rights as exclusivity is not granted.

Summing up, the policy field of media sports was and is rather shaped by hard law interventions which seem reasonable due to the economic scope of the topic. The promotion and safeguarding of the DSM are less related to the ethical values of sport, but more to ensure equal market conditions for stakeholders within Member States, although the specificity of sport plays a certain role in the application of EU trade law.

3.2.3. Employment Relations

From an economic point of view, the organisation of work and employment relations (apart from the free movement of professionals) in sport is another challenge of current and future sports policy. Sport is an employment-intensive sector (European Commission, 2018a) and employment relations are a core issue of economic and social policy, and touch on fundamental questions of the political and legal order of communities. This field of activity is generally characterised by collective agreements, and by actions and disputes between employers and employees and their representative bodies. There is hardly any information available for the specific area of employment relations in sport. Against the backdrop of the large number of people who are employed through or in sport, given the considerable share of sport in the gross domestic product, and given the societal relevance and the dynamics of sport, this marks a central requirement. This situation is all the more evident in Europe. It is estimated that there is a share of 800,000 full-time employees in the field of sport. Given transnational sport competitions, and as a result of the growing European common market, employment relations in sport have taken on an increased European impact. In addition to different national standards of labour policies, transnational and supranational developments have to be taken into consideration.

This dimension also addresses the question of how athletes are represented, in which form, and by whom. It has to be examined which legal character and which organisational form the representation of athlete and player interests manifests in different national contexts and at European level, as well as
in different sporting disciplines. In this context, it becomes apparent that, considering athletes' commissions, a sport-specific form of representation has been developed alongside the establishment of other new forms of interest representation. Traditional actors such as trade unions still play little or hardly any role. A strong tendency towards pluralisation can be observed. The traditional unit of associations is being replaced by a system of individual actors who face each other within the framework of a specialised sport or the Olympic representation of interests in sport. Especially given current changes in Olympic sport, it seems to be of great relevance to fundamentally examine the field of employment relations and representation in sport. With their demand for a strengthened role and independence from sporting federations, Olympic athletes have recently followed demands that have been in the air for several years. Germany’s Federal Cartel Office decision to examine ‘Rule 40’ of the International Olympic Committee’s Charter and the opening of advertising restrictions reveals the growing relevance of athletes in shaping sports policy and the need to scrutinise the employment working conditions in Olympic sports. At both national and European levels, athletes began to find their voice and founded non-profit organizations to address their needs and rights during the last years. On the European level, the European Elite Athletes Association (EU Athletes) represents around 25,000 athletes through 35 member associations in 17 European countries and has been involved in various EU Expert Groups since 2012 (EU Athletes, 2020).

The European Union institutions have started to deal with this topic in larger detail when the social dialogue committee for professional football was established in 2008 and an agreement regarding the minimum requirements for standard player contracts was achieved. The European Parliament included this topic in its resolution of February 2017 ‘on an integrated approach to Sport Policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity’ stating that ‘compliance with basic labour rights is essential for professional athletes’.

3.2.4. Regional Development

Besides the Council, Parliament, and the Commission, the Committee of the Regions (CoR) is a major player in regional development. EU Structural Funds are applied and used for better infrastructure of facilities, transport, job employment, health services, and, in terms of sport and physical activity projects mostly, for cohesion policy. European Transnational Cooperation (ETC) in cross border regions of Member States have become an extended policy area since the first INTERREG programme (1990) up to INTERREG V. There is one structural funding programme, the European Structural and Investment Funds (ESIF) from which sport and physical activity projects have been benefiting for many years, although sport has no official programme line. The sector of sport in regional development at the EU level is particularly linked to active tourism.

In 2018, the Commission launched a proposal (EPRS_BRE(2018)628228_EN, p.1) which listed actions for INTERREG policies between 2021-2027. The strands of ETC/Interreg include 11 objectives for territorial cooperation, but none of these objectives include sport or physical activity. However, as a part of the different INTERREG periods of the last 30 years, many of the cross-border projects included sport and physical activities with various stakeholders in the pursuit of cohesion and health policies. Besides the progress made by ETC/Interreg projects, inequalities among regions in sport and physical activity cross-border cooperation still exist (EPRS_BRE(2019)637951_EN). The strategic goal of interregional cohesion and connection is also supported by infrastructure projects such as the EuroVelo network, which the European Cyclist Federation (ECF) directs. This was further supported by the Committee of the Region’s call for a ‘paradigm shift in transport and planning/land-use policies […] prioritising incentives and measures to make active modes (walking and cycling) safer and more attractive’ (CoR, 2017, OJ, 88/49).
Tourism is an important economic sector capable of facilitating regional development (IPOL_STU(2016)573420_EN) for coastal and alpine regions, which also offer various opportunities for sport and active leisure. The most recent study on tourism and sport for regional development commissioned by the EP (IPOL_STU(2019)629200_EN) stressed the importance that despite the economic pre-eminence of tourism for many regions, over-tourism has to be avoided.

A relevant source for the assessment and potential of the influence of Structural Funds for regional development of sport is the study of the ‘Centre for Strategy and Evaluation Service’ in cooperation with Blomeyer and Sanz (2016) published by the EC. Its purpose was to explore the Structural Funds’ potential for skills and employability development in the sports sector. The authors drew attention to the high employment multiplier of sport, which is valuable for regional employment development. They also developed a set of recommendations for general and thematic objectives for sport-based initiatives through Structural Funds and develop ‘the idea of a [ESIF-supported] Sport Action Network […] of organisations and individuals that share an interest in promoting sport in this context’ (Blomeyer & Sanz, 2016, p.46).

3.2.5. Free Movement for professionals

Free movement of sport professionals has been one of the earliest fields being affected by EC/EU law and, consequently, policy. Articles 18, 21, 45, and 56 of the TFEU establish the legal framework for free movement of workers within the Union and include free movement of sport professionals as any other EU citizen. Article 18 forbids discrimination based on national origin, and Article 21 grants every EU citizen the right to free movement and free choice of residence. Also, the concept of non-discrimination and freedom of EU citizens laid down in Articles 18 and 21 is specifically expanded to the freedom of movement for working professionals in Article 45 TFEU (van den Bogaert, 2018). Historically, the relevance of those fundamental EU regulations on sport, sporting organisations, and sportspeople has been confirmed numerous times by rulings of the ECJ. Recently, the impact of EU rules on free movement in the field of sport – and in particular in football – has become even more of a hot topic.

The relevance of free movement of professionals as a sports policy sector is highlighted in the Working Document ‘Sport and Free Movement’ (SEC(2011) 66 final), which gives an overview of how EU law impacts the free movement of professionals in sport. It also outlines the Commission’s stand on how the Lisbon Treaty impacts the free movement of sportspersons. The Commission’s Working Document clearly states: ‘A combined reading of fundamental provisions in the Treaty on non-discrimination on the grounds of nationality and on free movement and of Article 165 TFEU – with its obligation for the EU to develop the European dimension in sport and to promote the openness of competitions – entails that the general rule of non-discrimination applies to both professional and amateur sport: in the first case, players are protected principally as workers; in the second as European citizens who have the right to move freely around Europe.’ (SEC(2011) 66 final, p. 2)

The issue of free movement of professionals has a historic perspective that dates back well before the Lisbon Treaty entered into force. As early as 1976, an EU court ruled in a case against the Italian Football Association. The court found that it was illegal to impose a restriction for clubs on employing EU nationals (European Court Case 13-76 1976). The infamous ruling of the ECJ in the Bosman Case in 1995 also predates the entry of the Lisbon Treaty. The Court’s decision led to the abolition of the so-called ‘3+2’ rule in professional football, which had previously imposed certain restrictions on how many foreign players were allowed to play in matches. Several other cases on sportsperson’s rights to be employed by clubs within the EU followed. Working professionals are protected by EU law against
‘sporting rules’ imposed by associations that restrict their participation as non-nationals (O’Leary, 2018), national team nominations being an exemption.

As highlighted by the quotation above, since the Lisbon Treaty entered into effect, the provision of free movement not only applies to sporting professionals and amateur sportspeople (SEC(2011) 66 final, p.2). Specifically, this implies direct discrimination as well as indirect discrimination. Direct discrimination mainly involves cases like the restrictions discussed in the previous paragraph. Examples of indirect discrimination refer to regulations imposed by sporting associations that apply other criteria of differentiation than nationality that lead, however, to the same results as direct discrimination. Specific (FIFA) transfer rules (Parrish, 2015), as well as the UEFA’s home-grown players, rule and financial fair play regulations (Flanagan, 2013) are examples of potential indirect discrimination. Briggs (2005) discussed UEFA’s attempts to uphold certain restrictions in European professional football despite the rulings imposed by EU free movement and anti-discrimination labour laws. Another example in professional football that has recently been discussed in light of the free movement of professionals is the issue of ‘third-party ownership’ of football players (Halleux, 2016). In this case, associations like FIFA and UEFA asked the EC to uphold a ban on these agreements, while several major football clubs issued a complaint (see 3.1.1).

As cited above, the EP (2005) and the EC (2011) have both issued working papers that exclusively focus on sport and free movement (Commission) or discuss this issue as one aspect of professional sport in the EU market (Parliament). Over the last three electoral periods, the EP regularly debated topics related to the free movement of professionals and several written question and answer proceedings on free movement were part of EP plenary procedures. During the 2004-2009 period, free movement ranked among the top five sports policy sectors considering the number of Q&A proceedings in the EP (13 Written Questions). In the following Parliamentary periods, seven further specific written Q&As were recorded. Many of these proceedings reflect the specific topics discussed above: issues with transfer rules, regulations, and the influence of international associations in football (UEFA, FIFA). Before the format of Written Declarations ceased to exist in 2016, three plenary acts focusing specifically on free movement in sport had been issued. Topics included cases of free movement for individual athletes and free movement for fitness professionals. Thus, these examples highlight another area where free movement in sport is affected by EU regulations: the recognition of certifications and qualifications (see 3.3.4) of EU Members States.

In sum, non-discrimination and free movement within the EU are some of the most fundamental principles of the EU and hence have been a prominent topic of EU sports policy throughout the past decades. Although the protection against potential discriminatory regulations by sporting associations through EU law has been established for quite some time now, free movement remains an active sector of EU sports policy.

3.2.6. State Aid

State aid regulations are part of the European Treaties since the Treaty of Rome to prevent distortions of competition. State aid is defined by the EC as ‘an advantage in any form whatsoever conferred on a selective basis to undertakings by national public authorities’ (EC, 2019). An ‘undertaking’ is – detached from its legal status – any entity that is engaged in economic activity. Consequently, the activities of the entity are decisive so that aid to non-profit actors can also fall within the scope of State aid law. The assessment of State aid is based on the private investor principle, i.e. the Commission
examines if a private investor had acted in the same way as the public authority that granted the support.3

Even though sector-specific regulations for sports were so far not developed, there are legal provisions applicable explicitly in sports-related cases. These provisions include the **General Block Exemption Rule (GBER) on sport infrastructure** (Commission Regulation (EC) No 800/2008). Furthermore, non-legal binding documents dealing with State aid in the sports sector were published by various actors at European level (Cattaneo, 2018). In the course of the modernisation of State aid, the GBER for sport and multifunctional recreational infrastructures was adopted in 2014. The GBER aims at increasing transparency by listing criteria for the compatibility of public support for sporting infrastructure with the internal market. It has to be considered that the GBER only applies to measures that constitute State aid in accordance with article 107(1), TFEU. Consequently, beneficiaries of aid that do not carry out an economic activity (i.e., amateur clubs), do not fall within the scope of the regulation. The GBER exempts aids granted in form of investment or operating aid for sporting infrastructure from the obligation of notification. According to article 55, GBER measures are among others compatible with the common market if the sporting infrastructure is not exclusively used by a single professional sport club. Other users need to account annually for at least 20% of time capacity. Moreover, open and non-discriminatory access needs to be granted so that the public can benefit from the measure (Commission regulation (EU) No 651/2014, Art.55). In 2017, the EC amended the regulation by doubling the notification thresholds for investment aid and the total costs of the project (Commission regulation (EU) 2017/1084, Art. 1 (3) (bb)). The EC explains the increase with the ‘limited negative effects on competition’ of aid for sports and multifunctional infrastructures (Commission regulation (EU) 2017/1084, point 12).

The GBER for sport and multifunctional recreational infrastructures accounts for the claim by stakeholders for **more legal certainty for public support in the sports sector**. Against this background, the EC has exempted measures aimed at financing projects which benefit the general public, such as the construction of multifunctional arenas that can host various cultural events. These investments are considered to be part of the public service provided by the State and are eligible when the demand cannot be met by the market. However, it has to be considered that its application is limited to sports infrastructure (Cattaneo, 2018). The regulation provides the opportunity to public authorities to design measures following the criteria, i.e., to ensure non-exclusivity of use. Summing up, the GBER exempts – under certain conditions – public support for sporting infrastructure from the general prohibition of State aid due to the limited effects on competition and due to the social significance of sports for the society. The social and educational function of sports is explicitly mentioned in point 74, GBER in which it is also referred to in article 165 TFEU. According to art. 165, TFEU the EU commits itself ‘to the promotion of European sporting issues while taking account of the specific nature of sport, its structures based on voluntary activity and its social and educational function.’ Thus, the article refers to the specificity of sports and accentuates its social significance for society.

However, it remains to be seen how the **recent State aid rulings of the ECJ will be interpreted**. In May 2019, the ECJ decided that Spain’s record champion Real Madrid will not have to pay a fine of EUR 18.4 million for illegal State aid after all (General Court Case T-791/16 2019). The fine imposed by the EC in

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3 The EC sets four criteria which all need to be fulfilled to classify a measure as state aid: 1. The grant has been given by a state or through state resources; 2. Selectivity, i.e. public support is granted to one or more specific firms or to a specific industry sector leading to an advantage of the recipient(s) over its competitors; 3. The intervention may lead or already has led to distortion of competition; 4. The measure has an impact on trade between Member States (EC, 2019, par. 3).
2016 will thus become invalid. This decision certainly requires explanation and highlights the current relevance of the issue.

### 3.2.7. Sporting facility building

Sporting facilities include indoor (e.g., gymnasium, sport halls, swimming pools, multi-purpose sport courts, racket sport courts, skating halls) and various outdoor sporting facilities (soccer pitches, hockey courts, track and field stadiums, lakes and rivers for water sports, ice-rinks, mountain bike trails, and even artificial and natural rocks for climbing). The existence of suitable sporting facilities is crucial for participation as well as elite sport development. There are some published studies on the relationship between quantity and quality of sporting facilities with attendances of participants. The quantity and quality of sports infrastructure, as well as the distance from home in smaller cities and rural areas, do influence sport participation (Hallmann et al., 2011; Steinmayr et al., 2011).

The building of new facilities is affected by general EU policies and standards on buildings. There exist some European Directives for building (mainly indoor) sporting facilities, like CEN’s norm ‘EN 14904:2006 Surfaces for sports areas - Indoor surfaces for multi-sports use’ which was debated and updated through Commission and CEN for several times (i.e., Commission Decision (EU) 2017/145). A mapping study on the specificity of sport also discussed the eligibility for government funding in the form of State aid (also see 3.2.6) for sporting infrastructure projects (ECORYS, KEA, & Sport & Citizenship, 2016). The Commission was found favourable of aid directed to infrastructure projects that serve common interest through diverse use, functionalities for the respective community, and accessibility.

Energy expenditure in dry and wet indoor sporting facilities was addressed by a research consortium headed by SPEED SA (2015). The team studied energy expenditure and requirements of major sporting associations like EHF, FINA, FIVB, and FIBA. Lighting levels were documented in terms of watt power range and minimum lux. Requirements must serve spectators, athletes, and televised audience. According to EU-law, there should be an ‘Energy Performance Certification’. The research consortium set up energy benchmark indicators for sporting facilities relevant to dry and wet sporting facilities. NPIs were finally recommended in relation to space and volume of the sport building (i.e., kWh/m2).

**Future-proving facilities through renovation** is another key target. The amount of non-residential, public buildings varies across Member States and sporting facilities are only a fraction of those (European Commission, 2020a). Still, energy and resource use of sporting facilities is something the sports sector has to deal with. The Commission estimated that 75% of the present building stock is energy inefficient and that 85-95% of today’s buildings will still be used in 2050 (European Commission, 2020b). So, renovation is one of the key initiatives on energy efficiency, especially with regards to sporting facilities built in the 1960s and 1970s. Efficient use of energy in buildings was pushed forward only recently with a ‘Commission Recommendation on building renovation’ (Commission Recommendation (EU) 2019/786). A directive from 2010 by the Parliament and the Council sets the framework for energy performance monitoring of buildings to be adopted by Member States (Directive 2010/31/EU). Although the EU has an extensive database about buildings’ energy usage, and ‘sporting facilities’ is a filter option, very few Member States categorised sporting facilities in this database. Another influence on sport facility renovation will be the Commission’s new strategy published on 14 October 2020 ‘A Renovation Wave for Europe – Greening our buildings, creating jobs, improving lives.’ (COM(2020) 662 final).

Sport facilities do not only need to make efficient use of energy and water and of the space they have. Sustainable use patterns with little unoccupied time boost energy and space efficiency. A renovation wave should account for that in updating older facilities to multi-use spaces, adapting to an increasingly diversified demand for sporting facilities.
Artificial turf pitches provide sporting opportunities year-round and are, therefore, valuable for clubs and communities. Especially in countries that only enjoy a short outdoor season otherwise. This type of facility has been first discussed at a European level when the European Chemicals Agency recommended the restriction of rubber infill material with high PAH concentration in 2019. This chemical can often be found in infill material and is assumed to be cancerous. For the environment, artificial turf pitches are a challenge because of the microplastic and rubber infill that is removed in large quantities.

In conclusion, Sport facility building is indirectly addressed by a row of European Recommendations and Decisions but remains a minor sector in EU sports policy-making. Only a written declaration on the right to live in a healthy environment (EP 0055/2004) broadly addresses this topic in the EP. Also, the output of questions and answers in Parliament discourse is small and mainly targeted at funding opportunities through EU funding schemes that may be utilised to finance outdoor sporting facilities.

Academically, neither there is a special book chapter on this topic in leading anthologies on Sport in Europe (Anderson et al., 2018), nor has there been published any relevant article on EU-based sport facility building in leading journals of EU sports policy (i.e., Journal of European Public Policy; International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics).

3.2.8. E-Sport

With an esteemed European market size of $1.1 billion in 2019 (Interactive Software Federation of Europe, 2020a) and a European audience of about 86 million people in 2018 (Sikora, 2019), the E-Sport sector further grows to a major business and entertainment sector. One core question is the acknowledgement of E-Sport as sport, which is highly inconsistent among Member States. The current scope of the EU’s definition of sport (specified within the European Sport Charter and the White Paper on Sport) is mainly focused on its physical and active characteristics.

Generally, the topic of E-Sport has not yet fully reached the EU sports policy discourse. But as the market and participation grows, the European Commission and the European Parliament have been paying more attention to E-Sport-related topics, especially during the last six years. However, e-Sport is not falling under the scope of EU sports policy at the moment. Although E-Sport is seeking recognition on the European level, which was further stressed by the foundation of a European governing body within the EP’s building in 2020. The Joint Research Centre firstly published a study in 2010 focussing on the video games software industry within the EU (De Prato et al., 2010). From concentrating on rather economic and market competition aspects, the JRC continued to evaluate the societal role of digital games. A study on ‘Digital Games for Empowerment and Inclusion’ was published in 2012 and succeeded by several follow-up reports addressing mainly the inclusive characteristics of digital gaming (Bleumers, L. et al., 2012; Stewart & Misuraca, 2013). Currently, the topic is particularly integrated within the ERASMUS+ funding programme and three projects have been awarded funding since 2018 to explore various dimensions of E-Sport (Erasmus+ Projects 2018-1-FR01-KA203-048203; 2018-1-FI01-KA202-047301; 2020-1-SE01-KA202-077964). The results of the above ERASMUS+ projects will be of major importance for further EU actions.

EP’s involvement in E-Sport is marked mainly by priority questions to the EC and Parliamentary discussion. Only three inquiries to the Commission have been identified since 2004. Questions contained interest in user behaviour of electronic games throughout children/young people (2006) as well as interest in online sport gambling (2014) (Question E-4263/2006, Answer E-4263/2006, Question E-004768-14). The last E-Sport related inquiry requested the Commission’s written statement regarding support of the founding of the European Esport Federation (EEF) (Question P-001475/2020, Answer P-001475/2020). Other Parliamentary discourse has been taken place within the first conference about

Apart from the difficulties of a common European classification of E-Sport within the sports sector, there is a huge variety of stakeholders and their respective intentions which further impede coordinated EU actions. On the one hand, there are bodies like the EGDF and the ISFE representing the European based videogame industry. While, on the other hand, more sports-related organizations like the recently founded EEF or ESIC reflect the socio-cultural and political dimensions of E-Sport (European Esports Federation, 2020; Esports Integrity Commission, 2020). The ESL as another major stakeholder is the organiser for numerous national and international E-Sport competitions and therefore combines a plurality of professional and amateur E-Sport players (Electronic Sports League, 2020).

Furthermore, there is an on-going academic debate about the nature and definition of E-Sports (i.e., Hallmann & Giel, 2018; Jenny et al., 2017) in different Member States. Noteworthy, sport-known problems like doping or questions about the rights of professionals have already occurred within E-Sport and sport governing bodies like WADA cooperated with the E-Sport movement to tackle these challenges (Stivers, 2017). Due to the partial inclusion of E-Sport into the European sport legal framework, Stivers (2016) states that this might result in legal disputes given EU treaty-based law (especially regarding the positive obligations doctrine and data protection matters).

Hollist (2015) recommends regulatory solutions to ensure fair working conditions for E-Sport players, and Abanazir (2019) emphasises that due to growing financial returns of the gaming industry, the EU needs to decide how to treat E-Sport anytime soon. The recognition of E-Sport as a sport would entail the application of Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU).

3.3. Socio-cultural Dimension

The socio-cultural dimension of sport has many different facets and sectors of sports policy-making. Socio-cultural sectors of sport traditionally include organised sports with a recreational and competitive impact. Since the last two decades, informal or self-organised sports have become another prominent facet among Member States for participants of all age groups whose interests in sport and physical activity are primarily recreational and/or health-based. Besides the traditional stakeholders – schools and sport clubs – and their related associations and federations, new actors are offering a diversity of physical activity and sport programmes in almost each Member State. The current EU sports policy is covering both traditional and new aspects of the sport system. However, EU support in the 2010s was visible mainly in grassroots sport, particularly for children and young people. These offers were and are frequently linked to educational and social values for youth development. Many of these programmes in local sport clubs are offered by volunteers. Without the volunteering of people in different age groups, such special provision in and outside sport clubs would not exist. So, volunteering is the backbone for sport clubs among Member States. Many of these volunteers are nevertheless untrained, and the call for trained volunteers, as part of the extension of new physical activity and sport programmes for young people and the elderly, in accord with the European Qualification Framework and Dual Careers pathways, is a perennial challenge.

To achieve a sustainable, quality standard in physical activity, physical education, and sport in Member States is an important item demanded in the European Physical Activity Guidelines (EU Working Group ‘Sports and Health’, 2008). Further promotion of physical activity and sport has made them
special items in the **European Week of Sport** and the **European School Sports Day**. Also, quality assurance with the safeguarding of children is a special item to protect children from any abuse. Safeguarding of children in this context covers more than the prevention of exploitation and abuse in training of sports, recreational and competitive events, and refers equally to the fact that very often social and economic disadvantages in family, school and private lives of children are barriers that set up hurdles to practice physical activities and sport in sport clubs and outside. Furthermore, for many years special barriers and hurdles exist for diversity in sport activities, particularly for women in sport.

In this chapter on the socio-cultural dimension of sport, EU sports policy documents are analysed and discussed related to this collection of sports sectors targeting the aforementioned scale of settings between grassroots sport and social inclusion.

### 3.3.1. Grassroots sports, sport for all and informal sport

The terms grassroots sport, sport for all and informal sport, have both common and distinct features. Each of these terms fall under the umbrella of ‘mass participation’. As already mentioned, the EU has taken action in several sports policy sectors to foster health behaviour, active lifestyles, and other educational and social benefits related to sport participation. As the sectors and relevant policies often overlap, ‘Grassroots sport / Sport for All / Informal sport’ can be identified as a common, complex sports sector.

**Sport for all** includes different kinds of sport and intentional physical activity in an inclusive sense. The WHO defines sport for all as ‘the systematic provision of physical activities which are accessible for everybody’ (World Health Organization, 2018, p.5). Sport for all aims to include all (interested) people into active lifestyles and to offer opportunities for active leisure and play. It differs from professional or elite sport in that people participate in their leisure time and mostly for non-competitive reasons. Still, the physical activity is primary autotelic and deliberate. When not planned and undertaken by an individual, three main providers of sport for all activities can be distinguished: public providers (state-run programmes/government incentives), market providers (private/for-profit programmes and facilities), and voluntary providers (non-profit organizations/club sports) (Hallmann, Feiler & Breuer, 2012).

**Grassroots sport** was defined by the 2014–2020 Erasmus+ Programme Guide as ‘organised sport practised at the local level by amateur sportspeople, and sport for all’. Traditionally, grassroots sport is more focused on organised settings and club sports. Around 12% of Europeans are members of a sport club. However, the inclusion of sport for all in the definition allows a broader approach to sport than just organised settings. Studies show that these numbers differ between the EU countries. Club sports and fitness centres are less popular in newer EU members, in Eastern Europe and Mediterranean countries (Hartmann-Tews, 2006; Tuyckom & Scheerder, 2007). This difference is affirmed by the newest Eurobarometer from 2017, showing that newer Member States, as well as Mediterranean countries, still have low involvement in organised sports (4%-7% of people that exercise) (Special Eurobarometer 472: European Commission, 2018c).

**Informal sport** can be described as ‘non-organised sport and physical activity for all’. It is the most common form of intentional physical activity in the EU and happens in non-organised informal settings like parks and outdoors (40% of EU inhabitants that are physically active), at home (32%), and on the way between home and work (23%), as well as in non-organised formal settings like commercial gyms (15%) or public sporting infrastructure (Special Eurobarometer 472: European Commission, 2018c).

In 2016, the **High Level Group on Grassroot Sport** delivered their report to Commissioner Tibor Navracsics and extended the Erasmus+ definition of grassroots sport by stating: ‘Grassroots sport is
physical leisure activity, organised and non-organised, practised regularly at non-professional level for health, educational or social purposes’ (High Level Group on Grassroots Sport, 2016).

By including the concept of informal and formal sport for different purposes, the new definition of the term ‘grassroots sport’ can be used as an umbrella term in sports policy for mass participation in physical activity and sport. It is worth mentioning that all facets of this term are relevant and should be treated in future policy-making.

Physical inactivity, obesity, and health issues related to sedentary behaviour increasingly challenge European society and the health care systems of Member States. The World Health Organization (2018) found that across all Member States, only in 5 countries more than 50% of the children meet their recommended daily physical activity, and in only 9 countries more than 50% of the adults meet the physical activity guidelines of the WHO. A recent paper compared data from the Special Eurobarometer from 2002 to 2017 and found that the prevalence of sedentary behaviour in the EU is increasing (López-Valenciano et al., 2020). The latest data from the 2017 Eurobarometer showed that nearly half of Europe’s citizens (46%) do never play sports and slightly more than a third (35%) is not even engaging in any form of physical activity (including gardening and cycling). Mass sport participation and HEPA are thought to be one tool to tackle this and other challenges European societies face.

At the very start of European sports policy towards mass participation, there are the CoE activities. The term ‘sport for all’ was already used in the 1970s in the CoE’s European Sport for All Charter (1975/76) (Council of Europe, 1977), which stated that ‘Every individual shall have the right to participate in sport’ (Article 1) and ‘Sport shall be encouraged as an important factor in human development and appropriate support shall be made available out of public funds.’ (Article 2).

It took around three decades until the European Council at EU level included ‘amateur sport and sport for all’ in its own policy document. The declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social function in Europe, of which account should be taken in implementing common policies in the Council presidency conclusions in 2000 (European Council, 2000, Annex IV), calls for equal access to all forms of sporting opportunities and roles for socially desirable outcomes.

While ‘sport for all’ was already put on the agenda in 2000 by the European Council, the Commission used the term ‘grassroots sport’ a few years later in the White Paper on Sport (COM(2007) 391 final). The Commission committed to ‘facilitate the exchange of information and good practice, in particular concerning young people, with a focus on the grassroots level’ (ibid., p.4) and ‘support grassroots sport through the Europe for Citizens programme’ (ibid., p.7), at the same time recognizing the shift from formal to informal sport participation.

The Commission then began to develop grassroots sport as a European policy concern, inserting it in the ‘Preparatory Actions in the field of Sport’ (2009-2013). In five years, 21 areas for preparatory actions in the field of sport for all / grassroots sport / non-profit sport were identified and around 90 projects were funded (Kornbeck, 2017). The Council concluded the 2011-2014 EU Work Plan (Council 2011/C 162/01) by highlighting the need for ‘sustainable financing of grassroots sports’, invited the Commission to ‘organise on an annual basis an EU Sport Forum, bringing together all the key stakeholders at different levels of sport, paying particular attention to grassroots sporting organisations and their representatives’ and to ‘explore ways to promote health enhancing physical activity and participation in grassroot sport’ through the expert group ‘Sport, Health and Participation’.

The second EU Work Plan for Sport 2014-2017 (Council 2014/C 183/03) did not change much for grassroots sport beyond a special focus on the implementation, practical outcomes and results of EU guidelines, policy recommendations and pledge boards. One change did take place, though: a re-
organisation of expert groups, to make them fit better for grassroots sports. During the second EU Work Plan for Sport, in May 2015, the European Council concluded on ‘maximising the role of grassroots sport in developing transversal skills, especially among young people (Council 2015/C 172/03). A year later, the HLG on Grassroots Sport proposed an all-encompassing approach to grassroots sport, including non-organised physical activities and sport and extending the scope of its purposes to ‘health, social inclusion, informal learning and skills development, volunteering, economic dimension, sustainable financing, urban planning and infrastructure’ (High Level Group on Grassroots Sports, 2016, p. 4). The third EU Working Plan on Sport 2017-2020 (Council 2017/C 198/02) then considered grassroots sport as a guiding objective of the work plan and invited the Commission to further action in the field. However, while the Commission was asked to promote participation in sport and physical activity through the establishment of a EWoS, the number of expert groups was reduced to two (Integrity in Sport and Skills and Human Resources Development in Sport), neither naming sport participation as a priority of one of the groups nor considering sport participation on a structural level. Nevertheless, the Council took action by organizing a conference on ‘Grassroots sport as a tool for integration and a bridge between tradition and innovation’ in 2018, as well as by discussing the protection of physical and moral integrity of minors in grassroots and elite sport. Again, although the Commission’s report on Work Plan 2017-2020 mentioned them in connection to other topics – grassroots sport and mass participation have not been a priority topic.

3.3.2. Youth development

The Committee of the Regions offered an early statement on youth development in Europe, calling for greater equality in girls’ and boys’ leisure activities in its Opinion in 1998 (CELEX 51997IR0182), wherein it called on education authorities to encourage children not only to practice sport, but to appreciate the societal and cultural dimension of sport in all its diversity for youth development. Much later, other EU institutions have equally stressed the importance of physical activities and sport for youth development, in documents such as: EC’s White Paper on Sport (COM(2007) 391 final), the Platform Strategy for Europe on nutrition, overweight and obesity (COM(2007) 279 final), the EU Guidelines on Physical Activity (EU Working Group ‘Sports and Health’, 2008), the Council conclusions of 27 November 2012 on ‘promoting health-enhancing physical activity (HEPA)’ (2012/C 393) and the Council Recommendation on HEPA (COM 2013, 603 final). These documents promote sport and physical activity as vehicles for holistic development in three personal domains of youth development: physical, emotional/social and ethical/cognitive (National Alliance for Secondary Education and Transition, 2010). Leadership, as an additional theme was driven by the EYSF, which has used its Fora and ‘Pink Paper Declarations’ to make the case for young sportspeople as decision-makers in sports.

EU funding opportunities for sport have become increasingly generous and diversified, and many of them concerned engaging, educating, empowering and connecting European young people. The Youth in Action programme (2007-2013) for instance supported the promotion of healthy lifestyles, and this priority continued with Erasmus+ (2014-2020), the EU Health programme and the 7th Framework Programme. Regarding Erasmus+ as such, its Sport sub-programme aims to boost the volunteering and participation of young people, and its Youth sub-programme focuses on non-formal education methods, including sport-based educational initiatives.

Unsurprisingly, health-related aspects of sport and physical activity have featured strongly in policy developments. Children and young people’s physical activity levels have decreased over the past 20 years, as almost a quarter of 15 to 24-year-old Europeans are not engaging in any sport or exercise at all (EU, 2010; EU, 2017). This change has coincided with rising rates of childhood overweight, obesity
and related health problems. According to estimates from the WHO's COSI, around 1 in 3 children in the EU aged 6-9 were overweight or obese in 2010 (EC, 2014), representing about 7% of national health budgets across the EU (European Commission, 2014a).

The second EU Work Plan for Sport (2014/C 183/03) set up the Expert Group on HEPA (XG HEPA, 2015) to propose recommendations to encourage physical education in schools, including motor skills in early childhood, and to promote interactions between education, the sports sector, local authorities and the private sector. In the third EU Work Plan for Sport (2017-2020) youth development was addressed only indirectly though, specifically in the context of ‘preventing the use of doping by young people in professional and in grassroots sport’ and ‘the protection of young athletes and safeguarding children's rights in sport’ (Council of the EU, 2017). However, building on its 2012 Conclusions on promoting health-enhancing physical activity, the Council of Education, Youth, Culture and Sport (EYCS) took on a more active role in promoting HEPA for children and young people. For instance, the Council Conclusions on the promotion of motor skills, physical and sport activities for children adopted in 2015 further endorsed the recommendations of the HEPA expert group (Official Journal of the EU, 2015). Furthermore, the EYCS Council went on to host in May 2019 a high-level policy debate on ‘increasing the participation of children and young people in sport in 21st century Europe.’

The EU’s current Youth Strategy 2019-2027 was adopted in a Council Resolution in 2018. The strategy is expected to develop a cross-sectoral approach via 11 Youth Goals, the outcomes of the 6th cycle of the Structured Dialogue between the EU and young people. The fifth Youth Goal (Mental Health and Wellbeing) is related to participation in sports and physical activity, and the indicated aim of this field of action is to support young people's health and well-being, with a focus on the promotion of mental and sexual health, sport, physical activity and healthy lifestyles. Other goals are indirectly linked to sport (e.g. equality of genders, inclusive societies, quality employment for all and quality learning). The strategy is backed by the Youth Employment Initiative, Erasmus+ and European Solidarity Corps (ESC).

The EP has expressed the view that the current method for developing youth policies needs to be complemented by other measures that are better coordinated and more targeted. During the eighth term (2014-2019), the EP spoke in favour of empowering young people with more opportunities to be active in public life. In its 2018 Resolution on the implementation of the EU Youth Strategy, the EP underlined the importance of non-formal and informal learning through participation in sport and volunteering activities to develop civic, social and intercultural competences among young people. The same Resolution highlighted the importance of ensuring the mental and physical well-being of young Europeans through the promotion of extra-curricular sporting activities (EP, 2018). During the 2014-2019 period, MEPs’ interest in youth development remained low and their questions mostly concerned unemployment, youth-work, non-formal learning and extra-curricular activities.

### 3.3.3. Volunteering

Volunteering is a ‘backbone of civil society’ (Hoye et al., 2020; p.23), providing benefits to individuals and societies. The EC defines volunteering as ‘all forms of voluntary activity, formal or informal. Volunteers act on their free will, following their own choices and motivations and do not seek financial gain’ (COM(2011) 568 final; p.2). The European Youth Forum adds that volunteering activities benefit other people and society and are primarily undertaken in a non-governmental environment (European Youth Forum, 2004). However, it might be more helpful to think about volunteerism in terms of choice, remuneration, structures and different intended beneficiaries.

Volunteering is inextricably linked to European sport. The sector engages more volunteers than any other and, in many countries, the sports sector relies on volunteers (COM(2011) 568 final). A 2010 EP
survey revealed that 24% of those over 15 years were either regularly or occasionally involved in voluntary work. The 2017 Eurobarometer reported 6% of people in the EU engaged in voluntary activities in sport by helping run sporting events (33%), coaching or training (27%), being a member of a board or committee (21%), supporting day-to-day club activities (20%) and doing administrative tasks (18%). (EC, 2018c). **Social benefits associated with sport volunteering** include civic and national pride, increased productivity, reduction of medical costs, reduction of juvenile crime and the development of ethical behaviour. It can also be a tool for building social capital, social cohesion and increasing civic engagement (Stewart et al., 2004). According to the Aarhus Declaration on Voluntary Work in Sport, ‘voluntary sport may help develop competencies important to democratic understanding, cooperation, gender equality, leadership and organization [and that] the principle of autonomy of sports organizations is a fundamental condition for voluntary sport’ (EU, 2003, p.7). The economic value of sport volunteering amounts to billions of Euros (Breuer and Wicker, 2011; Vos et al., 2012).

The first attempt to create a European volunteering strategy in the EP 1983 Resolution on ‘volunteering and voluntary activity in Europe’ recognised its supplementary role in regards to other policy fields, primarily youth, sport, education and citizenship (EP, 1983). In 1996, the EVS started as a pilot action, which developed into a flagship activity under the Youth in Action Programme (European Commission, 2011a) with volunteers able to choose a sports-related project following their interests, skills & professions. Later, the EVS was superseded by the ESC, supported by an EP intergroup on volunteering.

The **EP has repeatedly called for higher recognition of the sport volunteers**, recognizing them as the ‘lifeblood of sport’ (EP, 2013; A7-0166/2012), benefitting not only sport, but also culture, social inclusion and communities. It particularly highlighted the role volunteers play in amateur and grassroots level sport (A7-0348/2013), especially with groups at risk of marginalisation, migrants and refugees, seniors, persons with disabilities and vulnerable young people (Council 2017/C 189/09).

### 3.3.4. European Qualifications Framework and Dual Career

The ‘European Observatoire of Sports and Employment’ (EOSE) is a non-profit organisation which acts as a driving force behind the ‘European Qualification Framework’ (EQF) in sport. Prior to the foundation of EOSE, in the late 1990s there were some European vocational sport projects run together with later representatives of EOSE, some national partners and ENSSEE. The ‘European Year of Education through Sport (EYES)’ became a turning point for vocational education training (VET) in the sports sector. In 2003, Jean Camy (University of Lyon) was appointed by the EC DG EAC /Sport unit as lead partner for the ‘VOCAsport’ (Vocational Education and Training in the fields of Sport in the EU Member States: situation and outlook) project. The VOCA-project report was delivered in 2004 and documented a high diversity between the Member States for almost identical job profiles in vocational training in the sports sector. Based on the formal outcome of the VOCA-project, EOSE took the lead in 2005 to build a strategic committee called ‘European Sport Workforce Development Alliance’ (ESWDA). The Alliance launched a new project entitled ‘Implementing the EQF in the Sports Sector’. The purpose of the two-year EU project (2007-2008) was ‘implementing the flexibility and transparency of the sports VET systems’ (EOSE, 2006). The project tackled four main weaknesses of VET between the Member States: ‘short careers, high mobility of workers, dominant non-formal learning, and numerous volunteers with no recognition of their competences’ (EOSE, 2006). The outcomes of the project were consensus guides on ‘a common European sectoral framework on sports sector activities and integration of EQF principles, methods and tools’ (Camy, 2014; Favre & Ponchon, 2014).
The final version of the European Qualification Framework (EQF) came into force by a Recommendation of the EP and the Council in 2008 (CELEX 32008H05006(01)EN). The EQF is ‘a common reference framework of qualifications, expressed as learning outcomes of increasing levels of proficiency’ (European Commission, 2018d, p.5). The EQF is based on two essential dimensions building a matrix: eight vertical learning-outcome-based levels of vocational qualifications/competences in a hierarchical order (one to eight) and horizontal learning outcome descriptors of three different qualification items on each of the eight levels. The three descriptors that are identified on each level by learning outcome are: ‘Knowledge’, ‘Skills’ and ‘Competences’. The term ‘competences’ in the 1st edition of EQF (2008) was replaced by ‘responsibility and autonomy’ in the revised version of the EQF in 2017 (European Commission, 2018d, p. 19). The main purpose of the EQF is to serve as a translation device for different National Qualification Frameworks (NQF) and their levels of qualification outcomes. In recent years the EQF also serves as a comparable tool for the development of national qualification profiles in the sports sector. The revised version of EQF (2017) set up some more references for NQFs. Ten EQF referencing criteria were added (European Commission, 2018d, p. 11) and 10 ‘quality assurance principles’ came into action (European Commission, 2018d, p. 15).

Before publication of the new EQF, the EC (2016a) launched a study on sport qualification acquired through sporting organisations and in particular of sport education institutes in higher learning. Vocational education profiles for coaches, instructors, teachers, trainers and officials were analysed in different Member States. Data on qualified sportspeople and registered employment were provided. The terminology used to identify sport professions in the education sector and labour still differ. Often VET in higher learning institutes is not included in the NQF. However, if the EQF works as a reference tool, more comparability was found. Some EOSE publications in recent years (2019, 2020) reveal that the EQF works significantly in terms of transparency and comparability in the vocational education sector and in the labour market for coaches, physical fitness and health instructors, golf teachers and other sports-related teachers. The EQF descriptors (e.g., special knowledge) have been applied in recent studies (Jankauskiene & Pajaujiene, 2018) to evaluate achieved standards in vocational learning levels for physical fitness and health instructors.

Meanwhile, after more than 10 years, the EQF has gained support in Member States and has had a major impact on the renewal of vocational sport studies. The EQF functions as a measure in curriculum development and evaluation of learning outcomes in vocational sport training (de Olague-Smithson, 2019). Currently, all EU Members States reference their NQFs to the EQF and 23 of them reference the EQF levels on their national certificates and diplomas. Formal and informal learning in VET has been validated with the application of EQF. Qualifications in sport coach training across various sports and countries have become more comparable, which provides flexibility to change between different VET profiles in sports and supports cross-border mobility for coaches.

A sports policy sector closely related to the more general aspects of sport within the EQF is that of ‘dual careers for elite athletes’. Between 2009 and 2015 no less than 19 projects have received EU funding through various funding schemes (IPOL_STU(2016)573416_EN(1), p. 45ff.). Dual career is defined as athletes’ ability to combine their elite sport career and education/work. Thus, they are enabled to excel in their respective sport, while achieving a holistic development – including vocational or higher education training – to advance their potential role in the society and the labour market. The EU-Study on ‘Qualifications/Dual Career in sport’, commissioned by the EP CULT Committee (IPOL_STU(2016)573416_EN(1)) highlights not only the many EU-funded projects focusing on athletes’ dual careers. Along with presenting many best-practice examples regarding the dual-careers of athletes in Member States, one key finding of the study directly refers to the EQF. Namely, the authors of the study propose that national formal and non-formal education offered for athletes should be
aligned with EQF standards. This would enhance the transferability and transparency of competencies and qualifications acquired by athletes throughout their dual career (IPOL_STU(2016)573416_EN(1), p. 31).

Another direct link between athletes’ dual careers and the EQF was presented in the Guidelines for Action that was part of the ‘EU Guidelines on Dual Careers of Athletes’ (EU, 2013, p. 34). Here, the authors propose specifically, that ‘the European Commission (...) support(s) the development of a European quality framework for dual career services (...) in this field’. The purpose of the EU guidelines on dual careers is twofold: 1) highlight the need for a cross-sectoral and inter-ministerial approach regarding athletes’ dual careers at national level within Member States; 2) stress the potential benefits for athletes’ dual career programmes through the introduction of a quality framework on a European level. The implementation of such measures should play a crucial role in reducing drop-out of athletes from their sporting careers, increasing the chances of successful reintegration into education and the labour market. Elite athletes, based on the non-formal educational experiences that their athletic career provides them with, are recognised as highly qualified employees that are a key asset to the European labour market.

3.3.5. Physical education and health enhancing physical activity

Physical education has a long-standing tradition in EU sports policy-making. The topic of physical education (PE) stood alone on the EU political agenda before the terms ‘Physical Activity’ and ‘Health Enhanced Physical Activity’ (HEPA) were picked up and became more prominent. Already in the years of 2002 and 2007, the European Commission (2002) and later the EP (2007) launched respectively a Eurobarometer survey and a study on the state and status of physical education in the European Member States. The outcome of the 2002 survey documented some gaps between theory and practice which led to some first European-wide proposals for the promotion of physical education by the Council of Europe Committee for the Development of Sport (CDDS). Physical education was on the early agenda of the European Council and a step forward in its promotion came with the European Year of Education through Sport (EYES) in 2004. Most of the events organised within EYES focused on curricular and extra-curricular physical education and school sport in the now-24 Member States (Janssens et al, 2004).

The EP commissioned another review study on physical education which was published in 2007 (IPOL-CULT_ET(2007)369032_EN). Kenneth Hardman, the author of this study, documented the range of different purposes of teaching physical education in PE curricula of Member States. Surprisingly, the importance of ‘physical fitness’ and ‘active living’ as a mean were ranked only seventh and eleventh, respectively, in physical education curricula in MS. Promotion of HEPA was marginal even in some curricular and extracurricular school sports at the same time.

A policy shift from physical education to health enhanced physical activity became apparent with the publications of the EU White Paper of Sport (2007, COM 391 final), the EU Guidelines of Physical Activity (2008, C 354/0122013), and the European Council Recommendation of HEPA (2013) which finally allowed to monitor national actions of the EU Guidelines of Physical Activity by national focal health points.

The EU-Guidelines of health enhanced physical activity

Preparations of the ‘European Physical Activity Guidelines’ started with the appointment of the first working group on ‘Sport & Health’, founded in autumn 2005 and endorsed with support of the Finnish Presidency in 2006. In 2007 the EC elected 22 scholars from across Member States, representing different academic disciplines, with a mission to design and draft the guidelines. At the first re-invented
EU Sport Forum in Biarritz in November 2008, the **Sport Ministers of the EU adopted the EU Physical Activity Guidelines** (EU Working Group ‘Sports and Health’, 2008). The EU Guidelines were to serve as a kind of a ‘blueprint’ for Member States to develop their own national Guidelines. At the time in 2008, there already existed some comparable national guidelines in some Member States (the UK, the Netherlands, Finland and Luxemburg).

The Guidelines are structured into **three main dimensions: sport, health and education**. A set of 41 actions are recommended across six sectors to promote a healthy lifestyle for all age groups of EU citizens. The list of such cross-sectoral approach includes ‘sport, health, education, transport-environment-urban planning-public safety, working environment and services for senior citizens’. The term physical activity was mainly defined and applied in the Guidelines as ‘health enhanced physical activities’ (HEPA), in support of cardiovascular health. There are **two essential pillars in the concept**: the idea to establish a community-based network of all partners working in the six sectors and a complex promotion of a healthy lifestyle for all age groups and in particular for children and adolescents on all levels of society down to municipality level.

As a part of the **sports sector**: ‘Non-organised sport activities are becoming increasingly prevalent in many countries (…) Such non-organised physical activities are particularly interesting because they help people to discover or re-discover that physical activity can be rewarding for the mind as well as the body. This may particularly be the case for young children’ (ibid., 2008, p.15.). For the **health sector** the Guidelines recommend a regular monitoring in the MS at national level: ‘Guideline 14 – Physical activity data should be included in health monitoring systems’ (ibid., 2008, p. 22). For the **education sector** innovative proposals and actions are demanded: ‘The relation between the education sector and physical activity has three different aspects: physical education at school, physical activity in local communities (e.g. sport clubs) and education and training for physical educators, coaches and health professionals’ (ibid., 2008, p. 23). The two most essential guidelines for the education sector are: ‘Guideline 21 – EU Member States should collect, summarise and evaluate national guidelines for physical activity addressed to physical education teachers and other actors in the development of children and youth’ and ‘Guideline 22 – As a second step, EU Member States could design health-enhancing physical education modules for the training of teachers in, respectively, kindergartens, primary schools and secondary schools’. (p. 26).

In contrast to the White Paper of Sport, there are no other EU Opinion Documents of EESS or CoR on the EU Physical Activity Guidelines. However, one important stakeholder in the field of youth sport, ENGSO Youth, published a ‘Statement of the EU Guidelines of Physical Activity – Recommended Political Measures to support health-beneficial physical exercise’ (ENGSO Youth, 2009). ENGSO Youth welcomed the guidelines and proposed some special items to be included in future national guidelines, including that early childhood and day-care centres should address the development of fundamental motor skills, and that the links between schools and local sport clubs should be included as a topic (ENGSO Youth, 2009, p.2). ENGSO Youth also recommended the establishment of another EU-wide network for youth sporting organisations, besides the HEPA network. However, the concept of this common network has not been developed with the support of any partner outside the ENGSO Youth network.

There are quite a lot of journal articles and book chapters published on the Physical Activity Guidelines including the EU Physical Activity Guidelines (Oja et al., 2010.; Kahlmeier et al., 2015; Howells, Sääkslahti, et al., 2019; Breda et al., 2018; Parrish et al., 2020). In their research project, Parrish et al. (2020) identified at least 50 national guidelines of which 27 were put into consideration of analysis. Twenty-five countries had national guidelines and three were international guidelines (EU, Nordic countries which included Iceland, Norway and Sweden, and the WHO). As a result of the review study, the EU Physical
Activity Guidelines of 2008 were the oldest one under review. Referring to a group of early and former
guidelines, Parrish et al., (2020) stated: ‘When guidelines are implemented it is important to include
a plan for future review and update’ (ibid.). As regards the EU Physical Activity Guidelines, the plan
for future review and update seems to be overdue, even more so as the WHO (2020) have just updated
their 2010 guidelines.

In 2013 the Council Recommendation on promoting health-enhancing physical activity across sectors’
(COM 2013, 603 final) was published with an extended ‘Commission Staff Working Document’ (SWD,
2013, 311 final). Both documents became the essential pillars to progress monitoring of the Physical
Activity Guidelines from 2014 to 2018. In 2012, the EC set up a working group to elaborate a set of
indicators for the three areas of policy (sport, health, and education) and across the six sectors of the
EU Physical Activity Guidelines. Backed by external expertise, the group developed a total of 23
indicators to monitor the implementation and outcome of HEPA related actions of the EU Physical
Activity Guidelines in all MS.

First round of monitoring the Guidelines (2014-2016)
In 2014, a tender was launched by the EC for the first three years (2014-2016) to monitor the state and
status of EU Physical Activity Guidelines in Member States with the approved set of indicators. As
demanded in the Council’s Recommendation (COM 2013,603 final), national ‘HEPA focal points’ for
monitoring should be appointed or established in each Member State to collect data. In order to
support this initiative, already in 2015 ‘Factsheets on health-enhanced physical activities in the 28 EU
Member States of the WHO European Region’ were published by WHO Europe (WHO, 2015).

One outcome of the WHO study was, that only a few countries completed all items (23 indicators) and
that cross-sectoral collection of data was lacking and intercultural comparisons of collected data
remained difficult and require caution. National HEPA policy recommendations are reported for 19
Member States, with 17 Member States addressing young people (WHO, 2015, p. 10). Standards of daily
physical activities (60 minutes) are higher recorded for boys than for girls. In total, the far majority of
girls and boys (90% and 80%) did not reach this standard. Concerning the implementation of HEPA, the
sports sector scores best with 100%, followed by the health sector (about 80%) and the education
sector (up to 70%) (WHO, 2015, p.13). On school level, about 40% of schools offer HEPA related after-
school programmes, 35% active commuting to school, about 30% of schools include active breaks
between lessons and 15% offer active breaks within lessons (ibid.)

A more extended version of the first round of monitoring of the EU Physical Activity Guidelines was
published end of 2016 providing results about the implementation of the 23 indicators (COM(2016)768
final) with a short executive summary: ‘For 14 of the 23 indicators, overall, the methodology proposed
in the SWD was well applied. (..) For 6 indicators, somewhat more extensive amendments to the
questionnaires and/or the SWD methodology are proposed (no. 3, 6, 9, 12, 13 and 22).’ (NCO116019
ENN_002, p. 45). Not surprisingly, these 6 indicators cover the sport and education sector and the
monitoring/evaluation part of indicators for monitoring.

The limited findings of indicators for the sport and education sectors are related to the fact that the
monitoring is linked to the national ‘health focal point’ competency. The health focal points are located
as a department or branch in the Ministries of Health in the majority of Member States. Regularly,
Ministries of Health do not have access to the sport and education sector. Physical activity and sport
are not a part of monitoring policy in the Health Ministries, only with exceptions i.e., in the
Netherlands.
Cross-sectoral data collection of the sport and education sector are therefore mainly lacking in this first monitoring study of EU Physical Activity Guidelines. There are some reasons identified by the study: very often HEPA promotion and physical education are run at regional or local level with final decision-making being done individually by the schools (COM(2016) 768 final, p. 66)).

**Second round of monitoring the Guidelines (2016-2018)**

The second round of monitoring and evaluation of the EUPA Guidelines was published by the EC in 2019 with collected data by the national health focal points from 2017 to 2019 (COM(2019) 565 final)). Some improvements, but also continuing problems of data collection are recorded: ‘Direct comparisons of the data for 2015 and 2018 require caution, however, since the survey methods were slightly different, the new focal points may have collected the data differently, and more Member States responded to the survey in 2018 than in 2015 (Greece did not participate in the survey in 2015) (COM (2019), 565 final, p. 3).

Comparing data entries for indicator 7 and 8 of the sports sector, there are only 6 and 20 entries from Member States. Data entries of the education sector (indicator 14 and 16) included 24 and 16 entries out of 27 countries under review (cf. COM 2019/ 565 final, figure 3, p. 11). Probably, the European Commission realised the limitations of the focal health points after the second round of monitoring when it comes to monitoring the sports sector.

In their second report (COM 2019/ 565 final, p. 6), the Commission refers to a current ERASMUS+ project (2018-2020) named EUPASMS (EU Physical Activity and Sport Monitoring): ‘This project aims to create a harmonised sport and physical activity monitoring system by developing an integrated and shared methodological process that will provide comparable, valid and reliable physical activity and sport participation data across EU Member States’. A **better inclusion of the sports sector** and benefits of this sector for the promotion of physical and social health is necessary in the future. However, the **education sector also needs a stronger inclusion** into the EU monitoring system than previously done by the focal health points. In this regard, there is another ERASMUS+ project underway covering the same period (2018-2020) and focusing on the education sector with monitoring of school-based physical education in several Member States. The project’s name is EuPEO (EU Physical Education Observatory). The EuPEO monitoring project is currently in a pilot phase and involves eleven different stakeholders with data collection from seven Member States (www.eupeo.eu).

**Reshaping the quality of physical education for holistic health development**

Physical education has been upgraded on the EU sports policy agenda as a result of the growing dominance of HEPA policy initiatives (White Paper on Sports, 2007; EU-Physical Activity Guidelines, 2008; Council Recommendation on HEPA, 2013; monitoring of the EU Physical Activity Guidelines, 2016 and 2019) for about a decade after the last EP study in 2007.

A new step for the promotion of school-based PE was launched by the EC in the first round of the ‘Preparatory Actions in the Field of Sport, 2009-2011’. Some of the awarded HEPA projects (e.g. ‘Healthy children in sound communities’, HCSC, p.9) referred explicitly to the EU-Guidelines and required daily physical activities to be implemented as a part of the PE curriculum in combination with the extra-curricular physical activities offered by local sport clubs in after-school programmes. The EC launched a further step to reshape PE in the context of health promotion with the ‘Eurydice Report on Physical Education and Sport at School in Europe’ (2013). A range of indicators were used and reported in the Eurydice Report (reference year 2011/2012) and are considered as essential for the screening/monitoring of the quality of physical education: national strategy, large-scale initiatives, monitoring national strategies, physical education curriculum, content, aims, learning outcome, status
of physical education, health education, policy reasons, mandatory activities, exemptions, taught time of physical education, pupils assessment, teacher training, extra-curriculum with physical activity and sports, and planned reforms. The list of items should be reflected as extended indicators of PE for future monitoring of school-based health education.

Important findings come also from the 2014 Eurobarometer Report on Sport and Physical Activity (Special Eurobarometer 412: European Commission, 2014b), even if it does not explicitly include physical education and school sport as a part of physical activity and sport and in spite of the fact that the age range in the Report does not cover the full age range of childhood and adolescence, but only the 15–24 years old, and as a result, engagement in physical activity at school or university is limited to only 5% (Special Eurobarometer 412: European Commission, 2014b, p. 42). However, activity scales for the group of young people within the survey are alarming. For instance, data on ‘sitting time in a usual day’ vary in the age group of 15 to 24 between 5 hrs. 31 min. and up to 8 hrs. 30 minutes, and this can be extrapolated to the younger age group of pupils by reference to other studies (cf. Mann et al., 2017; Reilly, 2016). Needless to reiterate that the Eurobarometer Report is lacking on the state of the art of school-aged children (4 to 15 years) and this should be addressed in the future.

Finally, some essential outcomes of EU-commissioned ‘Preparatory Studies’ included networks between schools, the local community, and grassroots sporting organisations and have had a formative influence on the EU Expert HEPA-Working Group’s Recommendations (2015). Despite the HEPA naming, this EU Expert Working group mainly focused on physical education and adopted the term ‘quality physical education’, following the lead of UNESCO (2015). The title of the document and purpose of the recommendations mark the intention to reshape and encourage school-based physical education and active schools by linking it with grassroots sports and the private sector in local communities. According to Recommendation No.7 (p.10) of the Working Group, the physical education curriculum should include health education concepts, health promotion and healthy lifestyles, and form a broad perspective that goes beyond the practice of physical activity and sport. The broader perspective is indeed highlighted in Recommendation No. 6 (p. 9) concerning ‘ethical education by teaching values such as fair play, cooperation, equity, equality, integrity, peace, human rights, and respect of others’ capabilities’. As a result, the value of physical education in supporting HEPA at schools is highlighted in the document, but some goals go beyond physical health promotion, such as social and moral values which should be respected for social and mental health development. Consequently, with this enlarged curriculum concept of physical education, the HEPA Working Group recommends daily physical activities and the extension of physical education as a school subject up to five hours a week (HEPA Working Group, 2015, Recommendation No. 10, p. 13).

Besides the recommendations of the Working Group to reshape PE for health promotion at schools, the importance of physical education and physical activity still lacks recognition on an analytical level. This is highlighted by the findings of a recent research study for the CULT Committee (‘Education and Youth in the European Union – current challenges and prospects’; IPOL_STU 2019, 629204). The main identified challenges were: ‘social inclusion, youth unemployment, skills mismatch, migration, form of communication, political participation, and higher learning’. Physical activity, physical education, sport and health were not mentioned as challenges for youth in Europe.

Different surveys, reviews and documents of EU policy in the fields of physical education and HEPA monitored and evaluated the state of the art of HEPA and physical education mainly from a common health perspective. Considering this narrow focus, an integrated approach reflecting the complex school and sports sectors is therefore lacking. Future monitoring of the sectors of health, sport and education should thus consider taking into account the different aspects of social and mental health and well-being, alongside the physical appearance of health.
3.3.6. European Week of Sport and European School Sport Day

To raise awareness of the role and benefits of sport and physical activity, the EC launched the European Week of Sport (EWoS) in 2015, initiated by the EP in its 2012 Resolution. Led by the EC and co-organised by national coordinators and sport partners all over Europe, the Week promotes an active lifestyle through a variety of celebrations and events (EU, 2020). The EWoS was created in response to the worsening inactivity crisis (EU, 2020). Despite sport and physical activity substantially contributing to the well-being of European citizens, the level of physical activity is generally stagnating and even declining in some countries today (Eurobarometer, 2014, 2017).

For five years, the EWoS has helped to tackle the inactivity crisis by encouraging Europeans to embrace a healthy and active lifestyle. The first edition of the EWoS received a positive appraisal. Since then, the EWoS has continued to grow year after year, encouraging ever more Europeans to become aware of a healthy and active lifestyle. From five million participants and 7,000 events in 2015, the 2018 edition of the Week drew in a staggering 12 million participants across 48,500 events. In 2019, throughout 42 countries more than 15 million people participated in 28,300 events. The Week is for everyone – regardless of age, background or fitness level – and helps individuals, public authorities, the sport movement, civil society organisations and the private sector to raise awareness for a healthy lifestyle and to collaborate in the field of sport.

Since its inception in 2015 as a spin-off of EWoS, the European School Sport Day (ESSD) has evolved into the biggest event of the EWoS. In September 2017, the ESSD engaged more than 2 million students from 26 countries in 7,000 events. The ESSD is a pan-European initiative with the main objectives to promote sport and HEPA at an international level and to involve as many children and young people, schools and organisations in physical activity programmes as possible. Yet, the funding for the ESSD day is only available through annual Erasmus + applications from the Hungarian School Sport Federation (HSSF) on behalf of the six partner organizations that hold the ESSD branding rights. Thus, in 2019, the 5th-annual EWoS – including the ESSD – has been the biggest ever, with events supported by 47 partner associations in 42 countries (EU, 2020).

2020s extenuating circumstances due to the Corona crisis have made the week more necessary than ever before. Earlier this year, the EC responded by developing the #BeActiveAtHome campaign. #BeActiveAtHome promotes ideas and resources for exercising and physical activity during 2020s unprecedented events. Therefore, the 2020s #BeActive campaign will probably reach more people than ever.

In the past years, the EC was invited to further promote the EWoS by the EP and by the Council of the EU:

- In its resolution of 2nd February 2017 on an integrated approach to ‘Sport Policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity’, the EP (P8_TA(2017)0012(2017) ‘welcomes the success of the EWoS, which aims to promote sport, physical activity and a healthier lifestyle for all across Europe regardless of age, background or fitness level, and calls on all EU institutions and Member States to take part in, and further promote, this initiative, while ensuring that it is accessible to the widest possible audience, particularly in schools’.
- In the conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on promoting the common values of the EU through sport, the EC was invited to develop and explore the already existing initiatives, such as the EWoS to promote the common values of the EU (2018/C 196/06 Council of the EU, 2018).
Further positive developments have emerged for the sports sector between 2015-2020 through the development of the EWoS. The follow-up Tartu Call for a Healthy Lifestyle and sport has gained ground and can be considered a step towards consolidation of the Week movement into a new integrated aspect of European sport policies (EU, 2020). The seminar on healthy lifestyles organised during the opening of the 2017 EWoS in Tartu (Estonia) was at that time expected to be crucial in strengthening coordination across different policy areas inside the EUC, especially when it comes to addressing the societal, health and economic challenges of unhealthy lifestyles in Europe, in particular physical inactivity (EU, 2017). Thus, the Tartu Call aimed to address the transversal nature of sport and physical activity. Signed in 2017 by three Commissioners, the Tartu Call contained 15 recommendations or actions, where recommendation #3 addressed specifically the EWoS: ‘Using the EWoS to promote healthy lifestyles, especially among children, older people, and people from disadvantaged backgrounds.’ (EU, 2020).

In summary, the EWoS emerged slowly as an annual meeting point for promoting participation in physical activity and sports. The EWoS and ESSD have grown in numbers since the launch in 2015 and more and more countries are partnering up, bringing more participants to the events. However, it is an item to investigate in how far the two events pose its participants to a regular, sustainable active lifestyle with regular physical activities every week, at least three times a week. Future events linked to the Week and the School Sport Day should be used to generate further insights and evaluations of the effectiveness of the events in promoting regular physical exercise.

3.3.7. Safeguarding of children

The term “safeguarding of children” generally describes the protection of children’s rights, their safety in daily life by protection from poverty, social exclusion, disadvantages of education, harassment and any discrimination (Mountjoy et al., 2015). Protection of children’s rights and safety also include children’s right to play, to have access to physical activities and sport in schooling and their social life. Safeguarding of children in doing physical activities and sport at home, at school and in sport clubs also include to protect children of being physically abused, socially harmed and emotionally isolated by parents, teachers, coaches and peers and to enable them to experience a safe physical and social environment.

Already in 1989, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child was established (Bulgu, Turkeri-Bozkurt, 2020). In 1998, ENGSO Youth published early Guidelines for Children and Youth Sport. The Guidelines proposed assured quality of training, appropriate time of physical activity and better access to sporting facilities. Children should vote and decide on the responsibility of their own sport activities with the provision of appropriate insurances to ensure a safe environment for all children (ENGSO Youth, 2020). In the context of sport, sexual violence on children and young people is an important issue that needs to be considered. A British study in 2009 reported that about 32% of the participating athletes have been sexually harassed or abused. Studies in Belgium and the Netherlands recorded 14% of affected children and in Germany, about one-third of young athletes have been sexually abused (ENGSO Youth, 2018-2020).

On EU level, an important step forward for safeguarding of children in general, and also for the part of the sports sector as such, was released by the EC’s Recommendation (2013) on ‘Investing in children: breaking the cycle of disadvantage’ (OJ L 59/5-11), to counteract poverty and social exclusion in (early) childhood. The Commission pleads there for the incorporation of three pillars in all Member States: ‘parent’s participation in the labour market’, ‘adequate living standards through a combination of benefits’, and ‘(reduction) of inequality at a young age by investing in early childhood education and care’ (OJ L59/7). As a part of the children’s right to reduce inequality at a young age, it
An Expert Group of Good Governance (2016b) emphasised the **protection of young athletes and safeguarding children’s rights in sport**. Awareness campaigns addressed to parents, coaches and staff member in sports clubs and sporting associations should become more prominent. Actions were listed to protect and counteract sexual harassment, sexual abuse, physical violence, psychological violence, neglect and bullying. The Expert Group referred to a collection of research studies conducted in Member States on different items of child abuse in sports. New studies (Eliasson et al., 2017; Yilmaz et al., 2020) documented that transfer of young players in football in England and even developing sports for children at the grassroots level in Sweden are violating children’s rights.

Recently, a ‘Draft conclusion of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting with the Council’ (ST_2019_13351 REV 1) on the safeguarding of children in sport was released. The Council presented safeguarding of children as a prerequisite for children to enjoy sport as a hobby and grow as athletes (ST_2019_13351 REV 1, p.2) and more concretely: ‘Safeguarding in sport means keeping all children safe from physical and emotional harassment, abuse, violence, exploitation and neglect. It covers both child protection and the promotion of children’s well-being’ (ST_2019_13351 REV 1, p.7).

Since the Commission’s Recommendation, several initiatives have influenced education and training of coaches and instructors (see EOSE documents) to avoid sexual abuse and molestation in children and youth sport (ENGSO Youth, 2018-2020, p.2). Two EU projects, namely “Prevention of sexualised violence in sports – Impulses for an open, secure and sound sporting environment in Europe” in 2011 and the project “Sport Respects Your Rights” in the year 2012 aimed to promote and educate within this topic (ENGSO Youth 2018-2020). A study on the link between children’s rights violation with injuries revealed that it is possible to cause injuries by not listening to young athlete’s problems. (Bulgu, Turkeri-Bozkurt, 2020).

Not only on a European level but also in many Member States initiatives and campaigns have been implemented fighting child/athlete abuse. The report ‘Prevention of sexual and gender harassment and abuse in sports: Initiatives in Europe and beyond’ (Chroni et al., 2012), highlights many of these projects. Later on, the second European Work Plan for Sport (2014-2017) declared the protection of children as a topic to be prioritised by the EU institutions as well as the Member States.

‘Fighting Child Poverty’ was recently further addressed in a briefing to MEPs (IPOL 2018, 638429) and a commissioned parliament study (IPOL 2018, 626059). The study monitored multi-level child poverty and frameworks of EU funds to support nutrition, childcare, education services, housing and health care. As part of a briefing document, it is stated: ‘Child poverty is at the crossroads/intersection of several policy fields. Poor children are imperfectly targeted in both benefits and services’ (IPOL 2018, 626059, p. 6). Very often child poverty has an indirect impact on physical activity and sports for children and adolescents. Earning money by children to support family life hinders to play and to do sports at the same time. Unemployment and low income in families have been linked to difficulties paying fees for children’s organised sport participation and buying sporting goods. In both of the referenced parliamentary documents, **nothing is noted to support poor children with any offer and service of ‘play, recreation, sport and cultural activities’** as it was demanded in the EC’s Recommendation earlier (2013).

As the increasing number of public cases involving maltreatment and abuse as well as threatening, discriminating and abusive sport cultures suggest, the topic of safeguarding of children and young athletes in sport remains a high-priority field where much work needs to be done. Recent scholarly
work that supports this notion has been published in February 2020 in a special issue on ‘Managing abuse and integrity in sport’ within the ‘Sport Management Review’ journal (Kavanagh et al., 2020).

On the EP side, it can be stated that awareness of children’s protection and safeguarding in sports has significantly increased over the last four parliamentary terms. In our research, from 2004 to 2009, only six written questions and answers concerning safe-guarding of children had been addressed by MEPs to the European Commission. They mainly concerned responsible training of children and their protection from bullying. In the following period from 2009 to 2014, the focus of the nine questions and answers shifted to safety issues as well as educational and financial affairs. In the period from 2014 to 2019, 16 questions were addressed to the EC targeting nutrition, child poverty, migration and dual careers. There was also one written declaration carrying dealing with safe-guarding of children concerning European standards for children’s footwear (EP, 2009, 0032).

3.3.8. Diversity, women in sport and underrepresented groups

Diversity in sport can be described as the focus on diverse characteristics of groups of two or more people, such as values, attitudes and behaviours in sport management and practice. Ascribed group differences have institutional and structural fundament, diversity emphasises socially significant categories or groups. In this regard, various social units can be differentiated predominantly in terms of age, ethnic background, gender, religion, sexual orientation or physical ability (Cunningham, 2019). However, diversity research and management in sport dominantly concentrates on the different experiences of women and men, highlighting the negative (work) experiences of women in comparison to men (Cunningham, 2006). Hence, this section mainly outlines the situation and developments of women sport in the EU. To further improve the knowledge in other diversity units, the subsequent sub-chapter on social inclusion will then elaborate on two additional socially important groups, namely persons with disabilities and persons with a migration background. It should be noted that gender mainstreaming and equality measurements should also include further gender identities than merely female and male, such as queer or transgender. However, due to the dominance of gender issues related to women in sport, the following paragraphs aim to outline this policy field with its relevance and development in the EU.

In the EU, women sport has become an important policy area, as several differences in sport and physical activity participation and payments could be noted between the male and female gender in the general society and elite sport (EPRS_ATA(2020)646192_EN; Forbes, 2020; Pfister, 2011; Women on Boards, 2016). As the recent Eurobarometer 472 on sport and physical activity reveals (European Commission, 2018c), men exercise and participate in sport more often in comparison to women. Whereas 44% of men do sport with some regularity and 40% of men never play sport, only 36% of women participate regularly in sporting activities and 52% of females never exercise or do any kind of sport. Similarly, the engagement in volunteering in sport is slightly higher for males (8%) than for females (4%) (Special Eurobarometer 472: European Commission, 2018c).

Even though there are almost equal participation rates of males and females at the Summer Olympics (45% women in 2016), gender inequalities in high athlete sport remain (EPRS_ATA(2020)646192_EN). For example, a gender pay gap in elite sport has been noted. Thus, there have been only two women (Naomi Osaka and Serena Williams) in the top 100 list of highest-paid athletes (Forbes, 2020). Also, the female representation on NOCs and International Sports Federations have remained low with 16.6% and around 18% (Women on Boards, 2016). The scarce evidence on the percentage of coaches in Europe show relatively low rates engagement of female coaches (Pfister, 2011).
In 1987, the European Parliament adopted the Resolution on Women in Sport (doc. A 2-32/87/rev) which included the proposed ‘Charter of Women’s Rights in Sports’ of 1985 by the Italian Sport For All organisation UISP (European Commission, 2014c). Additionally, calls for an increased gender mainstreaming even for the youth were made by the CoR on ‘Equal opportunities for girls and boys in leisure activities and especially in EU youth and sport programmes’ in 1998 (OJ 98/C 64/14). There had been continuous activities on gender equality in sport, such as the Resolution on women and sport in 2003 (P5_TA(2003)0269), the Opinion of the Committee on women’s rights and gender equality in the report on the role of sport in education (European Parliament, 2007) or the Resolution on the European dimension in sport in 2012 (P7_TA(2012)0025).

However, these actions did not fully achieve the envisioned objectives towards greater empowerment of women and girls in sport, which were stressed again in the White paper on Sport in 2007 (COM(2007) 391 final) and included in the Article 165 in the Lisbon Treaty (TFEU). The White paper on Sport underlines within its proposal 17 that ‘[i]n the framework of its Roadmap for Equality between Women and Men 2006–2010, the Commission will encourage the mainstreaming of gender issues into all its sports-related activities, with a specific focus on access to sport for immigrant women and women from ethnic minorities, women’s access to decision-making positions in sport and media coverage of women in sport’ (COM(2007) 391 final, p.8).

Due to remaining challenges in the context of women sport, related topics, such as media coverage on women sport, were addressed in the EP Questions and Answers to the Commission, namely 6 times for the first assessed period from 2004 to 2009 and 8 times for the second assessed period from 2009 to 2014.

To enhance the situation of women in sport, the Commission (2014c) established a ‘Proposal for Strategic Actions 2014-2020 on Gender Equality in Sport’. This was the outcome of the EU conference on Gender Equality in Sport on 3-4 December 2013 in Vilnius, Lithuania, to which the Commissioner Vassiliou invited several experts and stakeholders for the composition of a concrete action plan. The proposal includes concrete objectives and measures to be reached in 2020 for gender equality in the areas of decision-making, coaching, fight against violence and media. To achieve the overall goal of full gender balance in decision-making bodies, the minimum of 40% women and men in executive boards and committees of national sport governing bodies and 30% in international sporting organisations placed in Europe should be reached by the end of 2020 (European Commission, 2014c, p. 15). In line with these suggested actions, the Council of Europe funded the project ‘Mapping existing gender indicators in sports’ (Council of Europe, 2016). For national and European implementation of gender mainstreaming in practice, the Erasmus+ project entitled ‘ALL IN: towards gender balance in sport’ was founded by the EU (2019). This provides evidence that a certain amount of the earlier established budget of the ERASMUS+ Programme for education, training, youth and sport with an allocation of almost EUR 14.8 billion (2013 prices) for the period 2014-2020 (IPOL_STU(2016)571393_EN) has been spent on gender equality. Furthermore, as highlighted in the briefing on violence against women by the EP (EPRS_BRI(2019)644190_EN), research was undertaken by the Commission regarding gender-based violence in sport in the EU (European Commission, 2016b, 2016c). However, it should be noted that overall, there have been low funding resources for gender mainstreaming in sport within the funding schemes of the EU. At least during the period 2014-2020, the study on ‘The use of funds for gender equality in selected Member States’ did not identify any sport-specific project within the six analysed countries (IPOL_STU(2016)571393_EN). Even with regard to the overall budgeting on gender mainstreaming, the study concludes that the ‘EU’s political commitment to gender equality and gender mainstreaming is not yet internalised in the budget allocations and spending decisions of all policy
areas and this is likely to reduce the effectiveness of gender equality strategies’ (European Parliament, 2016, p. 15).

Operating within the framework of the EU policies, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) has been founded as an autonomous body of the EU. The EIGE targets sport as a specific policy area in which gender mainstreaming should be enhanced. Hence, a fact sheet on key obstacles for gender equality in decision-making bodies of sporting organisations was published in 2015. Also, the online available Gender Mainstreaming Platform and Gender Statistics Database of the EIGE can support the integration of a gender perspective in sports policies and programmes (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020). In the period from 2019 to 2021 three main targets should be reached: 1) quality research and data collection, 2) management of knowledge and 3) meeting administrative and financial standards (IPOL_STU(2016)571393_EN, p. 15).

The current importance of the topic related to gender diversity management is expressed through an accelerating number of EP questions and answers to the Commission, raising from six questions and answers in the first assessed period from 2004 to 2009 up to 23 questions and answers in the latest assessed period from 2014 to 2019. These questions and answers target diverse areas, such as gender equality in sport governing bodies, violence against women in football or sexism. Two recent briefings and infographics directly related to the situation of women in sport, presenting data on the lower payment and media coverage of female elite athletes and a lower representation of females in governing sport bodies and coaching positions compared to males (EPRS_BRI (2019)635560_EN; EPRS_ATA (2020)646192_EN). There is a low representation of declarations by the EP targeting women rights. Only one declaration from 2005 could be found concerning ‘women's right to self-determination and adequate sex education and family planning in the European Union’ (EP, 2005, 0079). Yet, this declaration does not stress women’s rights within sport.

The study on gender-based violence by the European Commission (2016c) found out that only a limited number of EU countries have developed explicit national policies to address gender-based violence in sport, leading to underreporting of gender-based violence in sport and low efforts to combat it. However, it should be noted that most forms of gender-based violence in sport can be prosecuted under existing legislation across the EU Member States.

The autonomous youth organisation of the European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation (ENGSO Youth) published several recommendations highlighting the importance to reduce the discrimination of different gender in sport volunteering, for example, through educational programmes for trainers, teachers and coaches (ENGSO Youth et al., 2005). Also, different youth programmes targeted the increase of female sport participation with mixed teams of male and female teenagers (ENGSO Youth, 2008).

Within the evaluated journals, articles on gender equality about women in sport were less represented in comparison to other topics, such as football or grassroots sport. Nonetheless, several studies look at women football performance (Jacobs, 2014; Valenti et al., 2020), demand for women soccer (Hjelseth & Hovden, 2014; Meier et al., 2016) as well as sport attendance in Europe (Lagaert & Roose, 2018). Moreover, certain studies examine the role of female coaches and managers and the sport and physical activity participation of girls and women in specific kind of sports (dancing, football, boxing) and physical activities in certain European countries, such as in Norway, Denmark, Germany, Portugal or Belgium. The results indicate a rather devastating picture of women and girls’ participation in different kind of sports, as challenges persist in terms of acceptance of females coaches’ and athletes’ competences by male counterparts, a different (milieu-related) habitus or practices of discrimination and sometimes sexual abuses (Massao & Fasting, 2014; Pinheiro, 2010; Schaillée et al., 2017; Schlesinger
& Weigelt-Schlesinger, 2013; Skille, 2014; Sobiech, 2015; Tjønndal, 2019). However, it could be shown that girls from a low socio-economic background with a higher likelihood of non-participation in organised sport can profit from an urban dance-based developmental programme through an autonomy-supportive climate (Schaillée et al., 2017).

The findings on ‘The Equality Standard for Sport’ in the UK with additional governmental resources for equality interventions pointed out that the impact of such initiatives remains low even after 10 years of implementation. Therefore, the representation of females within National Governing Bodies and sports organizations have stayed low compared to England but a slight rise compared to all of the UK. There seems to be a tendency that younger organizations, established in the last 10 years, have a higher representation of women in higher positions. The authors conclude that organizational culture is an important factor for an improved or challenging basis for gender equality. Equality approaches should target processes of organizations rather than mere outcomes (Dwight & Biscomb, 2018).

3.3.9. Social inclusion

Whereas diversity in sport concentrates on the identification of differences between socially relevant groups, social inclusion highlights the process which allows individuals to experience a degree of expression of their own identities as well as a degree of belonging to a bigger group. Thus, inclusive organisations, such as sport clubs, recognise and value diverse characteristics and establish organizational patterns and structures that permit employees and participants to express themselves and simultaneously perceive a sense of connectedness (Cunningham, 2019).

Cunningham (2006) and the previous chapter on diversity and women sport have pointed to the dominance of studies and diversity measurements in the area of gender. Yet, there are two additional social significant groups which find certain recognition in the literature and practice and, thus, should be described in this section: persons with disabilities and persons with a migration background. Furthermore, more groups should be targeted in this section, such as persons from a low socio-economic background and elderly persons.

Due to changing demographics related to aging society, increasing socio-economic disparities and recent migration waves, advanced efforts for social inclusion should have high relevance in the EU. As an illustration, 21.8 million young people (or 28% of the EU population with an age range of 16–29) had a risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU in 2017. In particular, young women, persons with disabilities, and people with immigrant backgrounds have a higher risk of social exclusion (Devaux et al., 2019). Furthermore, the estimated amount of people with a disability in the EU is around 80 million persons, representing approximately 15% of the population (Council 2014/C 114/06). By 2020, it is expected that 120 million people with disabilities will be living in the EU (Council 2019/C 192/06). As the Special Eurobarometer 472 on sport and physical activity in the EU stresses, having disability or illness is one of the leading factors for not regularly participating in sport (Special Eurobarometer 472: Eurobarometer Commission, 2018c). Yet, organised sport is seen as a tool to enhance social inclusion of migrants (Devaux et al., 2019; Stura, 2019), persons with disabilities (Council 2017/C 198/02) and elderly people (Council 2019/C 192/06).

In 2000, the European Council stated its objectives to combat social exclusion among other things through measures enhancing access to sport (European Council, 2000b). Within the Nice ‘Declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social function in Europe’, it was stressed that there was a need for improved accessibility and encouragement of sport for ‘every man and woman’, in particular for ‘physically or mentally disabled’ (European Council, 2000a, p. 2). A special emphasis was also given to sport projects and activities for persons with disabilities by the Commission, as an addition to the European Year of People with Disabilities 2003 (EU, 2007a). In the context of social inclusion of people
with physically or mentally disabilities and from socio-economic deprived backgrounds from all ages, the EU institutions underscored the potential of sport for all as a tool (P7_TA(2012)0025; Council 2010/C 326/04). In particular, the **European Disability Strategy 2010-2020** highlighted the significance for all Member States and the organs of the EU to ensure the accessibility of sport for people with disabilities and the promotion of participation in inclusive and disability-specific sports events (COM(2010) 636 final).

There have been some further **activities of the EU institutions related to the inclusion of people with disabilities in sport**. In 2014, the CoR stressed the need to envision an annual ‘European Day for Sport for People with a Disability’ in the context of the EWoS. Due to the lack of data and a European standardised definition on disability and sport for people with physical disabilities, the committee also called for a clear European definition and specific data collection on sport participation of persons with physical disabilities through additional questionnaires or a specific Eurobarometer on Sport and Disability. In addition, it was proposed that an expert group could be set up in this regard (CoR 2014/C 114/06).

The EU work plan for 2017-2020 included social inclusion as a working area with a specific focus on access to sport for people with disabilities and with fewer opportunities (Council 2017/C 198/02). As an outcome of this objective, the **study on ‘Mapping on Access to Sport for People with Disabilities’** was published by the Commission in late 2018 (European Commission, 2018e). The study aimed to examine existing benefits, barriers and funding opportunities for programmes in 11 Member States, but excluded volunteering in sport, coaching and spectating. As facilitators for increased access, following factors were identified: ‘raising awareness and improving the communication on sport opportunities for people with disabilities; (enhancing) the role of elite sport development in encouraging wider participation in particular sports and the creation of accessible and adapted facilities that meet the specific needs of people with disabilities’ (European Commission, 2018e, pp. 2–3). In the Conclusion of the Council meeting (Council 2019/C 192/06), it was decided to continue and to extend work and collaboration on access to sport for people with disabilities on grassroots sport and high performance sport. In this regard, the contribution of the ‘European Disability Card’ to an increase in attendance level at sport events by people with disabilities should also be examined. Moreover, elderly people with their potentially increased functional barriers should not be overlooked (Council 2020/C 39/11). To intensify social inclusion in and through sport, the Council also recognised volunteering as a pivotal instrument (Council 2017/C 189/09).

However, and despite these documents, the research on the frequency of EP Questions and Answers to the Commission could **show a stable low interest of Parliament members in social inclusion and sport**. Only two questions had been asked in the first analysed period from 2004 to 2009 and the number of questions increased to six in the subsequent period from 2009 to 2014. MEPs questions targeted mainly the area of sport for persons with disabilities, such as Paralympics, the need for increased measurements and funding for sport participation as well as the rights of persons with disabilities.

Two Written Declarations of the EP were found concerning social inclusion of schoolchildren with disabilities in physical education focusing on facilitating their sporting talent development (EP, 0001/2013; 0080/2016). The resolution of the EP on the European Disability Strategy (P9 TA(2020)0156) post-2020 **calls for continuous efforts of the Commission to implement a long-term strategy for a mainstreamed access to sport for people with disabilities**, including an improved infrastructure. On this line, recommendations of a EP study published in July 2020 for the Post-2020 European Disability Strategy indicate a lack of clear data on disability in Europe (which reconsider the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities), a need for an aligned strategy at EU and
Member States’ level and the continuing mainstreaming and funding of EU programmes in terms of the needs of people with disabilities (IPOL_STU (2020)656398_EN).

Several articles regarding social inclusion in and through sport clubs in diverse European countries could be reviewed. Most studies could be found in the ‘European Journal for Sport and Society’, targeting mainly the social inclusion of refugees and persons with a migration background through and in sport (clubs) but fewer persons with disabilities. Results of studies underline that persons with a migration background can be integrated into and through sport clubs. In a Swiss study limiting factors were found for social inclusion into sport clubs (insufficient language skills, religious duties, different values) (Adler Zwahlen et al., 2018, p. 35). Not all kinds of sport are attractive to immigrants, as, understandably, they bring with them the sporting traditions of their home country, as well as cultural and gender expectations. For example, handball which is a popular sport in Germany, seems to be less attractive for people with a migration background than combat sports and cricket (Borggrefe & Cachay, 2018).

The EU-funded ASPIRE project found that combat sports were popular among certain age-groups of boys and men (but not as popular as cricket and football). Traditional dance was popular with some girls and women (ENGSO, 2019). Also, ethnic minorities sometimes are reluctant to integrate into sport clubs and thus cultural segregation between clubs might be emphasised (van Haaften, 2019). Social inclusion through sport clubs can especially be achieved if persons with a migration background or refugee’s performance fit the clubs’ level and if personal in-depth encounters with acceptance of cultural differences at the club level do exist (Cardone, 2019; Stura, 2019). Importantly, from 2016 to 2019 the European Commission awarded many Erasmus+ applications of different sport and community stakeholders on social inclusion of migrants and refugees (European Commission, 2020d). In general, further scientific studies are needed to conceptualise and standardise tools to assess the level of social inclusion in and through sport clubs by migrants and refugees (Adler Zwahlen et al., 2018) and the potential of their inclusion into specific kinds of sports (Borggrefe & Cachay, 2018).

In the field of integrating persons with disabilities in and through sport, around a handful of studies could be examined. In the qualitative study on visually impaired cricket in England, Powis (2018) notes that the playing of cricket in a team of persons with the same impairment empowers people to participate and socialise due to similar barriers to overcome, the awareness of their own physical abilities and a similar mind-set or interest in the sport and its competitiveness. However, the mainstreaming of cricket on the international level with a focus on elite performance had a disempowering effect for certain, mainly fully blind athletes. Powis (2018, p. 203) concludes that there is a need for ‘a greater representation of all visually impaired athletes’.

### 3.4. Current issues/ Hot Topics

#### 3.4.1. Brexit

The main impact of Brexit on sport, highlighted in all the comments received so far, is the potential limitation of the existing free movement of workers in the European common market. The economic dimension of sport is thus primarily addressed. Professional sport has experienced a massive expansion of its cross-border activities since the 1990s. Given the principle of the free movement of workers (Article 45 TFEU), players from EU Member States could be fielded by British teams before Brexit, as a rule without any restrictions on the squad. In the Premier League, the highest English football league, 41% of the professionals on the ball are currently recruited from the United Kingdom; 41% of the players also come from the other EU Member States; 18% of the professionals come from third countries. After Brexit, ‘EU players’ are covered by the status of third countries for which a residence
permit is required. The Football Association (in England) has imposed significant conditions on the granting of such a permit. According to different calculations for the year 2019, several hundred professional footballers who have moved from EU Member States to the Premier League would not have been eligible to play under a third country status.

The freedom of establishment (Article 49 TFEU) and the freedom to provide services (Article 56 TFEU) apply not only to (salaried) athletes in clubs but also to self-employed athletes in individual sports. Professionals currently working in the UK can continue to benefit from the free movement of workers if they qualify for ‘settled status’ and provide documentation that they were resident in the UK before 31 December 2020. However, this does not apply to professionals working in the UK in the future. As a result, it is to be expected that there will be fewer transfers to the Premier League and other British professional sports leagues, while there will be an increase in the number of young English players. Yet, following the ECJ’s Kolpak ruling of 2003, sportspeople from the African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) countries were as well covered by the provisions on the free movement of workers and thus sports such as rugby and cricket are also more strongly affected in addition to football, since numerous players are recruited by British leagues or clubs from the Pacific and Caribbean regions and South Africa.

The English Football Association (FA), the Premier League and the EFL, which is responsible for the second to fourth divisions, have developed a new set of rules for the signing of European footballers. It provides for a points system and special regulations as well as a work permit, which previously only newcomers from non-EU countries had to present. Several factors come into play when granting a work permit, including the professional’s appearances in the national team, the level of his previous club, success in continental competitions and the number of appearances at the club. If British clubs want to sign players from the EU, they also have to wait until they are 18 years old. In addition, they are now only allowed to sign six EU players between the ages of 18 and 21 per year. In addition, these players must meet certain criteria. These include whether they have played internationally and in which league they have played.

In addition to players and athletes, other personnel in professional sport are also affected by restrictions on the free movement of workers, such as coaches and medical staff. Horse racing, which is the second most popular sport in the UK in terms of the number of visitors with a turnover of almost EUR 4 billion and with 17,000 employees, currently accounts for 11% of employees in the EU. The figure is 20% for dancing.

The examples above related to the free movement of sportspeople will have a largely symbolic effect though as the total number of people involved is manageable. On the other hand, it is to be expected that the effects on the sports economy will still be more far-reaching. Since sports-related activities are reflected in a large number of economically relevant areas, the economic importance of sport is determined with the help of a satellite account. Research carried out by Sport England in 2015 shows that sport and sports-related activities account for a significant part of the UK economy, contributing £20.3 billion of gross value added in England (1.9% of the total English economy) and funding some 400,000 full-time jobs (2.3% of all jobs in England). The importance of sport for the export economy is documented by the fact that, measured in terms of trade flows, both the UK and Germany export around 60% of the sporting goods produced to other EU countries. In direct comparison, however, the United Kingdom currently has a considerable trade deficit in sporting goods with the other EU countries. According to British figures, the UK currently imports sporting goods worth EUR 2.9 billion but exports only EUR 1.7 billion. If new or additional trade barriers, such as tariffs, are imposed on sports products such as clothing and footwear as a result of the Brexit Agreement, overall trade in sports-related products is expected to decline.
In addition to trade in sports products, **sports-related services are also relevant**. These include expertise in legal and financial matters, and the provision of design and engineering services. The UK currently exports one-third of its total sports services to the EU, which is over half a billion pounds in value. By contrast, imports of sports services from the EU account for over 85% of the UK’s total imports of sports services, which also represent around half a billion pounds. These figures show the extent of the interdependence between the UK and EU sports services sectors, and the effect of Brexit on cross-border trade in sports services will be felt in the light of changing external economic conditions and foreseeable barriers to trade in services.

The sports betting sector may also be affected by Brexit, as many betting operators are now based in Malta or the UK overseas territory of Gibraltar. Consequently, anyone placing sports bets with a provider regulated by UK authorities will have to accept that the betting licence may be non-European. In conclusion, a preliminary assessment of the impact of Brexit shows that the main impact will be the restriction of free movement, directly for professional sportspeople, and presumably to an economically relevant extent indirectly for the sports industry.

The social and scientific consequences in the area of sport are less clear-cut, but here too, foreseeable difficulties and additional obstacles for sports clubs, fans and also for universities and students can be expected. Overall, the already high level of transnational interaction between the UK and the EU in sport will be reduced. In the medium to long term, this may result in a shift to other countries, but it may also damage the degree of exchange, social interaction and mutual understanding that has already been achieved.

### 3.4.2. Refugees

Since the 2015 refugee wave, when the EU faced one of its greatest challenges and despite decreasing numbers of asylum applicants, mainly due to the outbreak of COVID-19 (European Asylum Support Office, 2020), a final solution to the flow of refugees and its consequences for EU Member States is not in view. Nevertheless, in relation to sport, certain strategies have been promoted to attenuate the predicament, both as a constructive recreation in camps and as a tool for social inclusion for refugees in Member States (EAC/S05/2020).

Starting with a budget of EUR 1 million in 2017, investment has progressively grown to EUR 3 million, with EUR 1.75 million within the 2020 ‘Annual work programme for the implementation of Pilot Projects and Preparatory Actions in the area of education, sport and culture’ (C(2018) 1602, C(2020)1194). The funded projects offer a potential organisational foundation for the integration of refugees through sport (EAC/S16/2017; EAC/S05/2020). Projects have also been financed through the ERASMUS+ framework, such as ‘Activity, Sport and Play for the Inclusion of Refugees In Europe (ASPIRE)’. By creating a specialised, evidence-based and evaluated training course, including specific guidance, ASPIRE supported decision-makers, sports leaders and clubs and coaches to create opportunities to participate in sport activities and community life (ASPIRE Project Consortium, 2019).

Sport, the European Parliament asserted, was ‘an instrument for fostering social and intercultural dialogue by promoting the establishment of positive links between the local population and refugees and asylum seekers’ (P8_TA(2016)0297 p. 17). An EP-initiated study reiterated the value of sports activities at communal reception facilities accompanied by education campaigns, recreational activities, healthcare, and so on (Bekyol & Bendel, 2016). However, most research has focused on sport’s inclusive character within host communities (Spaaij et al., 2019).

Also, **football’s far-reaching and trans-national popularity** is widely believed to foster communication and exchange, to create a sense of belonging, and to contribute to personal
development (Doidge, 2018; Stone, 2018; Woodhouse & Conricode, 2016). In fact, sport, in general, has been hailed as a setting in which multi-ethnic groups can play together, contributing to social cohesion and openness to other cultures (Özgüzel & Hasirci, 2019). This requires of course an active engagement of volunteers, coaches and club leaders (Doidge, 2018; Stura, 2019).

3.4.1. Multi-Annual Financial Framework

After the Lisbon Treaty came into force, no exclusive sports funding programme did exist. The ‘Preparatory Actions in Sport’ for the years 2009-2011 and a sports funding programme for 2012-2013, were an interim solution. Since the adoption of the regulation establishing ‘Erasmus+’: The Union programme for education, training, youth and sport, the EU has obtained its own EU sports funding programme for the first time. The original draft budget provided for a total expenditure of 19.5 billion Euro for the period from 2014 to 2020. The share of sport accounted for approximately 1.8% of the total budget. These initially EUR 238 million - corresponding to an annual amount of EUR 34 million - were earmarked for the sub-programme sport. In the end, around EUR 265 million were approved for sports-related projects. Although organised sport was hoping to be explicitly considered in the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) programme, these hopes were not fulfilled.

The concrete requirements for sports-related applications in Erasmus are found in the annually revised ‘Erasmus+ Programme Guide’ issued by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA), which is responsible for implementing the EU sports funding programme. In 2014, around 40 ‘network projects’ were funded with a total volume of almost EUR 15 million. The priorities varied subsequently and included projects with the objective of a dual career for athletes, projects to increase health-promoting physical activity, and activities aimed at good governance in sport. Also, funds were made available for non-commercial sporting events.

In addition to Erasmus+, other EU programmes are principally focused on supporting sport. These include the ERDF, the ESF+, and programmes in the fields of health (‘Health and Growth’ Programme 2014-2020) and the environment (‘LIFE +’).

In February 2017, the EP, in its initial report on a ‘Global Approach to Sport Policy: Good Governance, Accessibility and Integrity’, called on the European Commission to increase funding for sport under Erasmus+ with a particular focus on grassroots sport. These proposals have been taken up by the Commission. In line with the drafting of the new MFF for the years from 2021 to 2027, a new edition of the Erasmus+ programme for education, training, youth and sport was proposed. Much higher funding should be earmarked for sport. Initially, the European Commission had proposed 1,100 billion Euro for the next MFF from 2021 to 2027, with almost double that amount earmarked for sport. The EP welcomed this doubling of EU funding.

After the European Council had agreed on the MFF and the Covid 19 ‘NextGenerationEU’ programme, after lengthy negotiations, Parliament and the Council also approved these financial packages. The share of the budget allocated to sport under the new Erasmus+ programme now amounts to 1.9%. Together with the overall increase of Erasmus+, this leads to a total amount of almost EUR 500 million for sport for the period 2021-27. This means that the programme has almost doubled in size.

Further funding may come to sport from the Commission’s stand-alone health programme for the period 2021-2027, called ‘EU4Health’. This programme aims to contribute to the recovery from the COVID-19 crisis by improving the health of the EU population. The programme will be endowed with EUR 5 billion.
Organised sport has welcomed the increase in funding for the sports funding programme, but has also called for the criteria to be designed in a way that smaller projects with fewer cross-border partners also had a real chance. The eligibility of sports-related measures in other programmes still represents an important demand that has recently been strengthened in light of modern and sustainable sports facilities. Considering the dimension of sports diplomacy mentioned above, sport should also be taken into account in forthcoming external action financing instruments.

The implementation of sport in the course of the current COVID-19 crisis is also of central importance. In addition to the provision of specific EU funds, it is also significant that financial support from national funds for sport or health services to cope with the corona crisis were not subject to State aid control.

3.4.3. COVID-19 pandemic

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic affects numerous actors and areas, but its medium- to long-term effects can hardly be assessed. Sport is fundamentally affected in its different forms – both professional/elite sport, sports economy, leisure sport and school sport. In the following section, the unique developments in 2020 will be considered separately, as the effects are likely to manifest themselves in different forms.

Professional and Elite Sport under Pressure

When, in the wake of the Corona-crisis, almost the entire European continent was put into lockdown mode and sport came to a standstill, professional sport in Europe was confronted with particular challenges. Football provides a good example of this phenomenon. In February 2020, the national football associations tried to react to the increasingly difficult situation with cautious measures of their own, and in the following weeks governments and administrations increasingly took over and left organised football no room for manoeuvre. On 4 March, the Italian government decided that Italy's first division football clubs must play in front of empty stands until 3 April. In France, the Ligue 1 match between Racing Strasbourg and Paris Saint Germaine scheduled for 6 March was cancelled on the instructions of the prefecture of the Bas-Rhin department. In Italy, all team sports competitions were suspended on 9 March, which also meant that Seria A football was suspended. On 12 March, both Spanish and Dutch football suspended all scheduled matches for professional footballers due to the corona-virus pandemic. Germany was criticised that it took until 13 March that the DFL had decided to suspend the next match day. While the season had already been suspended in many countries including Spain, Italy, France and England, and UEFA had ordered a suspension of the Champions League and Europa League, the DFL played for time to keep the game going for another weekend. This decision reveals the dependency on media, which is particularly pronounced in football. TV money accounts for around 60 to 70% of the income of professional football leagues. Accordingly, on-going matches appear to be particularly important to secure income from television revenues while the situation in other team sports (basketball, ice hockey, handball, and volleyball) is quite different since they create most of their revenue through game-day sales.

Within a few days, professional football was virtually overrun by the further increase of the pandemic. Associations, leagues and clubs were increasingly on the defensive and often had to face the accusation that they were only looking at the revenues – especially from the broadcasting – but lacking caution and common sense. Very similar criticisms were aimed at other sporting organisations, such as the IOC. The debate about the postponement of the Olympic Games dominated the media for several weeks. Originally, Thomas Bach, current President of the IOC, had announced that a decision would be taken within four weeks. Growing pressure from the general public, athletes' representatives and NOCs for a postponement, as well as the withdrawals of some important sports nations like
Australia and Canada for Olympic Games in 2020 (Palmer, 2020), eventually led to the announcement on 24 March, 2020, that the Olympic Games would be postponed by one year.

Critical voices were not the only ones to be heard. Reports of elite athletes becoming socially involved during lockdown appeared in the media. Nevertheless, even such acts did not detract from severe criticism directed at organised sport when it became clear that clubs, particularly professional football clubs, were on the verge of bankruptcy despite substantial revenues. Similar outrage was directed to wealthy players when it became evident that they were only prepared to accept limited salary cuts. Many football fans have used the crisis to reflect on football in the absence of the otherwise almost uninterrupted running of the game. The result has been the emergence of a critical debate on acceptance and legitimacy. When strict security rules were loosened, many people in Europe were critical of the proposal to resume competitions and give a special place to football. In Germany, where the Bundesliga was the first European league to resume matches, a representative survey showed that 56% of people were against the restart of the season. Nevertheless, professional sport has gradually returned to regular matches and competitions, albeit often without on-site spectators. This applies to the Tour de France, the US Open, and the European Beach Volleyball Championship. Due to the absence or reduction of spectators, numerous sporting associations are facing considerable financial difficulties; some are even threatened with bankruptcy.

The consequences of the pandemic for professional sports beyond football can only be estimated at present, as there are considerable differences between the individual disciplines and Member States: A comprehensive survey by the German Olympic Sports Association (DOSB) has shown that around 67% of DOSB associations see their existence as being at risk if the crisis continues until the end of 2021. Losses are identified in the following areas: in ticketing, German sporting associations are expected to post deficits of EUR 22 to EUR 26 million in 2020, and in sponsorship, deficits of EUR 25 to EUR 28 million. In total, a decrease of around EUR 148 to EUR 162 million is expected. On the other hand, however, there will also be savings of around EUR 108 to EUR 124 million as a result of cancellations of major events and reduced personnel and travel costs.

Funds have been made available in various forms by the EU Member States. In Germany, a federal Corona aid program has been set up for clubs in the professional and semi-professional leagues to the tune of EUR 200 million. However, because of bureaucracy, only EUR 75 million had been accessed by the end of November 2020. From 1 January to 30 June, 2021, a further EUR 200 million in Corona-emergency aid for professional sport was made available by the federal government in Germany. In addition, sport funding in the 2021 Olympic year was increased from EUR 279 to EUR 293 million. Comparable data are not available for other European countries. With regard to the Olympic Games, however, it has become known that additional costs of around EUR 1.6 billion are expected as a result of the relocation of the Summer Olympics in Tokyo. And on the part of the athletes, a loss of revenue by about 25% is also predicted.

Turning to professional spectator sports, it can be concluded that the financial losses are considerable in some cases. Other sports are affected more severely than football and the top league, as are the semi-professional leagues, which depend heavily on spectator revenues. In the medium to long term, however, it should be possible to compensate for the losses suffered here. Despite a legitimacy crisis, sport will remain an important element of the modern entertainment industry. In an increasingly plural world, sport will remain a meaningful and relevant vehicle of societal communication. And despite the current criticism, sport spectators and fans will identify with their clubs, celebrate good performances and get excited about professional sports again.
However, it remains to be seen whether the perception of professional sport will change in the long term as a result of the pandemic. Snapshots and survey results from all over Europe indicate at least a critical attitude towards professional sport. Excessive salaries in professional sports will be discussed and critically assessed. Professional athletes might have to prove their integrity and will not be awarded with unconditional respect, while professional leagues and clubs will have to accept a higher level of social responsibility.

**Sports Economy**

A European Commission study on the economic impact of COVID-19 on sport cites the following potential effects: cancellation of events, reduced sponsorship money, potentially less member financing, reduced deals in sport broadcasting, substantial limitations in sport tourism: reduction of production and retail of sporting goods and equipment due to the lockdown. Unfortunately, the economic health impact on the backdrop of physical education and grassroots sport for young people was excluded in this study. Disrupted supplies due to the COVID-19 crisis have affected the production chains (Ecorys/SportsEconAustria 2020: 13). However, the consequences of COVID-19 show significant differences between individual sports sectors. The data in this report and others suggest that the sports sector should expect a reduced sports-related GDP of at least 10 per cent in 2020. EOSE, the European Observatoire of Sport and Employment, estimates a decline of 3.3% in the number of people employed in sport in the first quarter of 2020 alone. This means that employment figures in the sports sector are more affected than in other sectors.

It must however be acknowledged that there are sectors that have recorded significant increases, such as cycling. Recreational sport might also indirectly benefit from the pandemic since self-preservation and restrictions lead people to turn towards home- and outdoor-fitness. Informal outdoor settings have become more important and popular. In particular, lockdown and travel restrictions deepened the bond to the home environment. This has been most clearly expressed in a continuing bicycle boom. Despite closures and long delivery delays, the cycling industry in several European countries estimates higher sales and profits than in 2019. In Germany, an increase of almost 10 per cent is expected compared to the first half of 2019, in the US, CNN reports a 30% increase in bicycle sales. One reason for this trend is also a change in mobility behaviour, which was further accelerated in the course of the crisis. Coronavirus pandemic triggers a shift in mobility. After lockdown measures, anxiety about using public transport, less traffic and people's wish to exercise after staying at home for weeks fostered this bicycle boom.

**Clubs and Community Sport**

Club sport has also been seriously affected by the consequences of the pandemic. In mid-March, competition and training activities were suspended almost everywhere in Europe with immediate effect. For many active players, this meant not only an end to the on-going competitions but also no contact with teammates for months and in many cases no sport at all. Not least children and young people, who in percentage terms make up the highest proportion of Europeans that are active in sports clubs, were confronted with a completely different everyday life. Numerous social contacts were cut off for months, and some of them have not been resumed to this day. Sponsorship money was lost, income from activities could not be generated and voluntary work also suffered. What aggravates yet more the situation is that not every sport facility infrastructure is complying with the hygiene concepts.

The sports clubs reacted with great flexibility to the COVID-19 crisis and reorganised and realigned activities, moved sporting activities outdoors, and took on social tasks. It is not yet clear how the pandemic will affect membership figures. Even though there have not been any massive withdrawals
from clubs so far, there are hardly any new members, so that an overall loss of members is to be expected in the foreseeable future. A decline in membership of 5 to 15% is estimated – with particular effects at the end of the year which caused a decline of sport active citizens in all Member States.

Support programmes were launched with some delay, and - according to criticism from the organised sport - they did not correspond to the extent of support provided to the economy and in some cases, they did not meet the needs. Especially medium-sized and larger clubs are particularly hard hit by the pandemic, as they are only able to reduce the fixed costs that continue to be incurred to a limited extent and are finding it difficult to compensate for them due to a lack of income.

Bureaucratic hurdles also seem to be challenging obstacles for sports clubs. In Germany’s most populous (regional) state, North Rhine-Westphalia, 18,000 clubs shared EUR 10 million in emergency aid from the federal government. However, only six million of this has been accessed until November 2020. In addition, it seems that people did not muster the same energy and commitment in the second lockdown as in the first.

**Physical activity, physical education and health**

EUPEA (2020a, b) conducted two surveys about PE during the pandemic, first in June (Physical Education in Europe and COVID-19), and then in October 2020 (European Perspective: Physical Education in Times of COVID-19). The first included 31 countries across Europe. About 75% of the national PE teacher associations did not consult regional or national ministries of education on PE matters during the pandemic. The response of different Member States was variable. One group of countries (e.g. Lithuania, Portugal, Scotland and Croatia) closed their schools during the pandemic, so no PE lessons were taught. Another group kept schools open (e.g. Austria, Czech Republic, Cyprus and Luxembourg), but still most PE classes were cancelled. With a third group (e.g. France, Greece, Lichtenstein, the Netherlands, and Switzerland), schools remained open and PE lessons took place but with reductions and adaptations in line with safety guidance (e.g. only outdoor sports, physical distancing). On average, 60% of PE classes in Europe were cancelled, and the remaining 40% were either adapted to on-campus teaching or home schooling. In the second survey, teachers from six Member States (n=191) participated. The impact of cancelled PE classes because of COVID-19 was evaluated as ‘serious’ and ‘rather serious’ by about 67% of participants. 90% of teachers from Italy and Spain predicted a negative influence on the healthy development of their students. Negative outcomes for student’s psychosocial development were forecasted by more than 80% of participants from Portugal, Italy, Spain and Belgium.

As a regular part of their annual national monitoring of physical fitness in Slovenia (SLOfit), Starc (2020) reported that two thirds of youth (age 7 to 15) suffered from decreased physical fitness, which was particularly striking among the of 9- and 10-year old age groups, where figure rose to 76% and 78% respectively. The same survey that found 40% of children and young people gaining body fat. The 7- to 10-year old age group was especially vulnerable to body fat gain (60% of participants). In another COVID-study (Orgiles et al.2020), 1,143 parents and 543 children (age mean 9.08) from 94 Italian and 87 Spanish cities were asked about changes in children’s emotional state and behaviour during the period of lockdown. Among Spanish parents, reports indicated an increase of negative psychological effects and behaviour problems of their children of 88.9%; among Italian parents, the increase was 83.8%. Total screen time for children increased significantly: screen minutes in the category of 90-120 minutes doubled and in the category of 120-180 minutes trebled, although the increase in the category of more than 180 minutes per day was only from 3.3% to 29.9%. Time spent being physically active for between 90 and 120 minutes per day dropped from 13.1% to 3.3% and time active for less than 30 minutes per day increased from 13.6% to 55.6%.
The impact of COVID-19 on regular physical education at school and physical activity after closure of grassroots sport clubs across the majority of Member States is currently being researched by scholars. The COVID-19 pandemic changed the lifestyle behaviours of many young Europeans to more sedentary activities, and a concerning decline of regular physical activities. Many former European promotion initiatives of HEPA and grassroots sport participation were put on hold or even scaled-down due to the pandemic, leaving youth at even greater risk of establishing inactive lifestyles, as well as social isolation and behavioural problems in family life. Therefore, a **COVID-Recovery Fund (CRF) on school-based HEPA and local sport club-based physical activities** is necessary to adopt and rebuild the foundations of healthy active lifestyles among young people in the post-COVID era.

**EU activities**

At the EU level, a priority question from Tomasz Frankowski (PPE), Marc Tarabella (S&D), Theodoros Zagorakis (PPE), Tiziana Beghin (NI) had already been addressed to the European Commission on 21 April 2020 asking how organised sport could be supported under the Corona circumstances (Question P-002411/20). Mariya Gabriel responded that the Commission takes ‘the serious impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the sports sector’ into account (Answer RE(2020)002411). The Commission announced that it will coordinate ‘actions and tools with Member States to limit the knock-on effect on the grassroots sport and the economy of the sports sector’. The Council adopted on 22 June 2020 conclusions on ‘the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and the recovery of the sports sector’ (Council 2020/C 214 I/01). The Council stressed the usefulness of ‘national and European recovery programmes’ as the main strategy. It called on the Commission to respond flexibly to current challenges ‘including the Corona Response Investment Initiative (CRII), the Corona Response Investment Initiative Plus (CRII+), the temporary Support to mitigate Unemployment Risks in an Emergency (SURE) and the State Aid Temporary Framework, as well as other EU recovery initiatives, in line with national priorities and cooperation with the relevant bodies’. In addition, two extra-ordinary ERASMUS+ calls for proposals were launched on 25 August 2020 to support digital education and creative skills. However, cautions at both National and European levels were voiced that declarations of intent indicate good-will, but are of limited practical help to organised sport and the needs for recovery in the education and health sector.

In the context of the COVID-19 crisis the EP Research Service (EPRS_ATA(2020)651978_EN) published a paper on ‘Cross-border regional healthcare cooperation to combat the coronavirus pandemic’ and recommended the following: ‘The Covid-19 pandemic has led to a situation where the healthcare systems of the Member States and their regions have been heavily burdened, with more patients to treat than they have capacity for. In particular, some border regions in northern Italy, south-western Germany and north-western France were significantly affected by the pandemic. The European Commission highlighted that many border regions already have both a history of, and the structures for, cooperation in health, which they should fully exploit in the spirit of European solidarity’ (EPRS_ATA(2020)651978_EN, p.1).

On 17 November 2020, the European Commission organised a highly attended online conference on the prospects for sport after the end of the COVID-19 crisis. There was an agreement on the considerable challenges for sport, but different options were discussed in terms of measures. For professional sport, it is important to help coordinate sporting events in Member States so that the organisation of sporting events can be as uniform and effective as possible. In February 2021 the European Parliament discussed in plenary the impact of Covid-19 on youth and on sport. The Plenary adopted the **resolution on the impact of COVID-19 on youth and on sport** introduced by Sabine Verheyen (EPP). The resolution stresses ‘that the COVID-19 pandemic is having devastating consequences on the entire sports sector at all levels, especially on sporting organisations and clubs,
leagues, gyms and fitness centres, athletes, coaches, staff, and sports-related business, including sports event organisers and sports media (and) considers that the road to recovery will be challenging and underlines the need for targeted relief measures’. The resolution further ‘calls on the Commission to explore all possible avenues for delivering additional targeted support for both amateur and professional sports with the aim of increasing the viability of the whole sector’ (P9_TA-PROV(2021)0045).

Sport organisations have claimed as well their hope that sports clubs will be included in measures within the framework of NextGenerationEU, such as the Coronavirus Response Investment Initiative (CRII). There is strong support for making it easier for sport to access funding from the European Structural and Investment Funds to regain active and healthy citizens of all age groups. Even more important, however, seems to be an independent and targeted EU COVID-Recovery Fund for sport.

In summary, the following observations and perspective developments about the pandemic can be noted for sport: The COVID-19 pandemic has significant (negative) impacts on current sport and will significantly change the future organisation of sport. Changes will differ in professional and recreational sport. Sport mega events will remain important as magnets for spectators and as communication platforms. Sport federations will face financial problems and have to re-legitimise their actions. Sport clubs will face structural challenges and have to restructure their activities. Recreational sport will gain more importance, not only for health improvement and social life but also for aspects of mobility. The increasing relevance of self-organised and informal sport settings will be catalysed by the crisis.
4. ASSESSMENT AND PRIORITIES: DELPHI STUDY

KEY FINDINGS

This part of the study reports on a Europe-wide Delphi study of the perceptions of key stakeholders regarding the past and present. It offers as well insights into the future potential of EU sports policy and politics. A combination of quantitative and qualitative survey and consensus exercises methods was used to identify overall and shared understandings of priorities, emerging concerns, and the roles of EU institutions in European sport. Approximately 200 different individuals took part in this process, including representatives from national and regional sports organisations, academics, EU representatives, and individuals associated with leading Europe-level representative bodies in sport.

- The importance of the political, economic, and social/cultural dimensions of EU sport policy is generally rated high. A gradual increase in the perceived importance of all three dimensions over time can be observed.
- The European Commission was judged the most relevant and important EU institution followed by the Council of Ministers, the EP, and the European Council. However, data suggest that most participants in the study had little regular, direct interaction with EU institutions.
- Sport for all, health and well-being as well as recreational sport stood out as the sectors considered most important by participating stakeholders. Youth development and especially physical activity and physical education were also highly rated, with COVID-19 emerging as a current priority area that was predicted to continue to be important in the coming years.
- Environment, sustainability, climate change, and ‘The Green Deal’ were the most frequently cited sector not listed in the initial survey.

This element of the study aimed to assess the most important dimensions of EU sports policy in the past, present, and future for policy-making from the perspective of critical stakeholders for EU sports policy. Accordingly, this section seeks to evaluate the importance or unimportance of a reviewed collection of different sport-policy sectors and to recommend dimensions and sectors of EU sports policy for policy-making within the new Work Plan for Sport for the period from 2021 to 2024. The specific goal was to identify areas of consensus and divergence among key stakeholders in the field regarding the past, present, and future of EU sports policy and politics.

Participants for the study were invited from various key stakeholder groups identified as relevant in the context of EU sports policy. The overall sample consisted of seven sub-samples listed below. Participants were recruited from five organizational sub-samples (see Annex 5 for the invitation). The project partners ENGSO and EUPEA, as well as ENSE as a collaborating organization, were contacted to solicit respondents among their membership. This provided access to potential respondents from all European countries (including all 27 EU). This added perspectives from physical education, youth and non-governmental organizations, as well as from higher-learning. To gather information and gain insights based on feedback from (umbrella) sporting organisations and associations we reached out to representatives from all European umbrella sporting associations. Thus, again, we were able to solicit feedback from all European countries. The final group sub-sample comprised all European NOCs plus national sporting organisations throughout Europe. We focused on six of the most prominent sports throughout Europe, three team sports (football, handball and volleyball) as well as three individual
sports (gymnastics, swimming, athletics). Additionally, we contacted two sub-samples comprised of individuals: 1) EU representatives (current or former representatives from politics, administration, commissions, units from Brussels or Luxemburg), and 2) academics from the social sciences and other research areas well published in the field as well as individual experts in the field of EU sports policy, who have regularly contributed to the field by participating in various EU projects. Again, these lists of individuals included representatives from all 27 EU countries. The survey of all 27 EU Member States presented in this study is intended to take particular account of the range and diversity of the EU.

Perceptions of these stakeholders were gathered, analysed, and aggregated using a specially developed data-gathering method. The basic approach involved a combination of traditional surveying tools, supplemented by a consensus-gathering instrument. The survey (see Annex 6) elicited stakeholders’ views on a range of issues underlying EU policies, including changing priorities, emerging concerns, and institutional engagement. The consensus-gathering method was based on the ‘Delphi’ methodology, which was designed to be used in areas where there has been limited previous research, or where stakeholders come from a diverse range of backgrounds. It was judged to be particularly well-suited to the demands of this study. Specifically, the Delphi approach involves gathering the opinions of a group of experts and then submitting those opinions to a structured round of analysis and reorganisation. So, the experts are invited to engage with increasingly shared statements of the group’s decision-making.

The study took a broad focus and participants were invited to share opinions on EU-based sports policy-making in the past (covering the period to 2015), the present (between 2015-2020), and into the future (from 2020 onwards). As stated, participants in this study came from a heterogeneous collection of groups and institutions and were purposively sampled as a representative group of sports policy stakeholders in the EU:

1. Individuals associated with the European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation (ENGSO);
2. Individuals associated with the European Network of Sport Education (ENSE);
3. Individuals associated with the European Physical Education Association (EUPEA);
4. Individuals identified as (academic) Experts in the field (Experts);
5. Individuals associated with National sporting organisations (Sport org);
6. Individuals identified as Past and present EU Representatives (EU); and
7. Individuals associated with European sporting associations (Sport ass).

Questions focused on three ‘dimensions’ of sports policy-making identified during the preparatory stages of the study: the political dimension, the economic dimension, and the socio-cultural dimension. In addition, 30 sectors of EU sports policy administration and intervention were highlighted (Table 2).

| Table 2: Sectors of EU Sports Policy - Administration and Intervention (alphabetical order) |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| - Brexit                         | - Informal sport                         | - Sport diplomacy                        |
| - Corruption / Sport betting     | - Media sports (digitalisation)           | - Sport facility building                 |
| - COVID-19                       | - Multi-annual framework                 | - Sport for all                          |
| - Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups | - Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day) | - Sport Industry |
| - Doping                         | - Refugees & Migration                   | - Sport Law                              |
4.1. Three Dimensions of Sports Policy Over Time

The first set of questions related to perceptions of the relative importance of three key policy dimensions in the past, present, and future: political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions. The results for the different expert groups are shown below. Scores represent weighted averages within the group, with a maximum score of seven (see Figure 2).

There was a clear variation in responses, both between groups and across the time periods, although this is a difference in degree, rather than a difference in kind. Not surprisingly, ratings of the importance of the dimensions of EU sports policy are generally high. While groups differed in specific assessments, there was a clear pattern in which each of the three dimensions was judged to take on increasing importance over time (see Figure 3). The findings from this part of the study are quite consistent and point towards a gradual increase in the perceived importance of all three dimensions over time.

![Figure 2: Importance of the three dimensions over time – by group](image-url)
4.2. Relevance and Importance of EU institutions

Stakeholders were asked about their perceptions of the relevance and importance of different institutions connected with the EU. Those bodies were:

- European Commission
- European Parliament
- Council (of Ministers)
- European Council
- Committee of Regions
- European Economic and Social Committee

Again, participants’ responses were rated using a seven-point Likert scale, with analysis using weighted averages to take into account the relative strength of responses. The findings are separated according to their timeframe for clarity.

As can be seen in the Figure below, there is a broadly similar pattern of responses, both between groups and over time. Overall, the **EU Commission was rated the most relevant and important for EU sports policy across the period** being considered, followed by the Council of Ministers, the EU Parliament, and the EU Council. The Committee of the Regions and the European Economic and Social Committee received the lowest overall scores. All EU institutions were attributed with increasing relevance and importance from the past, to the present, and into the future.

Differences between groups may be partially explainable by their differing remits and contexts of experience with the EU bodies. Most of the groups attributed relative relevance and importance to the EU Commission and the EU Parliament. The Council of Ministers was only rated highly by the EU Representatives (see Figure 4).
4.3. Contact with EU institutions and bodies

Unsurprisingly, the respondents associated with the EU reported far more recent contact with EU institutions and bodies than those associated with other stakeholder groups. Patterns of interaction with the EU were fairly consistent across the other stakeholder groups, although representatives of ENGSO and the European Sports Associations reported more frequent interactions with the EU Commission (see Figure 5).

Figure 4: Relevance and Importance of EU Institutions - By Groups and Aggregated Results
Aggregated responses give a clearer picture of stakeholders’ interactions with specific EU institutions. Using a three-point scale of ‘Never’ (scored with ‘0’) – ‘Occasionally’ (scored with ‘1’) – and ‘Regularly’ (scored with ‘2’) the aggregated mean responses of all stakeholders are as follows (see Table 3):

Table 3: Frequency of contact with EU Institutions and Bodies – aggregated mean responses (0 – 2 scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Body</th>
<th>Mean Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Parliament</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council (of Ministers)</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee of Regions</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Council</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Economic and Social Committee</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The European Commission was the institution with which the participants had the most contact. Since this group of stakeholders included people whose professional work involved daily liaison with the EU, and who consequently gave the highest rating for most EU bodies, it seems reasonable to suppose that many of the other individuals and groups contributing to the survey have minimal or no interaction with the EU on a regular basis.
4.4. Relevance and Importance of Political Sectors over Time

During the first round of data-gathering, stakeholders were invited to select the ‘most important’ sectors (past, present, future) for sports policy in Europe from a list of 30 categories derived from academic literature associated with EU sports policy. Weighted averages of the total sample of stakeholders were calculated (so the highest-rated answers were weighted more heavily than a simple mean in analysis) and the most commonly chosen sectors for each time phase (15 for ‘past’ and ‘future’; 16 for ‘present’, due to two sectors receiving the same score) were identified (Table 4).

These results were the findings of the first stage of the consensus-gathering process of the Delphi study. It can be noted that ‘Sport for all’ and ‘Health and well-being / Recreational sport’ revealed to be the highest-rated sectors during the first round. This process was then repeated in round two, revealing a refined and shortened list of sectors (see Table 5 & Table 6) judged to be most important for EU sports policy. In both rounds, the selection opportunities were ordered alphabetically rather than by topic. The ordering used in the survey of round two was, again, merely alphabetical, and no assumptions would be made about this order. This was necessary for the second round of the consensus exercise, as it was considered important for the validity of the study that stakeholders approached the list afresh.

Before looking closer at aggregated results, it is worthwhile to look closer at the results of two stakeholder groups that can be considered as most familiarised with EU Sport Policy: academic experts and EU representatives. As Figure 6 shows, the only sports policy sectors remaining relevant over time (past – future) for these two groups are ‘Health and well-being / Recreational sport’. ‘Physical activity and physical education’ and ‘Youth development’ are considered to be very relevant in the future, while ‘Free movement of professionals’, ‘Doping’ and ‘White paper/EU PA guidelines/monitoring PA indicators’ are no longer on the top of the future priorities. ‘Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups’ and – obviously – ‘COVID-19’ are new sectors considered relevant in the future.

When looking at the aggregated results for all groups (Figure 7), the changes over time (past – future) seem less strong. The most relevant sectors in the past (‘Physical Activity and Physical Education’, ‘Sport for all’ and ‘Health and well-being / Recreational sport’) remain among the top-ranked sectors in the future, and ‘COVID-19’ is the only new sector ranking very high. Further on, ‘Sport mega events’ and ‘White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators’ lose most in relevance between past and future.

As can be seen in Table 5, the present priority topics according to the participating groups differ slightly. Out of 15 topics, 10 are on the current top-5 agenda of one or more groups. While Doping and Human rights issues are only of high importance for Sport Organisations, several topics have Top-5 relevance for four groups each; Sport for all, Health and well-being /Recreational sport, Safeguarding of children /protection of children, Youth development.

Generally, the selection of priority topics can be seen as a reflection of the beforesmentioned rising importance of sports policy issues for mass participation. The prioritisation of EU Representatives and Experts with an EU sports policy background show that this trend is not unnoticed and grassroots sports, social inclusion as well as PA_PE rank high.

Additionally, it can be observed that the COVID-19 pandemic has quickly reached the agenda of all participant groups, especially those directly connected to the base and dedicated to mass participation (Sport Organisations, Sport Associations, and ENGSO).
Table 4: Rated Sports Sectors over the Past, Present, and Future EU Sports Policy Periods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>PAST</th>
<th>PRESENT</th>
<th>FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Physical Activity and Physical Education</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
<td>Physical Activity and Physical Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Doping</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sport mega-events</td>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sport Law</td>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
<td>Human rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>Corruption / Sport betting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Corruption / Sport betting</td>
<td>Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Physical activity and Physical Education</td>
<td>Sport mega-events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Sport facility building</td>
<td>Sport facility building</td>
<td>Regional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Free Movement for professionals</td>
<td>White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators</td>
<td>Sport and safety environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>Doping</td>
<td>Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>Violence / Racism / Homophobia</td>
<td>Sport facility building</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6: Past and Future Importance of Sectors - Experts and EU Representatives

Figure 7: Past and Future Importance of Sectors - All Groups
Table 5: Most relevant sports policy sectors of the present – by Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport Organisations (n=33)</th>
<th>Sport Associations (n=25)</th>
<th>ENGSO (n=22)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 COVID-19</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Youth development</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Human rights (children, women, athletes)</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Doping</td>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Representatives (n=5)</th>
<th>Sport Policy Experts (n=29)</th>
<th>EUPEA (n=51))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Social inclusion</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>Physical activity and Physical Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Grass root sports</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Sport for all</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Physical activity and Physical Education</td>
<td>Physical activity and Physical Education</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall, ranked results of the second round for this collection of questions, based on the aggregated responses of all stakeholder groups, are presented in Table 6, below. However, as discussed above, it is important to acknowledge that there was a significant variation in responses among the different stakeholder groups, as they follow various priorities in the field of EU sports policy. Compare, for example, the top-three ranked sectors in the past (Sport for all; Physical Activity and Physical Education; Health and well-being / Recreational sport), present (Sport for all; Health and well-being / Recreational sport; COVID-19), and future (Health and well-being / Recreational sport; Physical Activity and Physical Education; COVID-19 & Youth development). The presence of COVID-19 is predictable. Presumably, the changing priorities over time reflect stakeholders’ interpretations of policy development in Europe, mediated by their professional and organisational missions and their dealings with the EU and its bodies.

The progressively iterative mechanism within the Delphi method works to find consensus within such variation, and the following list should therefore be considered valid and accurate. Nevertheless, it is always worthwhile remembering that any aggregated results can conceal between-group differences in responses.
### Table 6: Sectors Relevant for Sports Policy in the EU (Round 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>PAST</th>
<th>PRESENT</th>
<th>FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
<td>COVID-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td>Sport for all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators</td>
<td>Physical activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)</td>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Human rights (children, women, athletes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5. Additional Sectors

Stakeholders were invited to identify any additional sectors that had not already been presented. The resultant answers are presented below in the form of the word cloud (Figure 8). Words in a darker and larger font, and towards the centre of the image, are those with the greatest frequency of responses.

As can be seen, ‘environment’ was mentioned most frequently by stakeholders. Related themes included the importance of sustainability, climate change, and the Green Deal. Other popular themes included the ‘European Sport Model’, ‘Innovation’ (within the context of modernisation), ‘Values’ (in the sense of Olympic values or values education in schools), and ‘Children’ (both within the context of schools, and in general).

Suggestions for additional sectors mentioned above were not part of the main consent to study and reflect individual perspectives. Nevertheless, they do offer some interesting insights into the topics that are occupying some stakeholders in the EU.
4.6. Relevant Organisations and Federations

Stakeholders were also invited to name organisations, federations, and/or associations they considered particularly important from the perspective of European sports policy and politics. This resulted in approximately 100 named organisations. The majority of these nominations received only one mention, and were consequently removed as there was no evidence of shared recognition in this context. This meant that many organisations that might have been considered centrally important to the development of EU sports policy, such as WHO, WADA, UNESCO, UNICEF, as well as almost all of the leading international sport umbrella bodies, are not evident in the following final list:

- ENGSO
- EUPEA
- FIFA
- IOC
- ISCA
- UEFA

Considering the large number of organisations initially suggested by stakeholders, the final list, made up of organisations mentioned more than once, is surprisingly short. The presence of EUPEA and ISCA on this short-list might be partly explained by their roles as expert groups within the study, although this is unlikely to account for extent of the references, as both groups are essentially umbrella organisations, with member organisations that are also associated with agencies that are not mentioned.

EUPEA received the largest number of nominations from the groups (16), followed by the IOC (11). EU-based bodies were suggested by nine stakeholders, although the wording of the question implicitly
directed responses regarding non-governmental organisations. FIFA and UEFA were, perhaps, surprising additions to the list, as they are single-sport associations with remit not primarily associated with the full range of EU sports policy concerns. Their nominations were presumably due to the fact that the study sample included stakeholders heavily involved with mega-events. ISCA was the sole global sports organisation included in the list, and the absence of other multi-national agencies of this type is noteworthy, especially since almost all of them are based in Europe.

4.7. Interim Conclusions from the Delphi survey

187 individuals from seven different stakeholder groups participated in the first round of this study; 183 took part in the second round. The importance of the dimensions of EU sports policy was generally highly rated and, while groups differed in specific evaluations, the findings from this part of the study pointed towards a gradual increase in the perceived importance of all three dimensions over time. These findings might reflect a growing sense that sport, in its different manifestations, is taking an increasingly important position in European policy-making. Alternatively, the participants, who are involved in either a professional or voluntary way in sport, might be expressing an implicit expectation that EU policymakers are going to address the sectors relevant for stakeholders more fully in the future.

The European Commission was rated as the most relevant and important of the different institutions connected with the EU across the period being considered (past, present, and future). The Council of Ministers, the EP, and the European Council formed the next group of institutions in terms of relevance and importance, with the Committee of the Regions and the European Economic and Social Committee receiving the lowest overall scores. Many of the survey participants reported having minimal regular interaction with the EU, except for ENGSO and the sporting associations with the European Commission, as well as the representatives associated with the EU in general. This suggests that there is a need for EU policymakers to develop better strategies for communicating and collaborating with key stakeholders, both to share relevant information and learn their experiences at different levels of policy implementation.

Certain sectors stand out as being considered especially important by participating stakeholders, with considerable variation of responses between groups. This variation seems to be determined by the contexts in which different stakeholder groups operate. For example, EU Representatives placed great importance on governance and associated themes, such as ‘corruption/sports betting’, ‘Doping’, or ‘White Paper/EU PA guidelines/monitoring PA indicators’. Individuals associated with ENGSO and EUPEA and the (academic) expert respondents placed more importance on the sectors related to participation, such as ‘Physical activity and physical education’, ‘Sport for all’, and ‘Youth development’. Other highly rated sectors included ‘White paper/EU PA guidelines/monitoring PA indicators’ (Experts and ENGSO representatives) and ‘Health and well-being / Recreational sport’ (Experts and EUPEA).

‘Sport for all’ and ‘Health and well-being / Recreational sport’ stood out as the highest-rated sectors during the first round of the survey. ‘Youth Development’ and especially ‘Physical activity and Physical Education’ were also highly rated by the participants. These results were confirmed in the second round, except for ‘Sport for all’ which was considered less important for the future. An interesting result of the second round is the placement of ‘Safeguarding of children / protection of children’, which was rated relevant for the present day, but less so for the future. COVID-19 emerged as a priority area during both rounds of the survey, providing a vivid example of how unexpected events have the potential to impact perceptions of political priorities.
‘Environment’ was identified as the most frequently cited additional sector. Related themes included the importance of sustainability, climate change, and the Green Deal. These additional sectors, representing some transversal elements of general EU Policy, offer some insight into the topics occupying the thoughts of some stakeholders in the EU.

Approximately 100 organisations were identified by the respondents as particularly important from the perspective of European sports policy and politics. Interestingly, this list did include many organisations that have been highly active in areas related to EU sports policy. Thus, WHO, WADA, UNESCO, UNICEF, as well as almost all of the leading international sport umbrella bodies, are not evident in the short-list. EUPEA received the largest number of nominations, followed by the IOC and EU-based bodies. Only one global sports organisation was included in the list, namely ISCA. The absence of other agencies of this type is somewhat surprising, especially since almost all of them are based in Europe. However, it might simply be that many of the organisations working in sport in Europe represent and work with different stakeholder communities, leaving a relatively small group of especially influential organisations.
5. CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES: SCENARIOS FOR EU SPORT POLITICS AND POLICIES

5.1. General Conclusions: Growth and Differentiation

Since the 1980s and especially the 1990s, the increasing intersections between sport and the European Community/EU’s common market, and the growing social importance of sport have led to the gradual emergence of a European dimension of sport. From the outset, European sports politics is characterised on the one hand by a great potential for tension between the traditional autonomy of sport and the general validity of Commission or EU law. Organised sport, in particular, could not claim a fundamentally special role within the EU framework with its own regulatory mechanisms and was consequently faced with new challenges. On the other hand, European sports policy is also characterised by the joint request of Member States, EU institutions and national sporting organisations as well European sporting federations to support measures at European level promoting a social, health and educational dimension of sport. It is essentially due to these developments that sport came to be included in the declarations of Amsterdam and Nice in the 1990s and 2000s and finally enshrined in primary law in the Constitutional Treaty and the Lisbon Treaty. The cornerstones of these two different paths are the entry into force of the common market (end of 1992) and the Bosman ruling (1995) as well as the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty (2009) and the Article 165 TFEU on sport.

On this basis, sport at European level has undergone significant changes over the past decades. In summary, the development of European sports politics and policies can be described by various trends of growth and differentiation:

1) **Actor-related differentiation:** The increase and differentiation of actors characterise the emergence of a European dimension of sport. Whereas for a long time only European sporting federations were concerned with sport at European level, today a wide range of public and private actors is involved in the organisation of sport. The extent of change can be seen in the EU institutions, which have expanded their sports-related resources or – like the Council – have established structures in the field of sport for the first time. Along with public authorities structures, a larger number of specialised private organisations in sport has also been established at European level. In addition to the orientation of umbrella organisations and federations, which are mainly based in Switzerland, and the focus on the nation-state, sports politics and policies are now also carried out at European level. Stakeholders in sport devote their attention – to varying degrees – to policy-making in Brussels to participate actively in the European policy cycle there. Meanwhile, a growing number of institutional ‘players’ in the European multi-level system can be expected to play an increasing role in sport. They strive for direct or indirect opportunities to participate in shaping sports politics in general and individual fields of sport in particular.

2) **Policy differentiation:** In addition to the number of actors, a growth of policies, as well as sectoral differentiation, can be identified as a second central feature of European sports politics. In the beginning, there were only a few sport policies addressed at European level. Today, there are hardly any sports-related areas that are not covered by activities at European level. A key indicator of this sectoral differentiation is the now almost unmanageable volume of documents and opinions on European sports policy. The individual policy areas in sport are subject to specific characteristics and different constellations of actors so that only limited general statements can be made about the content dimension of sport development in an overarching
perspective. The mainstreaming of sport into other policy fields remains an important requirement. The resolution of the EP ‘on an integrated approach to sports policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity’, adopted by the EP in February 2017, documents this sectoral differentiation and the attempts for better coordination and a more holistic view.

3) **Procedural differentiation:** The increasing activities at European level and the growing number of actors involved have led to a widening procedural differentiation in sports politics. More and more actors with more varied interests have led to an increasing complexity in procedures and possibilities for participation in decision-making on sport. The struggle for voice and access and the demand to participate in different forms and intensities in and around the EU policy cycle marks a continuing trend in recent years. The growing importance of sport at EU level is reflected in the dialogue between EU institutions and sporting federations: Regular meetings and exchanges (i.e. EU Sport Forum, expert groups and a so-called ‘structured dialogue’) play a key role in the development of European sports policy. Organised sport is increasingly orienting its structures towards the European level and is specifically seeking access to the EU institutions.

4) **Member States commitment:** The Member States, which were initially not very receptive to the transfer of competences on sport to the European level, have recognised in several ways the benefits of Europe wide coordination of public interests in sport, beyond the direct access of the federations. Accordingly, they are constructively engaged in European sports policy, particularly within the Council. National interests play a role, but they have not yet led to blockade policies. Instead, Member States at least partially have committed to EU recommendations on a legislative level by implementing national laws referring to sports-related issues. Council presidencies reveal different priorities of Member States. However, with the trio presidency, the main agenda is largely determined and the possibility to focus on specific national interests has become minimised. The actors in sport are no longer just limited to the nation state, but rather devote their attention - to varying degrees - to EU policy-making to participate actively in the decision-making process in sports policy. This characteristic of a growing and increased sensitivity for the European level of sport marks a continuing trend that has become even more intense in recent years.

5) **Inter-institutional cooperation:** The interaction between the Council, the Commission and Parliament on sports policy has become more structured, yet there is still a lack of regular cooperation. While Parliament initiates debates and the Commission represents the working level, the Council embodies the new centre of gravity with the expert groups it has set up. Nevertheless, many observers have suggested that there is less concerted inter-institutional cooperation in sport compared to other policy areas.

6) **On-going debates on the role, function and character of physical activity and sport:** Statistics such as the special Eurobarometer on sport show that the informal dimension of sport has high relevance given the number of people that practice sport in a park, at home or on the way between work and home. While informal sport participation is growing, organised sport in Europe faces several challenges: It has to compete for members due to changes in work and leisure, to cope with structural and demographic challenges, to respond to increased demands and to react to unforeseen situations such as the refugee crisis or the COVID-19 pandemic.

7) **Contesting the European sport model:** In light of the International Skating Union (ISU) decision of the European Commission and the most recent related ruling of the ECJ, the debate on the future of European sport is an on-going controversial topic. The ISU decision has been
seen as an attack aimed at the monopoly of sporting federations and associations. The sports sector wants to uphold its traditional autonomy and highlights its specificity based on the principles of solidarity, inclusivity and voluntary work. The sports sector also opposes attempts to use EU competition law to undermine the monopoly of sporting associations organising sport events and tournaments as well as coordinating the sports calendar. Moreover, professional sport is challenged by doping, match-fixing, and corruption scandals. As a consequence, sports politics in recent years has been shaped by the debates on good governance and integrity in organised sport, closely linked to debates about the legitimacy and integrity of organised sport.

8) **Conflicts between sporting federations and commercial/special-interest groups:** The conflict between autonomy and intervention in sport continues to be the dominant characteristic of EU sports politics, as said above. In this context, a fissure seems to have emerged in the relationship between the interests of traditional (non-profit) sporting organisations on the one hand and commercial providers in sport on the other. Organised sport is increasingly justifying its specific role, which has always been emphasised by the argument that it provides essential services for the development of sport and society, while this does not necessarily apply to the same extent to commercial providers.

9) **No uniform participatory strategies:** Even though the increased attention paid to sport at European level has led to a central commonality among the actors, this does not result in uniform reaction patterns and adaptation processes. From their own representation in Brussels to cooperation across sports disciplines, the actors have different strategies for participation. In particular, the activities of the sporting associations neither follow a certain type of model nor are there signs of mergers. As a result, statements about ‘optimal’ models of adaptation and participation are of limited value. Also, the extent of adoptions of institutional or procedural elements from other Member States of the EU is limited so far. While the incorporation of sport in the EU treaties has given new dynamic to sports policy, the actors involved are still looking for suitable forms of consultation and coordination to take adequate account of the interests in a growing field.

10) **Constant changes:** The scope of fields for action and the financial opportunities offered to the actors under primary and secondary law results in considerable system dynamics. European sports policy is neither fixed in institutional and procedural nor in sectoral perspectives but is subject to on-going changes. A comparison of the changes in sports policy in recent years at European level with those at the nation states level reveals a clear asymmetry. The scope and depth of changes at European level are much more pronounced than those at national level in sport.

The key trends of European sports politics summarised here are of fundamental importance for the shaping of European sports policy in the future. At the same time, they mark the framework for the specific activities of the **European Parliament** in European sports policy: While the EP has no formal power to initiate legislative proposals, it is nevertheless **able to shape the EU policy arena by other means**. In 1983, the ECJ confirmed, that the EP is entitled ‘to discuss any question concerning the communities, to adopt resolutions on such questions and to invite the governments to act’. Against this backdrop, the EP has become the body that laid essential foundations for dealing with sport in the 1970s and 1980s and raised public attention for sports issues. Since then, Parliament has repeatedly provided thematic and symbolic inputs as incentives to **agenda-setting, through its resolutions and**
questions towards the European Commission and also with studies it commissioned. For instance, in the mid of the 2000s, an EP comparative study on the state and status of physical education was launched and widely accepted (Hardman, 2007). As stated in chapter 2 of this study in view of the resolutions and documents of the EP, there have also been warnings about game manipulation in European professional football, a call for action in the fields of ‘transfers of minors’ and ‘players’ agents’. Furthermore, the EP gave a major impetus for the EWoS. However, critical voices have increasingly stated that the EP has to increase its activities to maintain its influence in anchoring the European dimension of sport in public awareness through hearings and debates as well as policy initiatives and statements.

5.2. Options for the Future: Scenarios for the future of European sports politics and its parliamentary dimension

The presentation of future options on European sports politics and policies in general as well as on its parliamentary dimension is linked to four scenarios, which refer to the future development of the EU. These models are focused on the European level, and form one of those links which demonstrate the EU as a dynamic multi-level system. In other words, they should also be regarded with a view of the effects on Member States and the national and subnational levels of sport organisation. The outline of these scenarios is primarily deduced from systematic reflections on European integration (i.e., Bartonlini, 2005; Diedrichs, Reiners & Wessels, 2011; Hix & Hoyland, 2011; Dinan, 2014; Wallace, Pollack & Young, 2014). Scenarios are in some way heuristic and ideal-types and do not gain subsistence in this distinct manner. However, scenarios or models might prove helpful to classify the wide-ranging approaches of the debate. Based on these scenarios, possible options for institutional arrangements as well as revised procedures will be discussed and offered (Schäfer-Nerlich & Wessels, 2019).

5.2.1. Short term – the »status quo«-scenario

The first scenario is based on the continuation of the status quo for sports politics and policies. It is expected that, given the challenges for a treaty revision and the numerous veto players, there will be no fundamental changes in the primary legal framework of the EU. Accordingly, sport will remain at European level with purely supportive competences. For the shaping of future European sports policy, this would have the consequence that activities would continue to be operated within the framework of Article 165 primarily relating to the social, educational and integrative function of sport. As a consequence, it can be assumed that measures will continue to be primarily distributive. At the same time, however, it can also be expected that interventions in professional sport will continue to take place via common market legislation.

Reform options for the future are based on the current legal framework and operate on an informal level. According to this scenario it can be assumed that incremental adjustments and adaptions will be made rather than fundamental changes. These include interinstitutional arrangements and soft power policy tools as well as intra-institutional reforms (i.e., rules of procedure). Although other intrastate actors participate in the negotiations at European level, arrangements remain primarily institutionalised in Member States.

5.2.2. Medium-term – the »gradual communitarisation«-model

A second scenario refers to a process of gradual communitarisation. It is based on the community method that is considered as a prolongation of the current largely functional path of integration. The theoretical background of the community method scenario is relying on the idea of a functional, institutional and procedural spill-over: a process which refers ‘to a situation in which a given action,
related to a specific goal, creates a situation (in) which the original goal can be assured only by taking further actions, which in turn create a further condition and need for more action, and so forth’ (Lindberg, 1963: 10). In light of this approach, spill-over processes may provide the EU institutions with additional powers for shaping outputs in sport that become binding for Member States. Nevertheless, it remains to be seen whether the Member States as Master of Treaties will be ready to shift further sports-related competences to the European level when it gets to a treaty revision.

Following this scenario, the scale of options will vary considerably, particularly due to the very heterogeneous positions of the EU Member States. From the assumptions of this school of thought, we could expect that competences in some sports-related fields such as social and educational policy might be further increased. It can be expected that qualified majority voting will even become the preferred voting procedure in these sports politics after a Treaty revision. However, other dimensions such as health in line with anti-doping activities may remain outside. While the range of activities might be increased by communitarisation, legitimacy may decrease due to the sharing of activities between the national and the European level.

5.2.3. Long term – the »supranational« scenario

The third scenario assumes a move towards the idea of a European constitution with supranational structures in the field of sport. It is a long-term vision that would require fundamental and complete reforms that lead finally to a common European sports politics. Such a scenario would include a clear division of competences, a decentralisation of power, and an institutional structure with an equivalent two-chamber system and an elected government.

This supranational scenario assumes that the overall dynamics of the EU system and the difficulties of the present institutions and procedures will create sufficient incentives for the heads of government to take a decisive step towards some kind of supranational set of regulations for running sport. From the assumptions of this school of thought, we could expect that Member States’ institutions and actors will become increasingly marginalised and substituted by EU bodies. With a particular view on sport, national sporting organisations will be transformed from arenas for national actors into European actors replacing national influence. Each further change of the Treaties would increase the role of both supranational institutions and European sporting organisations while the veto powers of Member States and national sport organisation vanishes. The behavioural pattern of the Council of Ministers would be dominated by articles, which would allow for qualified majority voting. The evolution of a ‘true will’ of the European people’ and the desired path to a federal union would therefore require a considerable increase of the Parliament’s rights and powers. Federalism assumes a legitimate supranational order, in which the EP formulates far-reaching policy agendas, articulates ideals and brokers strategies for the deepening of the integration process. The EP would thus become a relevant actor or even the key institution in the constitutional set-up of the future European sports politics.

In this perspective, the third scenario portrays a trend towards further federalisation and ever-closer political cooperation in sports politics at European level. More policy sectors will be included, both in professional and amateur sport. A principal federalist scenario can be adapted in view of the specificities of sport: instead of having the dual legitimacy of a Union of states and a Union of peoples, we may expect a dual legitimacy of public and private authorities at European level. Thus, democratic participation (and, consequently, legitimacy) can be achieved primarily at the supranational level, with more substantial institutional involvement of sporting organisations.
A federal EU seems to be far from realistic at present, but this scenario does prove helpful, as some of the supranational elements are part of the wider discussions and can be incorporated while not embracing the final idea of a federation.

5.2.4. **Spill-back – the »re-self-governance«-scenario**

Given the on-going centrifugal forces within the EU, the possibility of regression or even a dissolution of the EU is not entirely ruled out. This would have consequences for sports politics and policies. If the structures of the EU were to be eroded, the sports-related structures at European level would no longer be supported by the existing legal framework. As a result, a renationalisation of European sports policy is imminent, since the competence lies exclusively with the nation-states and, within this framework, will be borne much more than before exclusively by the sporting organisations. While such a scenario would open up greater flexibility and room for manoeuvre for national sporting associations, on the one hand, there would be fewer financial resources available on the other, and thus fewer opportunities to strengthen the social and educational dimension of sport at European level.

These four scenarios have a practical impact since they are primarily based on the extensive discussions on the future of the EU which have been fostered by both incremental adaptations and structural reforms and might be developed by the Conference on the Future of Europe that was proposed by the European Commission and the European Parliament at the end of 2019.

Considering the largely accepted perception that differentiation has become the new normal in the EU, it is an important task to explore its future. Based on the empirical results of this study and the four scenarios above, possible options for institutional arrangements as well as potential revised procedures will be discussed and offered in the final chapter of this study. It will be reflected whether, how much and what form of differentiation is not only compatible with but is also conducive to a more supported, legitimate, effective, and innovative European sports politics.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECTS / TARGETS / PURPOSES</th>
<th>SCENARIOS</th>
<th>Adapted Status Quo ‘Treaytisation’</th>
<th>Gradual Communitarisation</th>
<th>Supranational Structures</th>
<th>Re-Nationalisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>time span</td>
<td></td>
<td>short term</td>
<td>medium term</td>
<td>long term</td>
<td>no competences at EU level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>supportive competences</td>
<td>shared competences</td>
<td>exclusive EU competences</td>
<td>Council 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private sport organisation at EU level</td>
<td>slight increase at European level</td>
<td>growth at EU and national level</td>
<td>increase at European level</td>
<td>decrease at European level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role of CULT Committee</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘forum’ with limited number of debates on sport</td>
<td>‘expert/advocate’ shaping and guiding major debates on sport</td>
<td>‘co-player’ regularly participating in decision-making on sport</td>
<td>‘observer’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>key instruments</td>
<td></td>
<td>distributive politics and recommendations</td>
<td>distributive and partly regulative politics</td>
<td>distributive and regulative politics</td>
<td>communication on sport</td>
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<tr>
<td>politics style</td>
<td></td>
<td>soft politics</td>
<td>hard and soft politics</td>
<td>hard politics</td>
<td>soft politics</td>
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<tr>
<td>focus</td>
<td></td>
<td>social and educational function</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>financial setting</td>
<td></td>
<td>limited (primarily programmes)</td>
<td>increased expenditures</td>
<td>Full-fledged sport budget</td>
<td>no budget on sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooperation among EU institutions</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>medium / depending on issue at stake</td>
<td>high / depending on issue at stake</td>
<td>low</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role of Member States</td>
<td></td>
<td>high</td>
<td>medium (via Council)</td>
<td>high (via Council)</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree of public aware-ness for sport at EU level</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree of efficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td>medium – limited activities but clear distribution of activities</td>
<td>low – increased activities but no clear accountability</td>
<td>high – increased activities/ potentially stronger accountability</td>
<td>high – clear responsibilities at national level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree of legitimacy</td>
<td></td>
<td>low – due to limited competences</td>
<td>low – due to shared responsibilities</td>
<td>high awareness for input and output</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree of innovation</td>
<td></td>
<td>low</td>
<td>high – strong competition and substantial financial incentives</td>
<td>high – strong competition and substantial financial incentives</td>
<td>low – no incentives from European level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. RECOMMENDATIONS: REFINE, REFORM, REMODEL AND REVIEW

6.1. Twelve key recommendations at a glance

Based on the findings of this study, four core areas with recommendations for the future of European sports policy have been identified. The heading ‘refine’ relates to the area of a stronger awareness for a holistic approach, ‘reform’ concerns the policy areas, ‘remodel’ the role of the EP in particular, and ‘review’ addresses the need for a stronger information base.

The first area covers the need to revise the field in view of an awareness for a more holistic approach. In the past decade, after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon, European sports politics and policies have been fundamentally redefined and further developed. However, this ongoing differentiation has not led to greater visibility and efficiency and thus has not improved the (output) legitimacy of European sports policy. Against this background, it seems necessary to strive for structural adjustments in the sense of a general refinement that is addressed in the first core area.

The second area is aimed at the policy fields. Even though only rudimentary overarching recommendations for action can be made here and each field deserves to be dealt with in its own right (which cannot be done within the framework of this overview study), the corresponding proposals are intended to underpin the importance of each field. This study proposes to not only further consider the scope of EU sport policies but also to pay particular attention to the four pillars: integrity, physical activity, health and education.

The third area addresses the parliamentary perspective and the role of the EP. With regard to public support for policies, parliaments are consistently assigned an important function. As legislators, parliaments do not only have a decision-making function, but as places of interest, negotiation and communication, they also represent the public interest and ensure responsiveness – this applies in principle to sports policy as well. At the European level, the EP is the only directly elected institution with similar functions. Although the EP is not characterised to the same extent by the dualism of government and opposition party groups, given the peculiarities of the EU system, and although there is a lack of transnational media and communication, the EP plays an essential role in public perception.

Finally, the fourth problem area encompasses the necessity to create the basis for successful, further development of European sports policy in a lasting and sustainable manner by regularly monitoring and evaluating the activities. This ‘review’ will serve to expand and broaden the knowledge and information base, especially if all Member States are included in the studies.

For each of the four core areas listed here, three central conclusions and recommendations for action are proposed below. Since this primarily addresses overarching aspects, detailed recommendations are subsequently made in chapters 6.2.1. to 6.2.4. for each area, taking into account the degree of sports policy development that has already been achieved at European level. Finally, in view of the range of policy fields dealt with in the third chapter of this study, a supplementary list of specialised policy field recommendations can be found in Annex 1: Sector-based policy recommendations.

6.1.1. Refine – Coordination

An indispensable basis for recommendations is a multi-perspective approach that considers both state/public and associations/private actors. Both are important for understanding EU sports politics and policies. Closely related to this is the question of future modes of interaction. In addition to a
growing number of specific policy-related questions, debates on European sports politics are focusing on the fundamental question of the channels of coordination in sport at European level. Since these claims are pertinent, it must be borne in mind that sports politics needs ‘refining’.

1) Holistic approach and mainstreaming: There is a lack of holistic monitoring of sport at European level and the actions of the various actors appear to be fragmented. An ever-increasing level of specialisation describes the way sport is perceived and the processes of interest negotiations, as well as the way in which the actions of the various stakeholders and the decision-making processes are characterised. As a result, sports policy lacks coherence. It is therefore advisable to place the individual activities in sport in a broader context and to adopt a more holistic approach as previously suggested in the White Paper on Sport in 2007. Such an approach may be ensured by embedding sport in general political, economic and social development strategies and by exploiting broader cross-sectoral linkages. It seems indispensable to formulate real sports policy objectives when for instance — public health, education or green agenda policies are concerned — in order to ensure further mainstreaming of sport.

2) Strengthening cooperation at European level: A key recommendation is to improve coordination. Both intra and inter-institutional cooperation must be enhanced. For instance, considering the economic dimension of sport, the cooperation between DG EAC and DG EMPL as well as between the EP standing committees CULT and EMPL should be fostered to promote employability. Regular and focused meetings on sport should be held at all levels in the institutions – chair and working level – with a view to greater exchange of information and better decision-making. There should also be greater consultation with sporting federations and specialist stakeholders in sport as well as with Member States. The instruments of the ‘Group of interested Member States’ and ‘peer learning activities’ referred to in the most recent work plan may offer opportunities which have not yet been sufficiently explored.

3) Reflecting the organisation of sport in Europe: The organisation of sport in Europe is mainly based on the activities of clubs and associations that provide a considerable degree of commitment to the common good at various levels. Despite the diversity of this European dimension in individual countries and sports, support should continue to be given to organised sport to secure principles such as uniform competition, solidarity between young people, amateur and professional sports and a sustainable value-based sports system. Despite the detailed discussions that have already taken place on this matter, the characteristics of the European dimension of sport need to be clarified. The EU institutions should – individually or jointly – initiate a long-term and comprehensive debate on these principles, for example by establishing an ‘enquete-commission’, where experts, stakeholders and civil society representatives exchange views to guide public discourse and decision-making in complex areas.

6.1.2. Reform – Prioritisation

In addition to structural measures, the European dimension of sport also has to focus on specific policy priorities. Considering the variety of fields, these sports policy priorities require critical consideration both in terms of objectives, such as public support and legitimacy, and criteria, such as efficiency and innovation. Against the backdrop of the Delphi study, proposals for a ‘reform’ of priorities are made in view of the policy dimensions addressed in this study, including the current problems:
1) **Protecting integrity**: The key focus of the political dimension is aimed at strengthening the integrity of sport. The success of future European sports policy is based on general acceptance. Sport-related activities should be supported by large parts of the European population. Only a certain standard of integrity will ensure the support for and the special characteristics of existing forms of sporting organisations in Europe in the long run.

2) **Promoting physical activity**: Regardless of whether club sport, grassroots sport or informal sport is addressed, the goal of including all people in sports and physical activity should be a central maxim of European sports policy. If the EU wants to achieve a comprehensive sports policy approach, these categories have to be considered from a more integral perspective. Based on the definition of the previous Commission High-Level Group on Grassroots Sport, a new cross-sectoral high-level group for the integration of the cross-sectors of ‘health, education, social inclusion, informal learning, skill development, volunteering, economic dimension, sustainable financing, urban planning and infrastructure’ should be established.

3) **Preparing an action plan in view of COVID-19**: The activities currently being undertaken to cope with the tremendous challenges caused by the COVID-19 pandemic would seem poorly defined, albeit swiftly enacted. Compiling a timely overview summarising sports-related activities in Member States and documenting which of the measures already taken at European level are relevant to sport is highly recommended. On the basis of the EU recovery programme ‘NextGenerationEU’, an action plan should be drawn up listing tangible support mechanisms in the field of sport.

### 6.1.3. Remodel – Parliamentarisation

The EP has been an important facilitator for the emergence of sport at European level, but its role is not as clear as in former times. Against this background, the EP should reinvent its role in sports politics and, as a first step, embrace the possibilities it has to strengthen the policy field inside Parliament and, subsequently, actively initiate discussions with the Commission and the Council, particularly in those sectors where these two institutions have not promoted a more pronounced vision. The following key points provide perspectives for ‘remodelling’ the role of the EP:

1) **Increasing the involvement of the CULT Committee in sports politics**: The EP’s CULT Committee should play a key role in shaping sports policy. As this committee covers an extensive range of policy fields, the agenda of the committee should be revised to provide a more efficient way of coping with the heavy workload. Taking into consideration the committee meeting agendas over the past years, it appears that sport does not have the highest priority and importance. There have been years where sport seemed to be even marginalised on the agenda, as shown by MEPs’ written questions and answers thereto. The CULT Committee may improve the performance in sports politics by placing sports-related items on the agenda more often. This could be achieved by increasing the frequency of committee sessions to enable sporting and sports-related issues to be dealt with more often. Substantial reflections on sport as well as improved in-depth insights may only be possible if work on sporting issues becomes a substantial element of the day-to-day work of the committee. Organising one or two committee sessions a year exclusively dedicated to sport could be an alternative option.

2) **Improving vertical cooperation**: In addition to increased cooperation at the committee and working level in the European area, cooperation with national parliaments must also be improved. For example, joint sectoral meetings could be held with MEPs and members of the
EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

sport committees of national parliaments. Regular meetings of chairpersons and rapporteurs (as well as shadow rapporteurs) could also be considered.

3) Advancing cooperation with sporting organisations: Even though the EP regularly holds hearings on sport, too little use is made of the views of sporting organisations. In terms of proactive policy advice, the EP should make far greater use of the expertise of sporting associations, federations and other stakeholders in sport and physical activity. Considering parliaments generally as forums for public debates, the EP should provide a framework for regular communication and discussions on sport, based on broader expertise.

6.1.4. Review – Information

Since the implementation of the Lisbon Treaty, research on sport and European integration has advanced and has been extended. Although several specialised studies on European sports politics and policies are available, an overall view on European sports politics and policies as well as a linkage of its different aspects have so far only been presented to a limited extent. As a result, sport still represents a niche area in research on European integration. Legal dissertations have already reflected on the basic possibilities of Article 165 of the TFEU but these studies have only partially taken into account the developments that have occurred to date on an empirical basis. A larger number of studies have been initiated by the European institutions in specific sectors and sports policies. In addition, numerous project reports are available from the individual projects funded by the Commission, which have considerable practical significance. These studies and project reports have a substantial impact on particular policy activities, yet do not provide an overview of long term trends nor do they contribute to a more holistic view of the European dimension of sport. Against the backdrop of these observations, some research and monitoring targets considering ‘review’ processes are listed below:

1) Offering access to information: To provide a secure basis for communication on sport, to give policymakers a better basis for decision-making, and to facilitate academic research on sport at European level, improved and above all more transparent access to material on sports development at European level should be offered. As it is currently rather challenging to compile all documents, opinions or statements on European sports development in general or a specific policy field over time, the Commission, the Council and Parliament should at least provide a comprehensive database that goes beyond the very recent past. The annexes to this study provide a first yet incomplete overview. It would be even more helpful to have a common information portal for the institutions to provide more comprehensive access to information on European sports development.

2) Covering all Member States: In previous studies on European sports policy, only a certain number of countries or sporting bodies have been considered in a more or less exemplary manner. Some countries have been left out while Eastern Europe as a whole remains underrepresented. Accordingly, there are no sport satellite accounts for all Member States for instance. Seeing that the organisation of and participation in sport varies considerably, reliable data for all 27 EU Member States is highly sought after.

3) Providing annual reports on sport monitoring: An annual report on the monitoring of European sport developments can serve as an important instrument for improving access to information and data. Such reports could facilitate the collection of reliable information, especially if they also include the studies and statistics collected during the periods covered. Moreover, they may ensure the longevity of past activities, since many of these are no longer on the mind of decision-makers. The ‘Commission’s report from July 2020 on the
implementation and relevance of the EU Work Plan for Sport (2017-2020) highlights the potential of such annual reports. However, the empirical basis of the annual reports could be deepened and, in particular, the annex should include major documents and studies.

### 6.2. Additional recommendations

#### 6.2.1. Refine – Coordination

**[Short Term]**

1) **Setting a cohesive framework:** While the wide variety of EU sports policy areas and the extensive scope of policy items across sectors have become apparent, a common integrated framework of EU-based sports policy is indispensable for a successful EU sports dimension. Cohesion should be achieved first by identifying the people that are addressed, secondly, by defining the issues at stake that need to be protected, thirdly, by elaborating on the programmes and measures that need to be developed and fourthly, by agreeing on the priorities within these fields. A rather simple model that links this approach with the policy pillars proposed for prioritisation may appear as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targets</th>
<th>Physical Activity</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Integrity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
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<td>Protection</td>
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<td>Programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Priorities</td>
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2) **Rethinking the role of expert groups:** The mandate, work and especially the output of the expert groups on sport are not clear. The fact that there have been fewer and fewer working groups since the first work plan was drawn up is evidence of the desire to not get bogged down in the details. In the future, the mandate of working groups should be examined in order to ascertain how it can be made more precise, how the working methods can become more centralised, how decision-making processes in the working groups can be based on closer networking and how the results can be communicated and disseminated in a more transparent way.

**[Medium Term]**

3) **Ensuring coherence in working methods:** In the course of the growth and the differentiation in the last decade, the perspective for linkages has been lost. As a result, the last work plan of 2017 rightly underscored the need ‘to ensure, through cross-sectoral cooperation, the awareness of other EU policy domains of the contribution that sport can make in meeting the policy challenges facing the EU’. Such demands must not remain mere rhetoric, however, but have to be duly taken into account. A critical reflection on the methods used will contribute to this request. Accordingly, methods, agendas and timetables should be harmonised between the institutions and the actors involved.
4) **Interlocking sports-related documents and activities:** European sports policy is characterised by a wide range of methods and measures. There are Council work plans, (presidency) priorities and conclusions of the EU presidencies, public hearings of the EP and the opinions and recommendations of the Commission. There are also Erasmus+ projects and support for programme activities. It seems necessary that, above all, the strategic plans and programmes should be more closely coordinated and interlinked. The Erasmus+ Sport programme and the Work Plan for Sport of the Council of Ministers provide a concrete example of this. Reviewing the Erasmus+ initiatives in the field of sport, it becomes apparent that there is no overarching theme that truly advances innovation. Many projects simply develop or implement best-practice scenarios that remain somewhat isolated. There is a need to develop an overarching set of goals and values that should be developed and fostered before more specific activities can be funded and supported. A new White Paper on Sport for the period between 2020 and 2030 may prove helpful in this respect.

**[Long Term]**

5) **Enhancing intra-institutional expertise:** The European institutions have developed many sports-related activities in recent years. This has also led to an expansion of sports-related structures within the institutions. Moreover, given the importance of sport, there is a need to develop stronger institutional expertise and competences to ensure a holistic approach. If permanent monitoring is to be carried out, if the perspectives of all Member States and a larger number of sporting federations are to be included, if greater emphasis is to be placed upon sustainability, and if coordination is to be improved, then structures and resources which meet these requirements are needed in the institutions.

6) **Improving assertiveness:** Considering the social, health and educational impact of sport, and given the contribution of sport to GDP, sport seems to have a rather subordinate position at European level. Even on a very literal note, the fact that the word ‘sport’ does not feature in the title of current sport-responsible Commissioner Mariya Gabriel seems to be indicative of this. Against this background, the importance of sport at European level should be given greater consideration at a symbolic level while the implementation of sports-related measures should be carried out with greater assertiveness. This can be achieved not least through the attention given to sport by leading politicians such as the Commissioner in charge, the head of the General Directorate, the presidencies, and the chair of the CULT Committee and other parliamentary committees.

7) **Channelling the financing of sport:** An increase in funding for sport has recently been discussed as part of the current multiannual financial framework. While this increase is needed in light of the impact of and the challenges for sport, it should be accompanied by an overarching agenda that clearly states which outcomes must be delivered and by which compulsory, independent monitoring system. A more efficient and targeted use of funding, as well as a more specific allocation for different sectors, can help to achieve specific objectives instead of funding activities. As such, funding sport through Erasmus+ cannot be seen as a policy act *per se*. The increase in funding appears to be even more necessary, given the effects of COVID-19 on organised sport. The cancellation of events and competitions, the reduction of training courses, the loss of membership fees and sponsorship, which will likely cause significant financial problems for the sports sector for a longer period, should also be considered at European level.
6.2.2. Reform – Prioritisation

Unlike the structural recommendations, the following additional policy recommendations for the area of ‘reform’ are not presented along a time axis, but along the political, economic, socio-cultural and current urgency-related dimensions.

[Political Dimension]

1) **Good governance**: Given the numerous critical developments in sport in the past and in view of the great importance of sporting associations, good governance is of central importance. Although a large number of activities and projects have already been initiated at European level, there is a lack of monitoring and support for the corresponding implementation activities. As a result, the EU institutions should continue to give this area high priority, while at the same time paying special attention to implementation aspects. The most important target is to establish a culture of good governance in the long run.

2) **Human rights and basic social rights**: Due to the organisation of major sporting events in emerging countries, such as the BRICS countries, and due to the ongoing commercialisation of sport and the more prominent role of the media, humanitarian aspects and social rights have increasingly come into focus. The EU sees itself as an attorney for values such as human dignity, fair play, freedom, democracy, equality and the rule of law; these values are also important in sport. Considering the increasing numbers of physical, sexual, emotional and psychological abuse of athletes in (elite) sports systems, the EU should prioritise the prevention of such practices, supporting activities and implementing policies that foster a more athlete-focused, non-threatening and non-harmful (elite) sporting culture and behaviour. Within the framework of European sports policies, the EU institutions should insist that these values must also be taken into account when awarding hosts for major sporting events. At the same time, European values can also be communicated through sport. In this context, the focus should be less on the political instrumentalisation of sport and more on the sustainable development of grassroots sports diplomacy. The task of future European sports policies should be to explore and test the possibilities of grassroots sports diplomacy further.

3) **Players’ and athletes’ representation**: In addition to the established athletes’ commission, especially in team sports, separate interest groups have been established in recent decades to provide more independent representation for the interests of athletes and players. The central aim of the various activities is the athletes’ desire to realise professional goals through new forms of collective representation of interests and to meet the increased demands for social responsibility. Against the background of the developments and problem areas briefly outlined here, a more in-depth, up-to-date survey of industrial/social relations in sport is an urgent requirement. In addition, the EU institutions should seek out dialogue with the newly founded interest groups, while at the same time preventing uncontrolled proliferation.

[ Economic Dimension]

Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the EU has always stressed the importance of sport as a major economic driver. In its basic documents and in the structures of European sports policy through the EU Work Plan for sport and its expert groups, the economic dimension has regularly been addressed. With a view to shaping the future of the European dimension of sport, this policy should be pursued in principle and the importance of sport for economic growth, innovation, employment, regional development and tourism development should be recognised and promoted. The area of
sports-related intellectual property rights is of particular importance in this context. However, new emphasis must also be placed on other aspects within the economic dimension:

4) **Sporting Facilities:** Little attention has been paid to sporting facilities and infrastructure so far but it is of high importance for encouraging physical activity. Since the municipalities are responsible for sporting infrastructure, greater attention to sport at the local level within Europe is desirable. The EU should foster debate on the standards and benchmarks. Accordingly, minimum requirements for sporting facilities in the EU should be developed. Relevant activities should be combined with the question of how these measures can be promoted and financed in the course of a future implementation of sporting infrastructure in the structural and regional development funds.

5) **Media:** While the White Paper focused more on the individual selling of media rights, the Commission, in particular, is working to establish mechanisms for the collective selling of media rights to ensure a balanced redistribution of revenue. The field of media sports has been and continues to be shaped by hard law interventions, which seem reasonable given the economic scope of the topic. Promoting and safeguarding the digital single market should ensure that the interests of sport organisers are taken into consideration (including neighbouring rights for sports event organisers in the EU copyright directive), but that equal market conditions for stakeholders are also recognised.

6) **E-Sports:** Given the controversial reception of E-Sports, it is difficult to find a common position. As a consequence, better coordination between the Member States should be sought for the future status of E-Sports. This is of particular relevance to enable both the governing bodies in sport and the public authorities to develop future legal frameworks especially with regard to doping and corruption issues. The results of the ‘E-Sports Centres & Social Inclusion’ study will be of particular importance and will need to be taken into account.

7) **European Green Deal:** In addition to the COVID-19 pandemic, the fields of climate change and environmental degradation seem to be the most urgent global challenges at present. The European Green Deal outlines strategies for tackling these. Sport should be duly considered in these activities. This could be done by integrating the sporting dimension of the Green Deal in EU programmes and projects. In this respect, a call for projects in the next Erasmus+ round aimed at analysing the impact of climate change on sport and assessing best practices both on the organisation of major sport events and local grassroots sports will be of major relevance. Funding should also acknowledge and harness the potential of sport for environmental education to foster the demand for sustainable sporting goods and services as well as raise awareness of environmental measures.

**[Social and Cultural Dimension]**

The social and cultural dimension of sport is considered to be the most important both in the scientific literature and in the Delphi study undertaken in this report. In principle, the fields of physical activity, health and education play a crucial role.

8) **Social Inclusion:** This analysis has shown the EU’s dominant focus on social inclusion in the context of persons with (physical) disabilities and young people with a migration background, especially in the periods from 2004 to 2009 and from 2009 to 2014. As the approach of social inclusion aims to target many different groups with a high risk of exclusion, it is suggested to take a larger scope of people/groups into account, for example not only people with physical and mental disabilities. The same applies to the field of migration, where not just younger
immigrants but also older migrants should be considered. A further alignment (matching/mainstreaming) of the sectors ‘sport-for-all’ and ‘social inclusion’ within the upcoming implementation plan of the Post-2020 European Disability Strategy might assist with this.

9) **Diversity, women in sport and underrepresented groups:** Based on existing national policies there is a need for further financial, strategic and process-oriented efforts by the EU and its Member States concerning gender mainstreaming, focusing on the increase of female representation in all areas of management (executive boards and committees of national sports governing bodies and in international sporting organisations), coaching, as well as organised and informal sporting participation. These efforts need to be monitored and evaluated with further developed indicators, building on existing gender indicators in sports as identified in an EP resolution in 2016. Based on the results of the study on gender-based violence, sporting governing bodies and the Commission should ensure greater awareness and implementation of existing legal measurements to cope with gender-based violence in sport, such as the European Criminal Records Information System. Following the recommendations from sporting organisations it is suggested to carry out a hard-hitting advertising campaign, funded by the EU, to promote an anti-discrimination message across Europe. Furthermore, more collaboration between European non-governmental organisations and the EU institutions might support greater efforts in the fight against gender discrimination.

10) **Physical education:** To make physical education meaningful and successful for all children and young people, innovative learning theories and new perceptions of physical education need to be considered, evaluated and implemented. Teachers should be encouraged to use technology in physical education classes to explore fitness and motor skill concepts in ways that personalise the curriculum to a greater extent than before. As the relevant documents of the European institutions regularly stress the need to support the further implementation of the EU Physical Activity (PA) Guidelines, they should also be state of the art. The concept and structure of the EU PA Guidelines are 12 years old. Today, the evidence-based knowledge of the sectors and cross-sectoral cooperation of the sectors has developed considerably further. According to international reviews and analysis of the PA Guidelines, it seems worthwhile to update the EU PA Guidelines and to issue a new edition.

**[Current Urgency-Related Dimension]**

In addition to these fundamental challenges in the political, economic and socio-cultural dimensions, sport at European level is also characterised by extraordinary challenges that have emerged in the recent past. Against this background, cautious recommendations are also made for four key current challenges.

11) **BREXIT:** Now that the agreement between the United Kingdom and the EU has been reached, it can be stated that above all, the limitation on freedom of movement will have an impact: directly for professional athletes and, presumably even to an economically significant extent, for the sports industry. The high degree of transnational sports-related interactions between the United Kingdom and continental Europe will decline in the social and academic fields. In order to agree on new rules and regulations between the United Kingdom and continental Europe in the field of sport, the EU institutions should prepare high-level advisory and support activities in cooperation with Member States.

12) **Refugees:** The EU has intensively fostered projects and actions for the social inclusion of refugees in the field of sport, and an evaluation of the outcome of pilot projects and actions
taken in this field is highly sought after. Results may lead to practical guidelines that have a particular transnational or comparative dimension, given the different national approaches and the variety of ways in which sporting clubs and municipalities address the needs of refugees with sports programmes. The European Committee of the Regions, with its strong local and regional backing, may support the exchange of knowledge and experiences between regions and local communities which have successfully implemented sporting campaigns for refugees in past years.

13) **New multiannual financial framework 2021-2027 and next work plan for sport 2021-2024:** The implementation of these two key documents is still pending. Given the relevance of sport however, it is important to not fall back behind the state of discussion that has long surrounded the topic. In view of the COVID-19 pandemic, funding for sport should be increased. Consideration should be given to lowering the application threshold for projects to include a higher proportion of grassroots organisations. At present, these sporting organisations are usually only included as partners of project leaders who already have exhaustive experience in project organisation at European level. The work plan for sport 2021-2024 should take up the topic of the consequences of COVID-19 within a separate section and, if possible, also deal with it in a separate group of experts.

6.2.3. **Remodel – Parliamentarisation**

**[Short Term]**

1) **Self-assuring the importance of sport:** The EP and MEPs have repeatedly claimed that they intend to raise awareness on sports-related topics, acknowledging that sporting participation is a key aspect of a healthy and fulfilling lifestyle. However, this claim is countered by the fact that the activities in the plenary sessions of the EP, in the CULT Committee and in informal settings only partially meet this demand. Against this backdrop, one of the first things that needs to be done is for parliamentarians to reassure themselves about the importance of sporting and physical activity. The COVID-19 pandemic and the debate on the challenges and changes it poses for sport would be a particularly suitable occasion for a corresponding debate and a policy statement on sport considering the ongoing restrictions for kindergartens, schools and grassroots sports clubs across Europe.

2) **Increasing the number of sports-related reports:** The number of reports on sports topics by MEPs has fallen over the past legislative terms. The EP no longer appears to have a pioneering role in sport. Against this background, it should be considered whether a certain minimum number of reports on sport or sporting matters in the social life of EU citizens should be prepared for each legislative term.

**[Medium Term]**

3) **Strengthening the internal structures of the CULT Committee:** A further step to improve sports-related activities for social, health, educational and governance benefits can be reflected in the internal structures of the CULT Committee. One of the vice-presidents of the committee could, for instance, take exclusive responsibility for the topic of sport. In addition, resources could also be made available to enable the regular monitoring of sports politics from a specific parliamentary perspective. In the classic political science typology between the ‘talking shop’ and the ‘working parliament’, the EP is now increasingly leaning towards the latter. However, this requires appropriate resources. An indicator for more dynamic activity could be the number of sports-related press releases from the ranks of the EP.
4) Re-establishing the intergroup on sport: The fact that there was not a sufficient majority for an official intergroup on sport in the current election period demonstrates both the limited importance attached to sport and the limited successes of the previous intergroup on sport. It seems important to work toward the restoration of such an intergroup with an extended focus on sporting activities in the social and educational sectors. Ideally, in the future, it should be adequately staffed to ensure more efficient work. The same applies to the informally formed group on sport.

[Long Term]

5) Enhancing horizontal cooperation of the CULT Committee: Given the intended mainstreaming of sport, it seems necessary to increase the number of sports-related activities that are dealt with jointly by other standing committees. These could be joint initiatives supported by other committees as well as joint committee meetings.

6) Reinforcing Parliament’s role as a co-player in sports politics: The current structures of sports politics in the EP are mainly geared toward observation and debates. Given the larger number of problems in sport, it would be desirable for the EP to adopt a more proactive position in principle in view of sustainability and the impact of sporting activities. Accordingly, the EP may develop from the role of an observer towards that of a ‘co-player’. This includes more cooperation with the Commission and the Council on sporting matters.

7) Identifying innovative projects/topics: A report presented by Fisas Ayxelà and adopted by the EP in 2012 introduced the concept of a European Sport Day. Though this initiative turned out to become a whole week and although it is not fully anchored in all Member States, the European Week of Sport (EWoS) is perceived as a success in terms of participation: In 2018 the EWoS mobilised 12 million participants and around 50 000 events in 42 countries. The EP, acting as a steering power in the background, should foster such innovative projects that have a symbolic impact. MEPs could also play a symbolic role by sponsoring a club or sports organisation in their constituency. However, the EP also has to be aware of the risks of critics and controversial debates in this regard, as shown most recently in the context of its support for the founding of the European E-Sports Federation.

6.2.4. Review – Information

[Short Term]

1) Deepening the overall view: This study is to be understood as a combination of stock-taking; an analysis of past, present and future perspectives serving primarily as a synopsis to help illustrate superordinate linkages and structures. Both from a practical and academic perspective, looking at European sport from a global perspective is of paramount importance to identify the nature of EU sports politics and policies. There is a need for overviews, classifications, syntheses and assessments that go beyond highly specialised policy studies.

2) Disseminating studies on European sports policy: The development of European sports policy has proceeded with numerous studies on specific topics which have been initiated by the EU institutions. Many of these studies provide important basic information and findings, but they are only known to a limited extent by the media, sports scientists and decision-makers, and accordingly, they are accessible to only a limited extent. Against this background, wider dissemination of such studies should be encouraged. An overview webpage with all available sports-related studies would also be helpful.
EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

[Medium Term]

3) **Strengthening innovation and evaluation:** Given the EU-funded sports projects and initiatives (mainly within the Erasmus+ programme), innovation should be progressively considered as a major target while at the same time dissemination should be fostered based on independent monitoring processes. Actions have to be assessed to evaluate the effectiveness of outcomes. It is recommended that the lack of evidence on the effects of the EWoS and the ESSD should be addressed with an evaluation report about sustainable exercise on people after the event. Evaluation reports, such as that produced in 2015 featuring online questions addressed to 59 participants, are insufficient (EC 2015). The potential impacts and improvements of participation in the EWoS and ESSD should be tracked and evaluated cross-culturally at EU level.

4) **Incorporating data of sporting organisations:** Substantial knowledge about sport at European level has been gained in recent years through scientific studies, through specialised Eurobarometer and materials provided by expert groups. This data has been based mainly on material from public authorities. In addition to this, sources from sporting organisations should also be included. These stakeholders could collect and compile EU-wide data on various sectors in cooperation with international research partner institutes and research councils. A collection of public and reliable private sources will offer more comprehensive insights into the European dimension of sport and deepen the quality of studies.

[Long Term]

5) **Supporting cross-country and cross-stakeholder studies:** The Delphi study survey distributed to all 27 EU Member States presented in this report is intended to take particular account of the range and diversity of the EU. As the EU’s sports policy can only be understood in the context of a multi-level system involving all Member States and the variety of EU sporting organisations including national sporting organisations, both transnational and comparative studies covering a larger number of Member States and organisations mark a central requirement.

6) **Fostering dialogue with the academic world:** This study is to be understood as a bridge between academic analysis and guidance for practical action. Despite the specialised studies commissioned by EU institutions, the involvement of experts in the working groups and in the hearings of the EP, there is a lack of genuine dialogue between policymakers and academics. Against this background, means of communication and forums for cooperation could be discussed to pay greater heed to academic expertise, considering both the political and the policy dimensions and to relate both views.

7) **Re-assessing the parliamentary dimension of sport:** Previous research on European sports policy has paid little attention to its parliamentary dimension. While the Council and the Commission are regarded as key institutions in this policy field, the EP has only marginally been considered in the research. Even if parliaments at national level are not among the core actors in sports policy, this view does not go far enough. While the Council (and its working groups) are the central place where decisions on European sports policy are prepared, the Commission acts sometimes as the driving force, sometimes as regulator, and sometimes as the implementing body. However, the role of the EP in new initiatives also needs to be taken into consideration as the EWoS reveals.
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126


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EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward


EU Documents


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C(2020)1194. 2020 annual work programme for the implementation of Pilot Projects and Preparatory Actions in the area of education, sport and culture. European Commission. 04.03.2020.


EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward


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EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward


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TFEU Article 165. Consolidated version of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union - PART THREE: UNION POLICIES AND INTERNAL ACTIONS - TITLE XII: EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL TRAINING, YOUTH AND SPORT.
ANNEXES

Annex 1: Sector-based policy recommendations

In addition to the key recommendations listed above in chapter 6.2.2, this annex presents further recommendations on individual sectors and policy fields as a basis for discussion and reflection, thus taking into account the peculiarities of each policy field. The recommendations address both general recommendations and institutional endorsements.

Political Dimension

Human and Social Rights

1. The CULT Committee of the European Parliament may support – in line with the new Centre for Sport and Human Rights – a confidential point of contact to which any discrimination of human rights and sports for children, women, young sports people and professionals can be addressed when violating these fundamental rights.

2. As articulated in 2015 (European Parliament, 2015), the Parliament may renew its efforts to ‘work on a resolution on human rights and sports events’ (ibid.) and consider to broaden the scope of the resolution to account for human rights in sport in general.

Good Governance

3. The EU may continue to support debates and contributions developing a common understanding/common definition of Good Governance and fostering support for monitoring.

4. The most important target is to establish a culture of good governance in the long run. This might be achieved by carrying out regular meetings/conferences inviting sport governing bodies to share best practice examples of how corruption issues can be tackled to foster knowledge exchange.

Doping

5. The establishment of a special working group to prepare teaching/educational modules of prevention of doping for amateur sports people and youth athletes should be launched.

6. A joint venture of implementation of anti-doping teaching modules on regional and local levels across all EU Member States should be set up together with other stakeholders in the field of doping prevention (youth unit of DG EAC, networks of EOC and EOA).

Sport Diplomacy

7. Regular meetings/conferences with European and national sporting organisations should be prepared to exchange on potential fields of activity and to share best practice examples.

8. Athletes who have fostered European values might be invited to the European Parliament to foster publicity. The EP may even award a price similar to the Sakharov Prize for Freedom of Thought to athletes or players who have shown a great commitment to political and social responsibility in sport.
**Sport and Environment**

9. The sports sector should be mentioned in the European Green Deal, not only as an economic sector that has to control its upstream and downstream responsibility but also as a social sector that holds the power to contribute to environmental education.

10. A budget for sustainable renovation of sporting facilities should be assigned. Sporting and public facilities are often the first things where communities try to save money.

11. Sport events should be obliged to track their environmental impact over the entire lifecycle (including team and fan travel) to collect a database for informed policy-making about sport events and their impacts.

**White Paper on Sport**

12. The White Paper on Sport needs an update for EU sports policy in the decade between 2020 and 2030 and the three dimensions included in the current White Paper should be extended to a fourth dimension which should integrate a synthesis of different indicators of the three dimensions: ‘Education and Health’.

**Hosting Sport Mega Events**

13. Ongoing commercialisation and medialisation of sport, humanitarian aspects and social rights have come increasingly into focus. The European Union is an attorney of values such as human dignity, fair play, freedom, democracy, equality and the rule of law. As a result, the EU institutions should insist that these values were taken into account as far as possible, especially when awarding host for major sporting events by a European sport federation.

**Violence, Racism, Homophobia, Spectators**

14. Fighting cyberbullying and preventing violence against minorities and children need more actions. Existing programmes should at least explicitly address the sport context as a relevant social context where action plans need to be implemented.

**Economic Dimension**

**Sports industry**

15. The high impact of sports industry for employment should be taken into account by increasing knowledge and collective data on all 27 EU Member States.

16. Since European sports industry is substantially relying on innovations, the IP protection of products and goods should be given particular attention.

**Media Sports and Digitalisation**

17. The EU should continue to promote the development and use of digital options as integral parts of existing sports provisions. In view of changing social and time structures, existing offers can be supplemented in this way, but not replaced, to retain members in the long term.

**Employment Relations**

18. An overview of existing employment relations in sport in the 27 EU Member States is an urgent requirement and should be compiled in a timely manner. On this basis, a more detailed analysis of the current employment relations and their strengths and weaknesses should be carried out together with the sporting organisations.
Regional Development

19. The existing overview of sport’s contribution to regional development by support of the Structural Funds might be updated in light of information from the most recent funding period, and the efficacy of physical activity promotion efforts.

20. Stronger health care and health education ties for future collaborations in European regions might be reconsidered and established.

21. Stakeholders in the field of sport and physical activity in the European regions and border districts of Euregios should be made aware about the funding opportunities to implement more sport and physical activities for the purpose of social cohesion.

Free Movement of sport professionals

22. Notwithstanding the significant impact of the Covid-19 pandemic and Brexit on organised sport, it is important to ensure that the free movement of players and athletes does not result in the loss of this essential achievement of the EU sports policy. Recent studies on the mobility of artists and culture professionals, in particular as regards labour mobility and recognition in the regulated professions indicated that these issues will become a highly relevant subject that also affects the sporting sector after Covid-19. Against this backdrop, this topic should be tabled on the agenda of the CULT Committee as an early warning.

State Aid

23. Since the most recent decisions of the European Commission on State Aid (Spanish clubs) were overturned by the ECJ, a revision of the current regulations and exemptions might need to be undertaken.

Sport facility building

24. Recommendations on benchmarks for energy expenditure and water supply usage in relationship to space and volume of sporting facilities should be developed on the European level to align the sports policy sector with broader EU initiatives (e.g., New Green Deal, sustainability efforts).

25. Sports facilities should take into account the criterion of ‘accessibility’. They should meet the requirements of inclusion with no physical barriers.

E-Sport

26. A research study on E-Sport data in the EU Member States should be launched, focussing on how E-Sport is connected with an increased sedentary lifestyle and harm the health development and well-being of children and adolescents. Especially, the results from the ‘E-Sports Centres & Social Inclusion’ study will be of importance and need to be taken into account.

27. In the long run, a decision should be taken whether and in how far E-Sport will become a legal part of the European Sport Model to facilitate Member States sporting organisations to coherently develop future legal frameworks especially with regards to doping and corruption issues.
Socio-cultural Dimension

Grassroots sport, sport for all and informal sport

28. The extended definition of grassroots sports of the high-level group (2016) and the promotion of related purposes for actions in a variety of the policy areas mentioned there should be officially set up. A too precise definition is overdue to characterize the term and range of grassroots sport in comparison to ‘sport for all’ and ‘informal sport’.

Youth development

29. A further promotion of the implementation of national monitoring systems, studies or evaluations to identify children's and adolescents’ levels of physical activity and sport habits might foster the knowledge in this field and serve as a basis for further activities.

30. Since young people are hardly involved in sports decision-making, a framework should be provided that allows younger to actively participate in sports politics. In the long run, public and private stakeholders in sport are requested to develop a sporting culture in which young people have the opportunity to influence sports policies, represent their interest, and participate in planning and execution processes at all levels.

Volunteering

31. The EU institutions may support sporting organisations to encourage a structured dialogue between public state and private actors to identify needs and provide sustainable solutions for increased participation in sport volunteering within the national contexts.

32. It is relevant to support volunteering in sport as a means of non-formal education and youth employability by coordinating development and implementation of a recognition instrument (e.g. sport pass) that helps the development of skills and competencies gained through sport and volunteering in sport.

European Qualifications Framework and Dual Career

33. In the revised version of the EQF (2018) the descriptor ‘competences’ was changed into ‘responsibility and autonomy’. This change makes the descriptor less concrete and specific from the sports policy perspective. It is recommended to change or add descriptors according to the ‘KAS’ system: Knowledge, Attitudes, Skills.

Monitoring EU PA Guidelines

34. In the Commission report on the second round of monitoring some limitations were explicitly referenced by the Commission with a link to the EUPASMOS project aiming to better monitor the sports sector. To lift restrictions in national monitoring of the education sector in the future, the comparable Erasmus+ project of EuPEO (European Union Physical Education Observatory) should be incorporated into the frame of future extended monitoring.

35. There are some European umbrella organisations in the sectors of sport and education with up to 40 national branches. These stakeholders can collect and compile EU-wide data on both sectors of sport (ENGSO Youth) and education (EUPEA) in cooperation with international research partner institutes and research councils (i.e. CEREPS). A respective EU-network of partners in conjunction with the CULT Committee and other EU partners and institutions should be established.
Physical education (PE) and health enhancing physical activity (HEPA)

36. Some political efforts to encourage school-based physical education have been made by working groups and cooperation was extended with European PE stakeholders invited to the European Structured Dialogue. However, since the last Europe wide review supported by the European Parliament (2007), an update of the old PE survey with new indicators and methods of data collection is overdue. The Eurydice Report of 2013 also needs an update.

37. Since the promotion of ‘Preparatory Actions’ in the last 10 years, some school-based physical education projects were supported to foster daily physical activities at school by networks of schools in conjunction with community offices and grassroots sporting organisations on municipality level. The European Commission should launch an intervention study on municipality level for early childhood health education in 12 municipalities (three in each cultural setting of the North, East, South and West of Europe).

European Week of Sport and European School Sport Day

38. The sustainability of the successful ESSD event is not granted, as the brand owners have to apply each year again for new funds from the Erasmus+ programme. In a case where a respective application is not accepted, the implementation of the ESSD is in danger. Therefore, the ESSD should be implanted in a sustainable way, based on a long-term financing.

Safeguarding of children

39. The European Parliament should raise awareness of the final version of the Council recommendation on ‘Shaping a European Child Guarantee’ planned for 2021. This may include a reiteration of the plea of the former Council Recommendation (2013): Support the participation of all children in play, recreation, sport and cultural activities. To protect child poverty and social exclusion, one of the most effective measures are: physical activities, play and sport.

40. Considering the increasing numbers in cases of physical, sexual, emotional and psychological abuse of athletes in (elite) sport systems, the EU should make prevention of such practices a high priority, supporting activities and implementing policies that foster a more athlete-centred non-threatening and harming (elite) sport culture and behaviours.

Social inclusion

41. In line with the recommendation of the recent study on access to sport for people with disabilities and on the study for the post-2020 European Disability Strategy, policy responses should aim at a more united definition of sport for people with disabilities and a more stringent data collection on barriers and facilitators for sport and existing programs for people with disabilities. In this context, the diverse areas of grassroots sport, informal sports and high-performance sports should be regarded.

42. As the approach of social inclusion aims at targeting many different groups with a high risk of exclusion, it is suggested to take all these different groups into account, for example not only people with physical, but also those with mental disabilities or not only younger immigrants but also elderly migrants.
### Annex 2A: Selected basic documents of EU sports policy

This selection of basic policy documents of EU sports policy is ordered by EU body, year and document type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Body</th>
<th>Document type</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Document identifier, title and date</th>
<th>Topic</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Council</td>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>Council 2019/C 192/06. Conclusions of the Council of the European Union and the Representatives of the Member States meeting within the Council on Access to sport for persons with disabilities. 07.06.2019</td>
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<td>Council</td>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Council 2018/C 196/06. Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting within the Council on promoting the common values of the EU through sport (2018/C 196/06). 08.06.2018</td>
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<td>Council</td>
<td>Item Note</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Council 7094/18. 'I' ITEM NOTE, EU and its Member States contribution to the revision of the World Anti-Doping Code – Endorsement. 16.03.2018</td>
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<td>Council</td>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Council 2017/C 189/09. Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on sport as a platform for social inclusion through volunteering. 15.06.2017</td>
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<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Council 2016/C 212/07. Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on enhancing integrity, transparency and good governance in major sport events. 14.06.2016</td>
<td>Integrity</td>
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<td>Council</td>
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<td>2015</td>
<td>Council 2015/C 172/03. Council conclusions on maximising the role of grassroots sport in developing transversal skills, especially among young people. (2015/C 172/03). 27.05.2015</td>
<td>Grassroots sports Youth development</td>
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<td>2012</td>
<td>Council 2012/C 393/06. Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, of 27 November 2012 on strengthening the evidence-base for sports policy making</td>
<td>Sport policy</td>
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<td>Council</td>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Council 2010/C 324/04. Conclusions of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on the role of the EU in the international fight against doping. 01.12.2010</td>
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<td>Conclusions</td>
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<td>Council 2010/C 326/04. Council conclusions of 18 November 2010 on the role of sport as a source of and a driver for active social inclusion. 18.11.2010</td>
<td>Social Inclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Council Treaty 2009

**TFEU Article 165. Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union - PART THREE: UNION POLICIES AND INTERNAL ACTIONS - TITLE XII: EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL TRAINING, YOUTH AND SPORT.**

**Article 165**

#### Council Presidency

**Conclusions 2000**


### EU Body

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<td>Directive</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Directive 2006/7/EC concerning the management of bathing water quality. 04.03.2006</td>
<td>Sport facilities</td>
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### Commission

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<td>2020</td>
<td>C(2020) 1194. 2018 annual work programme for the implementation of Pilot Projects and Preparatory Actions in the area of education, sport and culture. European Commission. 04.03.2020</td>
<td>Pilot Projects and Preparatory Actions</td>
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EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

of the Regions on the implementation of the Council Recommendation on promoting health-enhancing physical activity across sectors. 6.11.2019

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of the Regions on the implementation of the Council Recommendation on promoting health-enhancing physical activity across sectors. 5.12.2016

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EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward


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### EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

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### Advisory Bodies

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<td>EESC 2015/C 383/03. Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on 'Sport and European Values' (own-initiative opinion). 02.07.2015</td>
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<td>EESC 2012/C 24/23. Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on the 'Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: Developing the European Dimension in Sport' COM(2011) 12 final</td>
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### Annex 2B: Selected Commission’s and Parliament’s sports-related research activities

This selection of research activity is ordered by EU body, document type and date.

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<td>08.03.2019</td>
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<td>07.01.2019</td>
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**Parliament At a Glance**

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Commission | Improve economic and policy knowledge in the field of sports-related industries with particular focus on sporting goods sector | 18.05.2018 | Study | Sport Economy Industry | EA-04-18-476-EN-N | Link
Commission | Physical activity at the workplace | 19.12.2017 | Study | Health & well-being | NC-04-17-969-EN-N | Link
Commission | Anti-doping & data protection | 19.10.2017 | Study | Doping Data protection | NC-07-16-018-EN-N | Link
Commission | Study on gender based violence in sport | 11.01.2017 | Study | Safeguarding Gender | NC-04-16-771-EN-N | Link
Commission | Study on sport qualifications acquired through sport organisations and (sport) educational institutes | 12.10.2016 | Study | Higher Education Youth Development | NC-04-16-010-EN-N | Link
Commission | Study on national Sport Satellite Accounts (SSAs) in the EU | 06.10.2016 | Study | Economy, Sport Accounts Satellite Accounts | NC-04-16-012-EN-N | Link
Commission | Study on the Contribution of Sport to Regional Development through the Structural Funds | 22.09.2016 | Study | Regional Development | NC-01-16-017-EN-N | Link
Commission | Study on the implementation of the EU physical activity guidelines | 04.08.2016 | Study | PA_PE Health & Well-being | NC-01-16-019-EN-N | Link
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**Commission Mapping Studies**

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Annex 3: Timeline: Milestones in European sports politics and policies

Timeline EU Sport Policy
with particular references to the European Parliament

1954  Council of Europe: European Cultural Convention including a reference to sport

1963  Council of Europe: European sport certificate

1974  ECJ: Walrave/Koch - Association Union Cycliste Internationale (preliminary)

1975  Council of Europe: European Sport for all Charter

1976  ECJ: Donà/Mantero (preliminary ruling)

1985  European Commission: Adonnino Report on a People’s Europe

1985  Council of Europe: European Convention on spectator violence and misbehaviour at sports events and in particular at football matches

1985  Resolution on measures to combat vandalism and violence in sport

1988  Resolution on vandalism and violence in sport

1988  Larive-report on Sport in the European Community and a people’s Europe

1989  Van Raay report on the freedom of movement of professional footballers

1990  Council of Europe: Anti-Doping Convention

1991  First European Sport Forum

1991  Commission and UEFA ‘Gentleman’s agreement’ in football

1991  European Commission: Communication - The European community and sport

1993  EU Office of German Sports in Brussels

1994  European Commission: Study on the impact of EU activities on sport

1995  European Commission: EURATHLON

1995  ECJ: Union Royale Belge des Sociétés de Football Association ASBL vs Jean-Marc Bosman (Bosman Ruling) (preliminary ruling)

1978  Public hearing on human rights violations in Argentina

1980  Debate on the Olympic Games and the boycott of the Moscow Games

1994  Resolution - The European Community and Sport
Timeline EU Sport Policy with particular references to the European Parliament

1997
- Amsterdam Treaty adopted - including a declaration on sport (No. 29)
- European Commission: Sports Unit
- European Commission: Helsinki Report on Sport
- Nice Treaty adopted - including declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social functions
- European Commission: Discussions with UEFA/FIFA on international football transfers
- Special Eurobarometer 58.2
- European Year of Education through Sport (EYES)
- Special Eurobarometer 62
- Council of the EU: Arnaut Report
- European Commission: White Paper on sport
- Council of Europe: Enlarged Partial Agreement on Sport (EPAS)
- First EU Sport Forum
- European Commission: EU Physical Activity Guidelines
- EOC EU Office in Brussels
- European Commission: Preparatory Actions in the field of Sport
- Association of European Team Sports
- Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU) including § 165

1997
- Resolution on the role of the European Union in the field of sport

1999
- Resolution on urgent measures to be taken against doping in sport

2000's
- Resolution on women and sport
- Resolution on respect for core labour standards in the production of sports goods for the Olympic Games
- Resolution on doping in sport
- Declaration on tackling racism in Football
- Declaration on forced prostitution in the framework of world sports events
- Resolution on the role of sport in education
- Belet-Report
- Resolution on the White Paper on Sport
- Resolution on Social Economy
Timeline EU Sport Policy

2010 Council of the EU: “Resolution on the EU structured dialogue on sport”
2010 Special Eurobarometer 334
2010 New Council formation “Education, Youth, Culture and Sport”
2010 Council of the EU: Conclusions on the role of sport as a source of and a driver for active social inclusion
2011 European Commission: Communication - Developing the European dimension of sport

2011 Formation of 6 Expert Groups on Sport
2011 ECJ: Football Association Premier League vs. QC Leisure und Karen Murphy vs. Media Protection Servies Ltd. (preliminary)
2012 European Commission and UEFA: Financial Fair-Play and EU State Aid policy
2013 Council of the EU: Recommendations on promoting HEPA across sectors
2014 Council of Europe: Convention on the Manipulation of Sports Competitions
2014 Special Eurobarometer 412
2014 European Commission: Draft Arrangement for Cooperation with UEFA
2014 Erasmus+ Sport Programme 2014-2021

2015 House of Sport
2015 High-Level-Groups on sport diplomacy and sport for all and Expert Group on HEPA

2017 Third EU Work Plan on Sport (2017-2020)
2017 European Commission: Decision on anti-trust proceedings against the ISU
2017 Expert group on Skills and Human Resources Development in Sport
2018 Special Eurobarometer 472
2019 Council of the EU: Conclusions on safeguarding children in sport
2019 Council of Europe: Convention on the Manipulation of Sports Competitions

2020 Debate on the impact of Covid-19 on youth and on sport
2021 Resolution on the impact of Covid-19 on youth and on sport

2012 Fisas Report - On the European dimension in sport
2012 Resolution on a European Dimension in Sport
2013 Resolution on match-fixing and corruption in sport

2015 First European Week of Sport
2016 First European School Sport Day (ESSD)
2017 Takkula Report - on an integrated approach to Sport Policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity

2018 Hearings on transfer system in football, mental health in elite sport and child trafficking in sport
Annex 4: Overview of sports policy fields at EU level

Overview of sport policy fields at European level: dimensions, current assessment and future expectations

*Notice for the reader:
The schematic aims to help the reader of the study to have an overview of the policy fields, their current centrality in the European sport policy discourse and expected future trends. It is to be seen as an orientation and starting point for discussion rather than an exact representation of the status quo. The grey arrows indicate expected trends in EU sport policy based on the results of the Delphi study and the authors' expertise.
Invitation letter (email) group 1 (national governing bodies)

Dear Madame or Sir,

as a national governing body of sport, not only your country’s sport policy but also the European sport policy affects the activities of your organization. Thus, the European context has a direct influence on how you manage your sport and how you are able to interact with fellow European national governing bodies. However, little is known about the influence of European sport policy. This is why we need your federation’s expertise in the world of sport to shed light on it.

The European Parliament launched a tender entitled “EU Sports Policy: Assessment and possible ways forward” which was awarded to our international research consortium headed by Prof. Dr. Mittag, German Sport University Cologne, and Prof. Dr. Naul, Univ. Münster, collaborating with other institutional partners (i.e. EUPEA & ENSGO Youth).

To get a comprehensive understanding of your experience with EU Sport Policy we designed an online-based questionnaire. It covers all three dimensions (political, economic, social/cultural) and about 30 different sectors of administration and intervention (i.e. sport mega events, grass root sports, doping, social inclusion, volunteering and youth development) of EU Sport Policy making. This questionnaire is distributed to selected representatives of European sport federations and their national governing bodies, non-governmental institutions, policy experts and members of European institutions.

We kindly ask you to share your and your federation’s perspective on EU sports Policy and assess and evaluate your personal view of EU sports policy development. Your participation will provide valuable insights in present EU Sport Policy and enable us to form a solid understanding of the status quo as a basis for future policy recommendations. Your answer counts!

We implemented a Delphi study design that, therefore, will involve two rounds. This study design produces very reliable results if participants answer both rounds of the questionnaire. This is why we kindly ask you to follow the link we will send in a few weeks, together with the first results.

To join the study, access the questionnaire using the following link:

"Start EU Sport Policy Delphi Study here"

The online-platform for the Delphi study will be open for your individual assessment and evaluation until Sept. 15th, 2020. It will take you less than 30 minutes.

If you are interested in the academic background please refer this additional info sheet.

If you have any further questions or need support with anything, please feel free to contact us anytime (eu-sportpolicy@dshs-koeln.de).

We would be delighted to have you on board!

Thank you for your participation,
also on behalf of our project partners EUPEA and ENGSO Youth,

Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag & Prof. Dr. Roland Naul
German Sport University Cologne & Willibald Gebhardt Institute Münster
EU Sports Policy: Assessment and possible ways forward

Background Information & Delphi Study Design

Sport has been on the Agenda of the European Union as early as in the 1970s. The ad hoc Committee “on a People’s Europe” and their so-called Adonino Report 1985 first referred to the social-integrative powers of sport. In 1991, the commission initiated a platform for structured dialogue, today known as the EU Sports Forum, accounting for the growing relevance of sport. Also, in the 1990s sport was put on the agenda of the EU due to the European Court of Justice’s rulings in cases like the “Bosman ruling” or the “Messa-Medina case” as professional sport was increasingly intertwined with EU labour legislation and single market regulations. Sport was first mentioned in the Amsterdam Treaty 1997 and again in the Treaty of Nice 2003, but this only had political relevance.

The European Union (EU) was given a legal basis for shaping European sports policy in Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) in 2009 (Lisbon Treaty). This treaty revision has been providing an explicit power to act in sport for the EU. Since then, the EU has actively promoted, supported and coordinated a large variety of activities in sport together with the member states, though it cannot pursue harmonization or shift competences in sport. One of the biggest effects of EU sports policy today is the Erasmus+ program launched in 2014 where sport is assigned a considerably decent budget.

Little is known about EU sport policy academically but as questions about the development of EU competencies arise, the European Parliament launched a tender (IP/B/CULT/IC/2020-025) entitled “EU Sports Policy: Assessment and possible ways forward”. Our international research consortium headed by Prof. Dr. Mittag, German Sport University Cologne, and Prof. Dr. Naul, Univ. Munster, was awarded the tender with other institutional partners (i.e., EUPEA and ENSGO Youth).

As a part of this review study on EU-based sports policy-making in the last almost 20 years, an empirical study was designed based on many written and published documents delivered by the European Commission and the European Parliament in the last three different periods of legislation (2004-2009: 2009-2014, 2014-2019). We found three important “dimensions” of sport policy making (political, economic, social/cultural) with about 30 different sectors of administration and intervention with regard to EU-Parliament’s “written declarations”, “written questions of MEPs and written answers by the EC” (e.g. sport mega events, grass root sports, doping, violence and homophobia, social inclusion, sport betting, physical activity, health and well-being, volunteering, youth development, and another 20 sectors).
The dimensions and sectors are more or less linked with the period before the Lisbon Treaty with the sport paragraph (2004-2009) and the period after 2009 until 2014 (what we call the “PAST” in our questionnaire), the period between 2015-2020 (the “PRESENT”) and what the future period of 2020 (the “FUTURE”) and beyond should consider as very important or not important at all.

As a part of this empirical study different groups of stakeholders in EU-based sport policy are being contacted and asked to join our study. Personal rankings of EU sport policy development with regard to the three dimensions and 30 sectors of policy making will be assessed and evaluated.

The purpose of this empirical study is:
- to elaborate a ranked assessment profile about the most important dimensions of EU sport policy in the past, present and for future policy making; (part A)
- to evaluate the importance/unimportance of a reviewed collection of different sport-policy sectors with reference to past and present policy activities. (part B)
- to recommend and assess dimensions and sectors of EU sport policy for the future of policy making with the new working plan of 2021 to 2027. (part C)

Study Design

For better reliability, we use multi-layered research technique that will – to begin with - have two levels (referred to as round 1 and round 2) and consist of two questionnaires.

In round 1 of the empirical study, in a first step, all 3 dimensions (political, economic, social/culture) and 30 sectors of EU policy making will included in the questionnaire. Additionally, an open-ended question regarding other important EU sport policy sectors will be added. The online-document of the Delphi study will be opened for your assessment and evaluation until Sept. 15th, 2020.

In round 2 of the empirical study, we will give each participant feedback of the results and a reduced set of sectors according average data of cut-off points in round 1. Round 2 will start about a week after the deadline of round 1. This round is necessary to make our assessment and the recommendations based in it as reliable as possible.
The questionnaire

The study’s tool is constructed in three different parts:

*Part A* is asking about the importance of the political, social and economic dimension of EU sport policy in the *past, present and future*. This is done with a 7-point Likert scale format.

*Part B* is further divided into 3 sub parts, depending on the period of time referring to:

*Part B1* asks the participant to identify the 5 most important sectors of EU sport policy of the past (2004-2015) from their perspective. This is done by presenting a 30-item list in a multiple-choice format.

*Part B2* asks the participant to rate the importance of the respective 30 sectors of EU sports policy in the present (2015-2020) on a 7-point Likert scale.

*Part B3* asks the participant to again pick the 5 sectors of the 30-item list that they consider most important for the future (2020 onwards). Again, this question will have a multiple-choice format.

*Part C* is an open-format question and asks the participant to name other (max. 5) EU sport policy sectors they would consider as important that have not been named on the 30-item list.

If you will join us for the online study, please click the link in your personal email. The link is connected with a code that will enable us to connect your answers to a group of stakeholders. Your individual answer cannot be traced back to you, you can therefore consider your answer as anonymous.

Please make sure you tick exactly one box in every row to indicate your opinion. If you do not tick a box or more than one, an error message will be presented.

If you have feedback or further questions concerning the empirical study, do not hesitate to send your feedback or questions to eu-sportpolicy@dshs-koeln.de.

Thank you for taking time to help our review study succeed.
Annex 6: Delphi study online survey
Round 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART A - the three dimensions over time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For the past (until 2015), present (2015-2020) and future (2020 onwards), please indicate in the matrix below:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how important you rate the following dimensions of EU-Sport Policy from your personal/your institution’s perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please tick the relevant box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered. And please remember to push the ‘OK’ button when requested.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political Dimension</th>
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<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tr>
<td>PAST</td>
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<td>PRESENT</td>
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<td>FUTURE</td>
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<thead>
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<th>Extremely important</th>
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<td>PAST</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRESENT</td>
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<tr>
<td>FUTURE</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-cultural Dimension</th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAST</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>PRESENT</td>
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<td>FUTURE</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
PART B - EU institutions and bodies

For the past (until 2015), present (2015-2020) and future (2020 onwards) of European Sport policy and politics, please indicate in the matrix below how you rate the relevance and importance of the following EU institutions and bodies from your personal/institution’s perspective.

**NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.**

### European Commission

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAST</strong></td>
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<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
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<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
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</table>

### European Parliament

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<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PAST</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Council (of Ministers)

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAST</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
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<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
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</table>

### European Council

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<th></th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAST</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Committee of Regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAST</td>
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<td>PRESENT</td>
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<tr>
<td>FUTURE</td>
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</table>

### European Economic and Social Committee

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<th>Not at all important</th>
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<tr>
<td>PAST</td>
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<td>PRESENT</td>
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<td>FUTURE</td>
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**Part C1 – the 30 political sectors in the PAST (until 2015)**

For the PAST (until 2015), please select from the 30 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below the 5 sectors that you (from your personal/institution’s perspective) think have been most important.

*NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.*

Please tick up to FIVE boxes

- Brexit
- Corruption / Sport betting
- Covid-19
- Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups
- Doping
- E-Sports
- Free Movement for professionals
- Grass root sports
- Health and well-being / Recreational sport
- Human rights (children, women, athletes)
- Informal sport
- Media sports (digitalisation)
- Multi-annual framework
- Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)
- Refugees & Migration
- Regional development
- Safeguarding of children / protection of children
- Social inclusion
- Spectator sports
- Sport and safety environment
- Sport diplomacy
- Sport facility building
- Sport for all
- Sport Industry
- Sport Law
- Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)
- Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)
- Volunteering
- White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators
- Youth development
### Part C2 – the 30 political sectors in the present (2015-2020)

For the present period (2015-2020), please indicate for the 30 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below, by scoring in the matrix below,

*how important are the sectors of EU-Sport Policy from your personal/institution’s perspective.*

**NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.**

Set 1: Sectors 1-10 (of 30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brexit</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Corruption / Sport betting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Covid-19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diversity / Women sport / Under-represented groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Doping</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>E-Sports</td>
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<tr>
<td>Free Movement for professionals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
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<tr>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Human rights (children, women, athletes)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Set 2: Sectors 11-20 (of 30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal sport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Media sports (digitalisation)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-annual framework</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical activity and “accessibility” (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Refugees &amp; Migration</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Regional development</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Informal sport</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Set 3: Sector 21-30 (of 30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all important</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport diplomacy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport facility building</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport for all</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport Industry</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport Law</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport mega events</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth development</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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**Part C3 – the 30 political sectors in the future (2020 onwards)**

For the future (2020 onwards), please pick from the 30 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below, the 5 sectors that you think (from your personal/institution’s perspective) will be most important in the future.

*NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.*

**Please tick up to FIVE boxes**

- Brexit
- Corruption / Sport betting
- Covid-19
- Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups
- Doping
- E-Sports
- Free Movement for professionals
- Grass root sports
- Health and well-being / Recreational sport
- Human rights (children, women, athletes)
- Informal sport
- Media sports (digitalisation)
- Multi-annual framework
- Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)
- Refugees & Migration
- Regional development
- Safeguarding of children / protection of children
- Social inclusion
- Spectator sports
- Sport and safety environment
- Sport diplomacy
- Sport facility building
- Sport for all
- Sport Industry
- Sport Law
- Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)
- Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)
- Volunteering
- White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators
- Youth development
**Additional sectors**

You are invited to let us know about any other important sectors of EU Sport Policy from your personally your institution's perspective, which have not been part of the list of 30 sectors provided by us.

Additional sectors?

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Round 2

EU Sports Policy Delphi Study

Round 2

Thank you for your participation in the first round of this consensus study.

In order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the EU Sport Policy context, we have set up this second round. The process is similar to the first round, but focuses on the findings of the previous data-gathering round.

As before, all responses will remain anonymous and confidential. Participation in this survey is entirely voluntary.

We kindly ask you to respond to each questionnaire within one week of receiving it, for this round no later than 31 September, 2020.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us (eu-sportspolicy@dshs-koeln.de).

Thank you in advance for your support.
## Question 1 – the 15 political sectors in the PAST (until 2015)

For the PAST (until 2015), please select from 15 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below the 5 sectors that you (from your personal/institution’s perspective) think have been most important.

NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.

Please tick up to FIVE boxes

- Corruption / Sport betting
- Doping
- Free Movement for professionals
- Grass root sports
- Health and well-being / Recreational sport
- Human rights (children, women, athletes)
- Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)
- Social inclusion
- Sport facility building
- Sport for all
- Sport Law
- Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)
- Volunteering
- White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA indicators
- Youth development
Question 2 – the 16 political sectors in the present (2015-2020)
For the present period (2015-2020), please indicate for the 16 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below, by scoring in the matrix below,

*how important are the sectors of EU-Sport Policy from your personal/institution's perspective.*

**NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16 Sectors</th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Extremely important</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covid-19</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Diversity / Women sport / Under-represented groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Doping</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grass root sports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Health and well-being / Recreational sport</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights (children, women, athletes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical activity and “accessibility” (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regional development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Safeguarding of children / protection of children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social inclusion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport facility building</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sport for all</td>
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<tr>
<td>Violence / Racism / Homophobia (Football)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
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<tr>
<td>White Paper / EU PA Guidelines / Monitoring EU PA Indicators</td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth development</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward**

**Question 3 – the 15 political sectors in the future (2020 onwards)**

For the future (2020 onwards), please pick from the 15 sectors of EU Sport Policy listed below, the 5 sectors that you think (from your personal/institution’s perspective) will be most important in the future.

*NB. You will be transferred to the next part of the survey only once all elements of each question has been answered.*

Please tick up to FIVE boxes

- Corruption / Sport betting
- Covid-19
- Diversity / Women sport / Underrepresented groups
- Grass root sports
- Health and well-being / Recreational sport
- Human rights (children, women, athletes)
- Physical Activity and Physical Education (EU-Week of Sports – School Sport Day)
- Regional development
- Safeguarding of children / protection of children
- Social inclusion
- Sport and safety environment
- Sport facility building
- Sport for all
- Sport mega events (Olympic / Paralympic games, European games)
- Youth development

**Question 4 - EU Institutions**

How often have you been in contact with the EU institutions and bodies listed here?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
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<tr>
<td>Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>(of Ministers)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Committee of Regions</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Economic and Social Committee</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Question 5 - Organizations and Federations

**IN THE PAST**
Please list up to 5 sport organisations and/or sport federations and/or associations you consider particularly relevant for shaping European Sport policy and politics in PAST.

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 

**AT PRESENT**
Please list up to 5 sport organisations and/or sport federations and/or associations you consider particularly relevant for shaping European Sport policy and politics at PRESENT.

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 

**IN THE FUTURE**
Please list up to 5 sport organisations and/or sport federations and/or associations you consider particularly relevant for shaping European Sport policy and politics in the FUTURE.

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTACTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please list up to 10 European sport organisations and/or sport federations and/or associations with which you have already been in contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
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<td>6.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 7: Organigram of the Study project

EU sports policy: assessment and possible ways forward

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lead</th>
<th>Project Partners</th>
<th>Further Collaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln  
German Sport University Cologne  
Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies  
Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag (Lead)  
Team Cologne:  
Caroline Tisson  
Vincent Bock | European Non-Governmental Sports Organization Youth  
(ENGSO Youth)  
Ugnė Chemliauskaitė  
Bence Garamvölgyi | European Network of Sport Education (ENSE)  
Louis Moustakas  
Advisory Board  
Prof. An Vermeersch (Ghent University)  
Prof. Richard Parrish (Edge Hill University) |
| University of Münster  
Willibald-Gebhardt Institut e.V.  
Prof. Dr. Roland Naul (Co-Lead)  
Team Münster:  
Dr. Sebastian Brückner  
Christina Uhlenbrock | European Physical Education Association (EUPEA)  
Dr. Claude Scheuer  
Dr. Richard Bailey | Prof. Jeroen Scheerder (Univ. Leuven)  
Dr. Andrea Cattaneo (Edge Hill University)  
Dr. Karen Petry (German Sport University Cologne)  
Dr. Borja García (Loughborough University)  
Dr. Jacob Kornbeck (European Commission)  
Dr. István Kulisity (Hungarian School Sport Federation)  
Dr. Till Müller-Schoell (German Sport Univ. Cologne) |
Since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the EU has been entitled to support, coordinate or complement Member States’ activities in sport. European sport policies of the past decade are characterised by numerous activities, and by on-going differentiation. Against this backdrop, the study presents policy options in four key areas: the first covers the need for stronger coordination; the second aims at the setting of thematic priorities; the third addresses the reinforcement of the role of EP in sport and the fourth stipulates enhanced monitoring.