BASICS OF SPORTS MANAGEMENT

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BOOKS ARCADE

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CHAPTER 1

SPORTS MANAGEMENT

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A large portion of the world's population participates in or watches sport on a daily basis, and at the top or professional level, sport has evolved from an amateur past time to a substantial business. Changes in the consumption, production, and administration of athletic events and organizations at all levels of sport have been prompted by the rise and professionalization of sport. Brazil, which hosted the 2016 Olympic Games and the 2014 FIFA World Cup, is one example of a developing nation that increasingly views sport as a means of showcasing its nation to the outside world, attracting commerce, tourism, and investment, and fostering a sense of national pride among its people. With the dawn of the twenty-first century, managing sport organizations entails the use of tactics and strategies common to the bulk of contemporary commercial, government, and nonprofit organizations. Sport managers engage in strategic planning, oversee a sizable workforce of paid and unpaid employees, manage multibillion dollar broadcasting contracts, oversee the welfare of elite athletes who occasionally earn 100 times the average hourly wage, and work within highly integrated global networks of international sports federations, national sport organizations, government organizations, media corporations, sponsors, and community organizations.

The unique characteristics of sport and its related industries, the environment in which sport organizations operate, and the different types of sport organizations that operate in the public, nonprofit, and professional sectors of the sport industry are all things that students who are interested in a career in sport management need to learn about. The exploration of these ideas and the distinctive features of sport organization administration take up the rest of the chapter. Ten Distinctive Characteristics of SportSmith and Stewart (2010) describe ten distinctive characteristics of sport, which may help us comprehend why managing sports businesses necessitates the use of certain management strategies. The concept of individuals acquiring irrational enthusiasm for athletic teams, events, or players is a distinctive aspect of sport. In terms of performance results, success, and recognizing accomplishment, sport has a symbolic meaning that does not exist in other spheres of economic and social activity. By appealing to people's desire to attend events, join a club, volunteer their time to operate a nonprofit organization, or buy athletic goods, sport managers may appeal to these interests. In order to maintain customs and ties to the sentimental components of sports participation and consumption, they must also learn to use clear commercial logic and management practices. Sport organizations and other enterprises judge performance quite differently from one another. In contrast to private or publicly traded businesses, where the goal is to maximize profits and enhance the wealth of shareholders or owners, in sports, the goal may be to win championships, provide services to stakeholders and members, or fulfill community service commitments. To ensure they have the necessary resources to meet their organization's strategic goals, sport managers need to be aware of these various organizational outcomes as well as responsible financial managers. The interdependence of connections between athletic organizations, which

compete on the field but work together off it to preserve the long-term survival of both teams and their league, is another distinctive characteristic of competitive balance. In most corporate settings, the goal is to get the highest market share, outcompete all rivals, and establish a monopoly. In sports leagues, clubs and teams depend on their rivals to be in business. As a result, they must collaborate to share resources and playing skill as well as control their behavior to increase the amount of unpredictability in game results and keep spectators interested. While such behavior can be seen as anti-competitive in certain respects, governments encourage such behavior because of sport's special characteristics.

When it comes to games or competitions, the sport product is likewise of varying quality. Often, game results are unpredictable; if one side dominates, the game will lose some of its appeal. Those who are watching the game could think that the quality has decreased as a consequence, especially if your team loses! So, compared to manufacturers of other consumer items like cell phones, vehicles, or other basic home goods, it is challenging to ensure quality in the marketplace for sports.

Sport also enjoys a high level of brand or product loyalty, with supporters less likely to swap the team or club they support or the sports codes they follow as a consequence of a disappointing match outcome or the quality of the officials. Although athletic events are difficult to replace, consumers of domestic goods have a wide variety to pick from and are willing to swap brands for reasons of price or quality. This benefit also has a drawback since followers of one sports code may find it difficult to switch to another owing to their familiarity with the traditions and practices of their current sport affiliation.

People's distinctive behaviors are influenced by sport, such as imitating their athletic idols while playing, donning their favorite player's outfit, or buying things that prominent athletes promote. Sport management and related sectors may leverage this vicarious connection with the talents, abilities, and lives of athletes to affect the consumer choices of sports fans.

A high level of optimism is also shown by sports enthusiasts, who may argue that their team is still capable of winning the next championship despite a run of poor results. It might also be claimed that franchise owners or managers in the sports industry display a high level of optimism by pointing to their star players or fresh coach as the key to their on-field success. Smith and Stewart (2010) contend that sports organizations are often hesitant to accept new technologies unless they are directly tied to sports science, where it is feasible to increase on-field performance. Sport organizations might be seen in this light as being more traditional and rooted in behavior than other organizations.

The last distinctive feature of sport is its restricted accessibility. In other sectors, businesses may raise output to keep up with demand, but in sports, teams are constrained by the duration of the season and the number of games that must be played. Due to this, they are unable to generate the most money possible from ticket sales and related profits.

The consequence for sport managers is that they must be aware of their industry, the degree of demand for their goods and services (in whatever form it may exist), and the best time to provide those goods and services. For administrators of sporting organizations and events, these distinctive aspects of sport pose considerable difficulties. The following part illustrates how these distinctive aspects of sport affect the working environment for sport organizations and their managers. It is crucial to comprehend how these qualities affect the management styles and tactics used by sport managers.

Sport Management Environment

Sport is now created and enjoyed in different ways, thanks in large part to globalization. Sport has benefited from the increased speed and diversity of communication between producers and customers that has been made possible by the increased integration of the world's economy. Users of mainstream and social media have unparalleled access to major sport events and competitions, including the Olympic Games, World Cups for rugby, cricket, and football, English Premier League football, the National Basketball Association (NBA), including Grand Slam tournaments including tennis and golf. Fans can watch these events on free-to-air, paid, or cable television, listen to them on radio and also the internet, read about game analyses, their favorite players, and teams throughout newspapers as well as magazines in both print and digital editions, receive progress scores, commentary, or vision on their smartphones or tablets through websites or social networking platforms like Twitter, and sign up for special offers. Sport managers looking to carve out a position in the increasingly congested global sport industry must be aware of their operating environment on a global scale. The effects of globalization on the ways that sport is created, consumed, and controlled are therefore one of the subjects of this book.

The majority of national governments see sport as a tool for fostering nationalism, economic growth, or social advancement. As a result, they see it as their responsibility to pass laws and rules that promote, oversee, or supervise the operations of sporting groups. Most national governments provide funding to elite sporting organizations to deliver high performance and community level training programmes, support sports organizations to bid for major events, and facilitate the construction of major stadiums. They also support elite training institutions to help develop athletes for national and international competition. In exchange for this assistance, governments may persuade sports to increase the number of mass players, provide services to specific groups within the community, or implement rules for the use of alcohol and other drugs, gambling, and general health promotion messaging. Governments also control the operations of sporting organizations by regulation or licensing in fields including corporate governance, anti-discrimination, labor relations, and anti-oppression. The effect that government financing, regulation, and policy may have on how sport is created, enjoyed, and administered is another issue in the book.

During the 1980s, there has been a comparatively quick era of professionalization in sport organization administration. Sport organizations and their managers have been forced to evolve into more professional as a result of the general growth of the global sports industry, the commercialization of sporting competitions and events, the addition of paid staff to voluntary governance structures, and the rising number of people who now make a living trying to manage sports organizations or participating in sports. The development of professional and academic associations devoted to sport management, the increase in the amount of university sport management courses, the necessity of having business skills in addition to industry-specific knowledge or experience for success in sport management, and the variety of professional people and specialists that sport managers must interact with throughout their careers are all indications of this, in addition to sports agents, sports scientists, coaches, officials, and volunteers, sport managers will collaborate with accountants, attorneys, human resource managers, taxes professionals, government policy advisers, project management staff, architects, market researchers, and media specialists. The book's subsequent chapters will focus on the increasing professionalization of sport management as a field of study and a line of work. The idea that changes in sport administration usually come from technological advancements is the book's concluding subject. Further technological advancements may be seen in fields like performance-enhancing substances, information technology, coaching and

high-performance tactics, sports arenas, sport betting and wagering, and sporting equipment, in addition to the previously mentioned developments in telecommunications. Because to these modifications, sport managers are now required to create regulations governing their usage, safeguard intellectual property having a commercial value, and generally modify their business practices to accommodate their use in attaining organizational goals. Sport administrators need to be aware of both the potential of technology advancement and its expected effects on operations in the future.

Three Sports Sector

It is helpful to think of sport as consisting of three different sectors in order to make sense of the many organizations participating in sport management and how these companies could create alliances, influence one another's operations, and conduct commerce. The first is the state or public sector, which consists of federal, state/provincial, regional, and municipal governments as well as specialized organizations that create sport policies, finance other industries, and support specialized tasks like drug control or the development of top athletes. The second is the nonprofit or voluntary sector, which consists of local clubs, regulatory bodies, and worldwide sport organizations. These organizations provide possibilities for competition and participation, oversee and maintain athletic codes, and plan significant championship events. The third sector is made up of professional or commercial sport organizations, which includes professional leagues and the teams that make up those leagues as well as related businesses like those that produce athletic gear and apparel, operate major stadiums, manage events, and operate media outlets. These three industries don't work independently of one another, and there is often a large amount of overlap. For instance, the state plays a significant role in funding nonprofit sport organizations for elite athlete programs but also sport development, and in exchange, nonprofit sport organizations offer opportunities for sport to the general public while also training athletes, coaches, officials, and administrators to maintain participation in sports. In order to create locations for professional sport to be played, the state supports the construction of large stadiums and other athletic facilities. It also provides a regulatory and legal framework for professional sport, as well as financial assistance for manufacturers and event groups. With the development of coaches, referees, and administrators to help with top events, as well as through supplying playing talent for leagues, the nonprofit sports industry supports professional sport. Even though they employ a pool of professionals as managers and players, certain sports leagues will have member teams that are nominally nonprofit organizations. In exchange, the professional sports industry promotes sports for viewers and players, and in certain circumstances, it contributes significantly via TV broadcast rights money.

Differentiations in sport management

Similar to managers in hospitals, government agencies, banks, mining corporations, auto manufacturing, and welfare groups, sport managers use management methods and theories. Some facets of strategic management, organizational structure, human resource management, leadership, organisation characteristics, financial management, marketing, governance, and performance management, however, are exclusive to the administration of sport organizations.

Strategic planning

Analysis of an organization's position in a competitive context, decision of its direction and objectives, choice of a suitable strategy, and exploitation of its unique assets are all parts of strategic management. Each sport organization's degree of success may be significantly influenced by the quality of its strategic choices. One could argue that because sport is

inherently turbulent and on-field performance but also tactics tend to dominate and divert sport managers from the decisions they need to make in the office and boardroom, nonprofit sport organizations have indeed been slow to adopt the concepts related to organizational management. Sport managers must take control of their own destiny in a cutthroat market by doing insightful market studies, charting a distinct course, and developing a plan that takes use of available chances. Future sport managers must comprehend strategic management concepts and how they might be used in the unique industrial setting of sport.

Organizational design

The structure of an organization is crucial because it establishes how employees and volunteers "fit in" with respect to job responsibilities, decision-making processes, the need for cooperation, degrees of responsibility, and reporting structures. A sport organization's structure should strike a balance between the requirement to codify processes and encourage innovation and originality, as well as provide for proper oversight of employee and volunteer activities without adversely influencing people's motivation and work attitudes. Clarifying reporting and communication channels between various internal and external stakeholder groups while attempting to eliminate superfluous and expensive layers of administration is another crucial component of managing an organization's structure in the complicated world of sport. Managing the structure of several sport organizations is made more difficult by the very unusual combination of paid employees and volunteers in the sport business.

Human resource administration

In traditional commercial or athletic organizations, human resource management primarily focuses on maintaining an efficient and happy staff. Yet, sport managers must deal with a complicated problem when it comes to human resource management because of the scale of certain sporting organizations and the challenges associated with managing a combination of paid and volunteer workers in the sports sector. Good human resources are essential for successful sport leagues, clubs, organizations, shops, and venues both on and off the field. Students of sport management also need to grasp this aspect in order to be good practitioners. Human resource management is inextricably linked to other important management skills, such as strategic planning or managing organizational culture and structure.

Leadership

Leaders of sport organizations need to be able to persuade people to follow their visions, give people the tools they need to feel like a part of a team working toward a common objective, and be skilled at collaborating with the leaders of other sport organizations to build alliances, resolve disputes, or plan joint business or development projects. The sport sector depends on organizations having executives that can work with regulatory bodies of sport, administer a professional league, and coordinate the activities of governmental organizations, international and national athletics organizations, and other groups to provide major sporting events. Students of sport management who want to work in leadership positions must comprehend how to build leadership abilities and how to put these concepts into practice.

A company's culture

The beliefs, customs, and values that people and groups within an organization uphold have an effect on workplace activities and objectives, as well as how workers interact with one another. This is what is meant by organizational culture. The effectiveness of an organization, employee loyalty, collaboration, efficiency, job performance, and decision-making are all influenced by its culture. Nonetheless, there is a lot of discussion in both the corporate and academic worlds

about how organizational culture may be identified, diagnosed, and altered. Owing to the long-standing traditions of athletic endeavor and conduct, managers of sport organizations, especially those of traditional sports or professional sports franchises, must be aware of the influence of organizational culture as an equal performance driver and an inhibitor. The education of sport managers should include learning how to recognize, characterize, analyze, and eventually impact the culture of a sport organization.

Financial administration

Applying accounting and financial decision-making techniques to the relatively distinctive income streams and expenditures associated with sport organizations called financial management in sport. Understanding the financial management concepts relating to membership revenue, ticket and product sales, sports betting money, sponsorship, broadcast rights fees, and government grants and subsidies is crucial for sport managers. Sport managers also need to be aware of how sport has evolved commercially and how it will likely be financed inside the future, particularly the shift to private ownership of sporting teams and leagues, listing of sporting clubs on stock exchanges, increased reliance on debt financing, and public-private partnerships.

Sport marketing refers to the use of marketing principles to the sale of sporting goods and services as well as the promotion of non-sporting goods via a connection to sports. Sport marketing, like other types of marketing, aims to satisfy the requirements and desires of customers. By offering customers sporting goods and services, it does this. Sport marketing, however, differs from traditional marketing in that it has the potential to indirectly promote the use of non-sport goods and services. It's critical to realize that sport marketing encompasses both the marketing of sports itself as well as the use of sports to promote other goods and services.

Media and sports

At the start of the twenty-first century, sport and the media have a unique business link, and at the top and professional levels, sport is growing more and more reliant on the media for its financial success. The structure of the sport broadcast industry, the repercussions of media diversity and convergence, the valuation of broadcasting rights, and the limitations imposed in some cases by government policy and regulation are all things that managers of highly qualified or commercial sport organizations and events need to be aware of. Sport managers must understand how to utilize social media channels to communicate, interact, and ultimately influence customer choices about their product, service, or brand in light of the rise in consumer usage of these networks.

Governance

Organizational governance is the process of exercising decision-making authority inside an organization and provides the framework for managing and directing its constituent parts. Since governance deals with issues of policy and direction again for enhancement of organizational performance but instead of day-to-day operational management decision-making, it is a particularly crucial component of managing sport organizations, many of which are controlled by elected groups of volunteers. Proper governance systems guarantee that the procedures by which these aims are attained are successfully managed and that elected officials and paid employees work to provide results that benefit the organization and its members. It is crucial that sport managers comprehend the fundamentals of good governance and how they are implemented in sporting organizations since many of them operate in settings where they are required to provide reports to governing boards.

Performance supervision

During the last 30 years, sport organizations have evolved to become more expertly managed and organized. Organizations in the sport industry have used business concepts to manage their people resources, organize their operations, and sell their goods. There are many different criteria that may be used to evaluate the effectiveness of sport organizations due to the distinctive character of these organizations and the diversity of their objectives and purposes. Students of sport management must comprehend how organizational performance may be defined, examined, and reported, as well as how these ideas can be used in the sport sector. Globalization, governmental policy, professionalization, and technical advancements are a few environmental elements that have an impact on how sport organizations function. The state or governmental sector, the nonprofit or volunteer sector, and the professional or commercial sector are three separate but connected businesses that make up the sport industry. These industries often participate in a variety of cooperative initiatives, financing agreements, joint business ventures, and other business ties. They do not function in isolation.

Strategic management, organizational structure, management of human resources, command structure, organizational culture, financial management, brand management, the relationship among both sport and the media, governance, and performance management are a few areas where managing sport organizations differs from managing other types of organizations. The rest of the book addresses each of these fundamental management difficulties in further depth while examining the three sports-related industries.

The state's involvement in the growth of sport

The many ways that the state, which is essentially the government, may affect how sports systems and practices evolve. The state's motivations for wanting to interfere with how sport is run as well as the many forms such interference might take are given special consideration. On the one hand, there is a divide between interventions that support and promote sport, and on the other, there are interventions that restrict and regulate sport. Also, a contrast is drawn between governmental programs intended to boost civic engagement and those intended to raise the performance of top athletes. The principles and theories that support state involvement in sport as well as the managerial implications that result from this intervention are shown throughout the chapter with the use of occurrences and instances.

Defining the State

The state, which we define as the institutions that regulate and control societies, has always been crucial in ensuring that individuals have access to sport-related activities. The many city governments that comprised ancient Greece financed and organised the Olympic Games and other sporting events, while reigning monarchs in Europe throughout the Middle Ages created a variety of competitions and combat games to improve the abilities of their warrior classes (Mechikoff & Estes 1993). The state increased the number of sports activities it offered as the globe got more industrialised and sophisticated. For instance, many government-funded schools and universities in the USA built athletic facilities, from pristine fields and modest indoor arenas to huge stadiums that can hold up to 80,000 people (Fort 2011). Currently, the state offers a wide range of sporting facilities and services via its government organisations. Several sporting venues across the globe were first supported by public monies; nevertheless, while being afterwards owned and run by private parties, they are today governed by public policy and regulation (John & Sheard 1997). In the majority of western countries, the central government has provided funding for both the construction and continuing operation of top

athletes' training facilities. As a consequence, the government now employs tens of thousands of instructors, sport scientists, and facility administrators.

Sport and the State The state places a high emphasis on sport, particularly in western countries, despite the fact that many people, including those with great political influence, see it as a frivolous waste of time. It is often seen as being petty, shallow, transitory, and anti-intellectual (Stebbins 2007). Howard Cossell, a US sports announcer in the 1960s, described sport as the "toy section of life." Nonetheless, millions of individuals all around the globe utilise sports to fulfil a variety of needs and desires. One detractor said that "sport is life" and everything else is only a shadow. It was important to sustain the country and develop its character to play sports, watch others play them, read about them, and discuss about them. (Horne 1964). So, does the state really belong in sports, or is it just there because it feels compelled to be? The state has a deep affection for the notion that sport may be utilised to unite a country. The state is in charge of establishing the commercial and cultural environments that enable individuals to establish not just robust but also healthy households, communities, workplaces, and neighbourhoods. The reality is that almost all contemporary nations dedicate a specific area to sport since it is believed that participating in sport has several personal and societal advantages. As in the United States, Great Britain, and Germany, this is also true of Cuba, North Korea, and China. From a global perspective, this explains why the state built so much infrastructure to support the demands of sport and why it has provided so much funding to help sport organisations provide services to participants. What exactly are these "things" that sport provides and which the state places such a high value on? Finding the advantages and societal usefulness that the state thinks the athletic experience brings about is not all that difficult.

First, by providing the framework in which proper values, attitudes, and behaviours are learned and passed down, sport is meant to contribute to society's well-being. It is said that young people who participate in sports can more easily integrate into the dominant cultural and behavioural norms of society. In this manner, it helps to keep established civilization stable and continue to exist. The idea that sports may help develop character was a tenet of the British public school system throughout the Victorian and Edwardian eras. The most idealised and romanticised accounts of the profound and culturally important experiences that were believed to result from participating in athletics may be found in the classic nineteenth-century book Tom Brown's Schooldays. Sport also instills attitudes that support and reinforce the fundamental ideals of contemporary industrial civilizations, thus it does more than just develop "character." Industrial cultures place a high value on these ideas and attitudes since they are what propel these societies forward.

These include a fervent conviction that effort, self-control, and a lot of initiative are the keys to success. They also involve deference to authority and compliance with the law. These also include leadership, hierarchy, cooperative behaviour, the drive for success, and goal attainment. These qualities and dispositions are what make for a submissive and industrious workforce. These are precisely the qualities that a state in the twenty-first century needs in its population since they allow for the development of a robust economic system and a feeling of civic pride. The newly industrialised nineteenth-century cultures were also defined by these very same principles, which enhanced their adherence to the "Protestant work ethic," which was exactly what allowed them to escape feudalism. And many people believe that playing sports is the best way to develop these ideals. Yet for the state in the twenty-first century, it doesn't stop there. It also increasingly acknowledges that sport serves a variety of additional purposes, including fostering deeper links between diverse populations and fostering the

development of a more robust and healthy society. It is thought to be a mechanism for managing and dissipating stress, for example. Some people use sports as a way to express socially inappropriate behaviour and beliefs. Mass spectator sports, for instance, may transform otherwise agitated feelings into constructive societal endeavours. Crowds of onlookers jeering the umpires and praising the players so cathartically release aggression. Sports may also raise the excitement level, which implies that many utilise them to elevate tension and stress as a break from their daily routines at work.

The state also recognises that order and conformity are just one aspect of a healthy collective psyche and that there has to be a way to leave the constrained and bureaucratic environment of modern employment in order to maintain a respectable degree of mental health. Recreational activity is the ideal outlet, and outdoor activities like bushwalking, snow skiing, and bicycle touring express this need to get away from the robotic routine of city life. Sport may be a method of "realising" oneself and escaping the secure realities of daily life, hence it also serves as a means of delivering peak experiences. As a result, sports are transformed into "holy" occasions that are filled with joy, excitement, and calm.

The state also acknowledges that sport, which springs from an innate want for freedom, symbolic significance, and the quest of excellence, has the power to convey a profound spirituality. Sport is a "natural" religion in this regard. It encompasses asceticism, reverence for the mystery and force of one's own existence, a feeling of wonder and destiny, a search for community, a yearning to participate in nature's cycles. In the liturgical part of sporting events, where costumes, rituals, and grandeur suggest a holy form of celebration with a tremble of expectation and respect, sport is also a religion. The state no longer has any doubts about sport's ability to improve societies now that it is recognised that it also produces healthy bodies and young minds. Because of this, a state that does not support sport is really depriving its residents of the chance to discover not just their ideal sporting venue, but also themselves. So, the state may confidently assert that it owes it to properly fund sport when asked to justify itself and its seeming fixation with it since undermining sport would harm the country's ability to develop and thrive economically, socially, and spiritually.

The issue with boxing

There aren't many rules that regulate how certain sports are played. Lawn bowls is a good example of a sport that is reasonably easygoing. Lawn bowlers are not subject to any extra state regulations outside of following the laws of the country. Yet, it must be acknowledged that internal rules for lawn bowls clubs' members may be rather strict, especially when it comes to attire for the playing rink. Combat sports like boxing, on the other hand, are highly controlled, especially at the professional level. Several nations have laws that establish government-controlled organisations that both licence sport promoters and players and keep an eye on how the sport is being played. While the level of regulation varies from nation to nation, professional boxing is outlawed in Norway, where there are the strictest regulations. Every boxer from Norway who wishes to fight professionally must go to another nation. Boxing not only offers community advantages but also imposes expenses on the community, which is the main cause of its problematic condition. The option to participate in a strenuous activity that demands both exceptional physical fitness and mental fortitude is one of the community advantages. There is some evidence that boxing may help underprivileged adolescents channel their energy into activities that are beneficial to society and learn crucial self-discipline. Boxing, on the other hand, is quite violent and has a high risk of injuries. There is a considerable chance of brain injury in particular, which has significant personal and societal implications. Hence, stringent control is needed to reduce the possibility of participants suffering bodily harm. More broadly,

boxing is seen as a violent sport with limited application to a civilised culture when there are laws prohibiting physical violence in public. Several medical organisations and groups want to outlaw competitive boxing because they believe it has a negative social impact on society as a whole and that everyone would benefit from its elimination. Yet, the majority of national governments disagree, and in especially at the amateur level, it is encouraged and promoted. Moreover, it continues to be a crucial component of the Olympic Games calendar. Women's boxing has also just been added to the list of Olympic sports. The long-term health of women may benefit from this endeavour, but not necessarily for their rights.

As a consequence, the state has access to a wide variety of arrangements for financing, developing, and delivering sports facilities and activities. By arguing that sport is a personal affair for people and communities and is thus best left to the market and nonprofit sectors to manage, the state may, at one extreme, withdraw itself from the growth of sports. Before the national government decided to subsidise sports facilities and programmes in the 1970s, this structure constituted the main aspect of Australian sport (Stewart et al. 2004). The national government of the USA has similarly taken a hands-off attitude to sport, leaving the market, as well as the school and university sectors, in charge of supporting and developing the activity.

Why the State Should Intervene

The state has always meddled in social matters since it gives it the opportunity to determine the country's economic and political course. More particular, the state thinks that via its many actions, it can enhance societal wellbeing. For instance, by supplying rail and road infrastructure, it may enhance transportation networks and consequently boost levels of general industrial and commercial efficiency. Similar to this, supporting the construction of schools, colleges, and hospitals may help the country's residents not only become better educated, but also increase their ability to work more effectively and actively engage in the political, social, and economic life of the country.

The state's objective of having a strong and healthy populace that can protect the country's sovereignty in times of conflict and garner worldwide acclaim and reputation via the performance of its top athletes is justified by the same kind of rationale.

At the same time, the government may want to exert greater direct control over citizen behaviour by passing legislation that outlaws things like company anti-competitiveness, industrial pollution, and different sorts of discrimination. Reduced "market externalities" are the goal here. The state has a history of regulating sport in this context to safeguard the safety of its players. One of the finest examples is boxing, where regulations are crucial to ensuring a decreased likelihood of suffering an acute injury and long-term brain damage. In boxing, the danger of injury is quite significant.

There are many good reasons for the state to wish to engage in sport because of its potential to provide large societal benefits. Sport is one of many organisations that wish to claim a portion of the government budget, but government resources and public money are constantly in short supply. Sports aid must compete with defence, health, police, social welfare, and education, and it cannot always be guaranteed. Sport has also historically been seen as being beyond the purview of government regulation in capitalist economies due to the fact that it is unrelated to business and belongs more to voluntary amateurs.

Therefore, presenting a case for government involvement in sport is not very difficult. One may argue, for instance, that not only would society benefit from having more sports facilities and services, but that without government backing, the resources allocated to sports will not be used to their full potential.

Market dysfunction and the provision of sports services

Resources are typically distributed through markets in capitalist countries like Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the USA via the interplay of supply, demand, and pricing. Markets often don't function, however, in the community's or country's best interests. Market failure is what is happening here. Market failure may happen when there is either an excess of less desired items or a lack of socially acceptable ones, which prevents markets from realising their full potential.

When there are substantial external or societal advantages in addition to private gains, market failure and undersupply occur. Private benefits, which are determined by the prices individuals are willing to pay for an experience, are the value customers get from the instant purchase of an item or service. Private gains in sports result from a variety of actions and routines. These consist of going to a significant sporting event, exercising at a gym, playing indoor cricket, or vacationing at a ski resort.

On the other hand, social benefits are the added value that a community derives from the creation of a thing or service. Above and beyond the personal rewards are these societal benefits. When social gains can be determined, society would be better served by investing more money in such initiatives. Private investors, though, often won't do this since there isn't a financial motivation. As a result, it will be up to the government to step in and utilise tax dollars to pay for more athletic facilities and services.

To put it another way, since sport has such a positive societal impact, the government should fund it to the fullest extent possible. Sport aid proponents believe that both active involvement and spectator sports may have positive social effects. The advantages of active participation in sports include better community health, decreased medical costs, a drop in crime, the instillation of discipline and character, the development of ethical standards through the imitating of sporting heroes, increased civic engagement, and the creation of social capital. Sport not only broadens social networks but also creates safer neighbourhoods and stronger communities, according to research on social capital development. Additionally, when sports teams and clubs reach out to individuals from all socioeconomic strata, the social advantages associated with social capital are increased. Contrasting this bonding social capital, which is typical of sports teams and clubs with a limited ethnic, social, or occupational foundation, is bridging social capital, or inclusive social capital. In any case, sport is seen as a fantastic social capital builder.

The social advantages of competitive and spectator sports include affiliation with a team or club on a tribal level, social cohesiveness, a feeling of civic and national pride, worldwide recognition and status, economic growth, and the bringing in of tourists and their money.

As a public benefit, sport

Another argument in favour of the state's engagement in sport is that it often serves a public or societal benefit. Public commodities are ones that may be consumed by everyone without preventing someone else from doing the same. For instance, choosing to go to the beach or supporting a champion sports team or player won't stop others from doing similar actions. Yes, having people around could improve the experience.

This is the good's non-rival attribute. Public commodities are also things that, in their most basic form, cannot be restricted from being consumed by anybody. Again, going to the beach and supporting a winning team satisfy this need. This is the aspect of the good that cannot be excluded. Public commodities are often not rationed by high costs and may provide significant

advantages to the whole population. Private investors, however, are not drawn to them since there is no guarantee that every user would foot the bill for the benefit's provision. There is a declining incentive for private operators to join the market for public goods as the number of 'free-riders' rises. In this case, it is suggested that the state should increase financing to meet this greater demand in order to guarantee a suitable infrastructure and quality of service.

CHAPTER 2

EQUITY AND INCLUSIVITY IN SPORT

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The state should support sport on the basis of equality, it might be claimed. For instance, it can be claimed that everyone in the community benefits from being physically fit and healthy, hence no one should be denied access due to financial hardship or a lack of facilities. In these situations, the best outcomes for the community can only be achieved if everyone gets access to the sports and leisure activities they need to boost their self-confidence, physical fitness, and social capital. The state may build its own low-cost sports facilities, offer subsidies to current athletic activity providers, and create special programmes for underprivileged groups in order to increase accessibility and guarantee equality of opportunity.

Size and Kind of Government Intervention

There are several ways the government may become involved in sports. The ideology, values, and overarching philosophy of the state and its ruling institutions have a significant impact on the scope of the intervention and the shape it takes. Conservative philosophy is the first. Conservative ideologies place a high priority on tradition and accepted practises. Since conservative regimes want to control people's social life, they aim to restrict any works of art or literature they deem objectionable. Also, they seek to regulate the sale of legal substances like alcohol and generally endeavour to safeguard individuals from one another. On the other side, they think that businesses should be allowed to operate naturally, where the interaction of market forces, individual self-interest, and the profit motive would guarantee a successful conclusion. Nonetheless, conservative administrations are ready to support and defend business when necessary since they think a robust private sector is the key to prosperity. Although acknowledging that most people's social lives include sport, they do not wish to support or defend it since it is not a part of the economic sector. In fact, many conservatives believe that it is a whole other universe that is best kept apart from business. This sport universe is based on the idea that when anything is done for its own sake, is played by amateurs, is run by volunteers, and is generally allowed to take care of itself, it serves its purpose best. The second philosophy is reformism, commonly referred to as social democracy, welfare statism, or reformism. The main goals of reformism are social justice and equality.

Reformers acknowledge the need for a robust private sector, but they don't trust it to provide fair and equal results. As a result, it has to be closely controlled. This might come in the shape of more state-owned businesses or stringent rules governing how businesses should conduct themselves. The conservative perspective that help and protection may be required in the public good is shared by reformists. Yet unlike conservatives, reformists prioritise social growth, which entails enacting laws that maintain both social fairness and freedom. It's crucial to ensure that affluent people and businesses pay the highest possible rates of tax in order to redistribute income to underprivileged groups. For reformists, state expenditure is also essential since it

serves as an economic stimulant during periods of low demand and spending. Reformist regimes are often more centralised and seek to utilise this authority to create beneficial societal results. Hence, reformists see sport as a vehicle for social advancement and want to increase access to sport for the whole society. In these situations, initiatives are formed to address the needs of minority groups including women, immigrants who speak a different language, the handicapped, and indigenous people. In other words, reformist government policy prioritises community development above the growth of elite sports.

The neo-liberal ideology is the third. Neoliberals think that when individuals may go about their everyday lives without the government constantly invading their privacy, society is at its healthiest. Beyond the importance of the rule of law, individuals and companies should have the freedom to arrange their social and professional life in whichever way they see suitable. Neo-liberals think that privatising public services results in more efficiency and better outcomes since they find little value in state-owned businesses. Deregulated sectors are also seen to function better than those under strict regulation. In other words, neo-liberals believe that the government should not actively participate in the majority of economic activity, but should instead merely provide minimal infrastructural and legal frameworks within which private enterprise may flourish. Even though sport is seen as a significant social institution, it shouldn't be rigorously regulated. Neo-liberals, however, also think that sport may be utilised as a tool for fostering national unity and economic growth and should be encouraged under these circumstances. This results in a sport policy that prioritises elite sport above community sport.

The last major philosophy is socialism. According to socialists, a mix of privately held businesses and unrestricted markets would result in extreme levels of inequality and alienation. As a consequence, a strong state with centrally managed resource allocation must take the place of capitalism's processes of production and distribution. Socialists and neo-liberals both acknowledge the value of sport as a social institution, but socialists argue that sport should be governed centrally to guarantee an equitable distribution of leagues and facilities throughout society. A socialist system of sport growth will thus be led by a central bureaucracy that determines the sport's priorities. The majority of the finances and resources needed to grow sport on both the amateur and professional levels are also provided by the state.

Each ideology has fairly distinct presumptions about what the legitimate function of the state should be, but it also has various views on how sport may advance social welfare. Each ideology will therefore result in a distinct outcome for sport growth, and the ideology often trumps the assertions of interest groups like sport scientists, coaches, and authorities. The four ideologies listed above provide a condensed typology, although in reality, the state often incorporates elements of each ideology when deciding how to position itself on a given sports topic or problem.

Control and Regulation

There are several circumstances in which the state may desire to restrict the resources allocated to certain sports and regulate and manage the supply of sporting events. For instance, when many people are taking part in or watching a sporting event, it may be important to adopt laws and regulations that protect public order. In the majority of nations, there exist rules that specify exactly how sports venues must be built. These regulations will address issues including design requirements, seating availability, the number of entryways and exits, and fire safety features. The conduct of spectators may likewise be governed by regulations. These rules will often have to do with drinking, unruly behaviour, and aggressive behaviour.

Horse racing is one of the most strictly controlled activities. Making sure the animals are handled decently is important, but it's also important to ensure that the gaming and gambling activities that surround the sport are strictly regulated to reduce unscrupulous activity. Horses have often been denied the chance to compete on their own merits across the globe. This may include doping practises where horses are given stimulants to make them run faster and depressants to make them move more slowly. In both situations, the goal is to destabilise the betting market by favouring the horse that has an advantage and avoiding the horse that has been halted. Such situations are occurring increasingly regularly these days in a variety of international professional team sports. Sport officials, players, and even referees have accepted payments from organised crime groups and bookies in exchange for revealing game secrets, playing badly on purpose, and making judgements that favour one side over another. The Pakistan cricket team and Italy's top football league were both engaged in two recent incidents. In each case, the government acted right away to impose stricter regulations on the contests.

The media in general and TV in particular are regulated in another way. Anti-siphoning laws exist in both Australia and England, giving free-to-air television stations preferential access to important sporting events at the cost of pay and cable television providers. This implies that before being made available to pay TV channels, a big sporting event like the Australian Football League (AFL) Grand Final must first be made available to free-to-air stations. This is done on the premise that it is best to make a sport with significant national appeal as accessible as feasible. Giving exclusive rights to a pay TV channel would be unfair given that fewer than 50% of Australian homes have pay TV subscriptions.

Sport England voiced worry in the 2013 report "Building a sporting habit for life: A new youth sport strategy" that many individuals quit playing sports once they graduate from school, so not realising their athletic potential or maintaining a healthy lifestyle. The objective is to increase the number of individuals who regularly and safely participate in sport throughout their lives, regardless of their social or economic status.

These worries sparked the creation of a "Youth Sport Strategy" with the following objectives: to encourage more young people to make sport a "habit for life"

Sport England will spend £1 billion to enable young people play sport more often and to help remove current obstacles that make participation challenging.

To enhance the sporting "offer," Sport England will collaborate with schools, colleges, and universities, local county sports partnerships, the national governing bodies for sport, local governments, and the nonprofit sector.

Sport England will work to steadily raise the percentage of individuals who play sport frequently, focusing in particular on the 14 to 25 age range.

Sport England will strive to develop at least 6,000 relationships between schools and neighbourhood sports organisations by 2017 and will work with sports including football, cricket, rugby union, rugby league, and tennis.

In addition to the 90 million previously committed under Sport England's Places, People, and Play initiative, Sport England will spend an additional £160 million in new and improved sports facilities.

Nonetheless, UFC changed its name to MMA in 2001. It had a new governing body and transformed what was often considered a freak show into a sport that was very nearly legal. Kickboxing, wrestling, karate, jiu-jitsu, and judo are among the many fighting styles that highly trained competitors combine in one battle in the renamed and remarketed combat sport known

as mixed martial arts (MMA). Because of this, mixed martial artists can no longer depend on having a few intimidating tattoos and having a lot of experience fighting in bars to succeed in the sport.

Regulatory Scene-Setting

The Athletic Commission (AC) of the pertinent state in which an event is being promoted regulates the sport of mixed martial arts (MMA), which is most popular in the USA. These ACs have a proven track record of controlling boxing. The majority of US states have enacted the regulations created in 2001 for New Jersey and Nevada. These regulations encompass both professional and amateur mixed martial arts, and they address a number of significant concerns, such as: Events are overseen directly by the AC, who also handles the weigh-ins, officiating, and judging. If a fighter fails a pre-fight medical, which may involve eye testing, a physical exam, and blood tests to determine his or her HIV status, the AC has the right to refuse to grant them a licence. In light of any injuries they may have incurred, they might also impose restrictions on combatants engaging in contact for a certain amount of time. Also, they will decide whether or not to licence a bout depending on how well the combatants were matched based on their respective skill levels. Competitive balance is always a priority, and excessively biassed matchups are often looked upon. The degree of supervision, however, may differ from one event to another. One AC may use a different amount of scrutiny than another, for example. This implies that the oversight of a competition at the top of the sport is typically stricter than that of events on the local circuit. As things like post-match brain scans may cost over US$2,000 for individual players, intensive medical testing is sometimes overlooked in lower level events.

Combat Procedures

Athletes will fight in many rounds of 3-5 minutes each under the MMA's unified rules. Five 5-minute championship rounds will take place in the ring or cage. Similar to boxing, a 10-point system is used for scoring. The round will provide 10 points to the victor and nine points or less to the loser. In contrast to boxing, MMA battles are judged on how well opponents defend themselves on the ground. Points are also awarded for takedown attempts, submissions, and effective defence tactics. Points are then given out for ring-craft.

Knockouts, stoppages ordered by the referee, the participant's "corner," or the accompanying physician are all possible ways for a fight to conclude. Another way for the battle to finish is for one of the competitors to submit. When a fight is won via submission, the combatant "taps out," or indicates that he's had enough, either physically or verbally. extended to include Australia and Canada, as well as other countries of the former British Empire. Several European nations, notably those with long coasts like Spain, France, Italy, and Great Britain, were members of the first recognised international lifesaving organisation (the FIS), which was founded in 1910.

With the country's warm temperature and hundreds of miles of swimmable ocean beaches surrounding most of the populous regions, surf lifesaving, which is focused on ocean rather than bayside beaches, has a particularly fascinating history in Australia. Between 1903 and 1907, clubs were established in Australia in response to a string of drownings at nearby Sydney beaches. The Bronte Surf Lifesaving Club, which was founded in 1903, asserts that it was the first "surf" club ever. The Bondi Surf Bather's Lifesaving Club similarly said that it was the world's first lifesaving club at the time, although it was actually founded in 1907 instead. The Kiama Surf Bather's Club, founded in 1908, was the first club to be established outside of Sydney. The need for these clubs and others like them arose from the relaxation of the

regulations forbidding daytime swimming on Australian beaches. Thousands more swimmers entered the ocean as a consequence, and volunteer groups of men—women were not originally encouraged to join lifesaving clubs—were later educated in lifesaving techniques and began patrolling the beaches as lifesavers protecting the public. Australia now has more than 300 surf lifesaving groups, which together patrol more than 400 beaches. Lifesavers are among the most recognisable people in Australian sport because they have performed so many important duties with such panache, flair, and support from their physical prowess and knowledge. Despite the fact that the UK lacks Australia's vibrant beach culture, the RLSA oversees a robust network of lifeguard services and lifesavers across the country. The majority of the popular beaches in the UK now have lifeguards, giving kids the chance to join lifesaving programmes. Similar to the Australian scenario, this allows students to start young, increase their confidence in the water, get a better understanding of the sea's various stormy qualities, and acquire the abilities necessary to save lives in the future. There are lifeguards on duty all summer long in several of the smaller coastal destinations in the UK due to their high summer tourist traffic. For instance, Cardigan Bay, which is located along Wales' west coast, features a number of beaches that attract visitors throughout the summer and also provide a variety of trained lifeguards and lifesavers.

The World Lifesaving Organisation (WLS), which was founded in 1971 and included nations including New Zealand, the UK, South Africa, and the United States, declared its goal to save beachgoers worldwide. The International Life Saving Federation was formed when this organisation eventually amalgamated with the FIS. Its goal is to "lead...support and work with national and international organisations active in drowning prevention, water safety, water rescue, lifesaving, lifeguarding, and lifesaving sport," according to its mission statement. (www.ilsf.org). Due to its extensive worldwide activities, lifeguards and lifesavers are currently present on every prominent coastline in the globe. The role of a lifeguard and rescuer is not only physically taxing but also expensive to maintain, which is another crucial factor to remember. This is due to the fact that it is a labor-intensive technique, requires substantial training, and must be performed in a variety of environments. The tiny coastline region of Belgium, which is slightly about 70 kilometres long, is one of several coastal locations in Europe that are guarded by lifeguards. The Red Cross organisation handles work in Germany, while the National Life Saving Society of Italy and the Italian Swimming Association handle it in Germany. Certain coastal regions in Europe, including those in Portugal and Spain, are so lengthy that lifeguards on quad bikes must sometimes patrol them.

There are differences between lifeguards who work at surf beaches, bayside beaches, and swimming pools in Britain and Australia. The National Pool Lifeguard Qualification and the National Aquatic Rescue Standard are both taught by the Royal Life Saving Society and the Swimming Teachers Association. The lifeguard training takes around 40 hours to complete and, once completed, is good for two years. Someone who wants to continue working as a lifeguard must undergo an additional 20 hours of training. The National Beach Lifeguard Qualification (NBLQ), offered by the Royal Lifesaving Society, is a personal certification for beach employment that requires training in a number of courses, including rescue boat operation and VHF radio operation. All of this is quite remarkable and guarantees that Britain's beaches and swimming pools are properly run and overseen.

For the construction of secure beaches and swimming pools, all of these worldwide advancements are necessary, but they raise the issue of how they are paid for. They are, after all, substantially subsidised by the government. Consider the recent changes that have taken place in Australia. In addition to the yearly financing provisions, the state of New South Wales sponsored surf lifesaving facilities with AUS$20 million between 2008 and 2013. The funds

were used for improvements that enhance beach safety, such as increased access to rescue tools and enhanced visibility between clubs and swimming areas. A portion of the money was also used to support surf lifesaving clubs in improving the accessibility of their facilities for persons with disabilities, including young people from non-English speaking backgrounds, and adding amenities for women. The national governing organisation for surf lifesaving, Surf Life Saving Australia (SLSA), receives close to 30% of its $30 million in yearly income from the Australian federal government (SLSA 2012). This implies that it would not have been feasible without the very kind help of the government, much like in the majority of other countries throughout the globe that provide significant lifesaving services.

This raises the further and very significant issue of why the government would wish to subsidise lifesaving and lifeguard services when the community that utilises the services might, instead, pay for it.

Sport without profit

The state or public sector, the commercial or professional sport sector, and the nonprofit or volunteer sector are three separate but overlapping sectors that make up the sport industry. This chapter focuses on the model's nonprofit or voluntary sector, which includes all of the many athletic groups that fall under this category. Nonprofit organisations are known by a number of names and operate in a wide range of economic sectors and nations all over the globe. Included in this group are the phrases voluntary, not-for-profit, non-governmental, community, club-based, associations, co-operatives, friendly societies, civil society, and third sector. For the purposes of this book, we have decided to refer to organisations that are institutionally independent of the state, do not provide profits to owners, are self-governing, rely heavily on voluntary contributions, and are technically organised as nonprofit organisations. The nonprofit sport industry consists of both profit-seeking groups and organisations that vary noticeably from state entities. The size, scope, and capabilities of nonprofit organisations vary, and they may be as varied as neighbourhood associations, chambers of commerce, private schools, charity trusts and foundations, welfare organisations, or sports teams. Several businesses, including those in the health services, education, housing, welfare, culture, and sport, heavily rely on nonprofit organisations. The word "nonprofit" simply refers to the fact that these organisations do not function primarily to produce profits to reward their owners; it does not imply that they operate at a loss or do not have a surplus of income over costs.

Community nonprofits and society

Nonprofit organisations exist to foster community growth, provide for the needs of distinct and identifiable groups within such communities, and advance the public good rather than focusing on the accumulation of personal riches. Nonprofit groups, which are mostly driven by the efforts of volunteers with sporadic help from paid personnel, have developed to cover gaps in the supply of services like social assistance that are not offered by the state or market sector.

Canada said that these groups serve as vehicles for citizen participation by allowing people to invest their time, skill, and energy in activities and causes that are not often supported by the public or commercial sectors. In general, nonprofit organisations are administered by volunteers, rely on their time and financial support, and provide volunteers the opportunity to improve their local, regional, national, and international communities. In order to provide their services, Canada's more than 161,000 nonprofit organisations rely on more than 2 billion volunteer hours and more than CAN $8 billion in contributions. Statistics Canada (2004) reports that 139 million Canadians, or four memberships per person, have joined these organisations. These statistics demonstrate how important the nonprofit sector is to the

economies of many countries and how important it is in motivating individuals to participate in social, religious, charitable, philanthropic, and sporting activities. Nonprofit organisations often concentrate on providing services to narrowly defined populations or geographic regions. Just a handful of them concentrate exclusively on delivering services to members, while the majority provide services to certain groups. Nonprofit organisations engage in a wide range of activities, from paying medical and hospital services to offering athletic opportunities. As a consequence, nonprofit organisations have different income streams, cost structures, numbers of paid employees and volunteers, and level of management system complexity.

There are issues in the nonprofit sector. The largest nonprofit institutions, such independent schools, universities, and hospitals, get the bulk of financing, and over half of this money is provided by the government. Nonprofit groups in various fields continue to lack the resources needed to meet demand, especially in the welfare, housing, and philanthropic sectors. The incapacity of nonprofit organisations to carry out their purposes as a result of challenges locating sufficient numbers of volunteers, board members, and sustainable finance is by far the largest issue they face. Nonprofit organisations will find it more and more difficult to function as governments around the world try to cut costs and transfer responsibility for service delivery to the private and nonprofit sectors without adequately funding such delivery. Of particular interest are those organisations that operate on a nonprofit basis in sport, such as professional service organisations, industry lobby groups, sport event organisations, and sport governing bodies.

Similar to professional associations like certifying medical boards, associations for attorneys, and associations for accountants, nonprofit professional service organisations function in sports. These organisations support the development of best practises in their respective fields, give professional certification to qualified members, and provide chances for professional growth via training courses, conferences, and seminars. While they do business as usual, their objective is to enhance service delivery and return surpluses to members rather than to make money for the owners.

An organisation that represents professionals in Australia's fields of health education, physical education, recreation, sport, dance, community fitness, and movement sciences is called the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. One of ACHPER's responsibilities is to promote and provide athletic possibilities, as well as to accredit and educate those who wish to work as community fitness instructors. It also offers professional development programmes for teachers. The British Institute of Sports Administration, the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Dance, the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, and New Zealand's Institute of Sport Administration are comparable organisations (Physical Education New Zealand).

Across the globe, a variety of industry lobby groups that represent the interests of nonprofit athletic organisations are active. The Central Council of Physical Recreation (CCPR), the organisation that represents national sports groups, is a prime example. In order to advance their interests before the government and other participants in the sports sector, it serves as the independent umbrella organisation for national governing and representative organisations of sport and leisure in the UK. Sport Industry Australia, a comparable charity in Australia, performs this function. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the Commonwealth Games Federation are two of the biggest and most significant sporting event organisations in the world that are nonprofit (CGF). Baron Pierre de Coubertin established the International Olympic Committee (IOC), an independent nonprofit body that acts as the governing body of the Olympic Movement, in 1894. The major responsibility of the IOC is to oversee the planning

of the summer and winter Olympic Games. The IOC has received a lot of criticism in recent years for bad governance methods, claims of official corruption, and for not doing more to distribute Olympic Games earnings to the countries who need them the most. As a result, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has significantly enhanced its reporting to member organisations, ensuring far better openness for how funds are allocated to National Olympic Committees and via a range of sport development initiatives worldwide.

The CGF's function is to organise a major sporting event every four years, much like the IOC, but it also offers education support for the growth of sports in all 53 Commonwealth nations. Although certain nations, like the UK, have seven CGAs (Scotland, England, Northern Ireland, Wales, Isle of Man, Jersey, and Guernsey), each of which participates in the Games as a different country, there are more Commonwealth Games Associations (CGA) than countries (53). (www.commonwealthgames.com). Both the IOC and CGF get funding from the nations that are hosting the games, as well as through the sale of international television rights, business sponsorship, ticket sales, licence sales, and merchandise sales. Several specialised nonprofit groups that target certain community groups are also available. The International Paralympic Committee (IPC), the world's leading representative body for elite sports for athletes with impairments, is foremost among them. The IPC oversees, organises, and directs multi-disability sports contests at the highest level, including the Paralympic Games (www.paralympic.org). The International Blind Sport Federation and the Cerebral Palsy International Sports and Recreation Association are two comparable nonprofit organisations that organise significant sporting events for athletes. The rest of this chapter will concentrate on sport regulating bodies and sports clubs, which are nonprofit organisations that provide opportunity for its members and other members of the public to participate in athletic competitions or events. Almost all athletic teams and tournaments are run by nonprofit sport organisations in nations with club-based sporting systems including Australia, the UK, Canada, New Zealand, Hong Kong, and others (Lyons 2001). These groups come in a variety of shapes. They include regional associations that organise competitions between clubs, state or provincial organisations that not only organise competitions but also manage coach development, talent identification, volunteer training, marketing, and sponsorship, and small local clubs that may enter a few teams in a local football competition. They also include national sporting organisations that manage elite athlete programmes, hire development officers to run clinics, manage elite athlete programmes, coordinate national championships between state or provincial teams, and perform a variety of other tasks that facilitate participation in sport. International sports federations, which promote rule changes and communication between nations on matters like international events, organise the growth of sport globally.

All of these sport organisations have one thing in common: they all have a nonprofit mission. They all exist to make it easier for their members, who might be individual players, coaches, officials, or administrators, clubs, associations, or other sport organisations, to participate in sports. Moreover, they are depending on one another for playing talent, access to competition information, resources for coach, official, and player development, and financial support for their endeavours. Volunteers play crucial roles in decision-making and service delivery at all levels of nonprofit sport organisations, which is a vital fact to keep in mind. Yet many of the bigger nonprofit sports organisations also have a sizeable paid workforce that helps with continuing administration and providing services to member associations and clubs.

Sport Governing Bodies Sport clubs participate in competitions that are organised by regional, state- or province-wide sports organisations. Teams from states participate in tournaments organised by national sports bodies, whereas teams from countries play in leagues or events run by larger competition bodies like the International Olympic Committee or the

Commonwealth Games Association. These groups, sometimes known as governing bodies for sport, are in charge of managing, administering, and developing a sport on a worldwide, a national, a state or provincial, or a regional scale. The links between these numerous sport governing organisations are shown by the structure of the International Netball Federation Limited (IFNA). 39 national organisations from five continents Africa, Asia, the Americas, Europe, and Oceania make up the membership of IFNA. The world governing organisation, which is in charge of establishing netball's rules, organising international competitions, encouraging good management in the regions, working to get netball recognised as an Olympic sport, and boosting participation levels around the world, elects two representatives from each region to lead its operations.

More over 350,000 players are enrolled with Netball Australia, one of the 39 IFNA members, and they play for eight state/provincial organisations. They in turn have 541 associated associations in total. Each of the state/provincial associations has a representative on the national board who, along with the Netball Australia staff, is in charge of informing members of IFNA rule changes, running a national competition, encouraging good management in the state/provincial organisations, boosting national participation, and submitting bids to host international competitions. With 110,000 registered players competing in 250 affiliated organisations throughout the state, grouped into 21 regions and six zones, Netball Victoria is one of Netball Australia's biggest members. With responsibility for coach, official, and player development, managing state competitions, encouraging good management in the clubs, providing insurance for players, aiding in facility development, attempting to increase participation in the state, bidding to host national events, and managing two teams in the national competition, Netball Victoria's role differs noticeably from that of Netball Australia and IFNA. Netball clubs also manage volunteers, organise fundraisers, field teams, locate coaches and players, and may own and run facilities.

It's crucial to keep in mind that the volunteers who work for these sport regulating bodies participate in decisions at every level, from clubs to worldwide federations. Nonprofit sport organisations do not function as top-down power structures, with clubs constantly adhering to regional instructions or national governing bodies concurring with global policy efforts, as was mentioned in Chapter 12. These groups may have conflicting agendas and localised problems, which may make it challenging for them to communicate and agree. The nonprofit sport system must function with an attitude of compromise and collaboration. For the majority of nonprofit athletic organisations, the straightforward exercise of power in a conventional organisational structure is inappropriate.

CHAPTER 3

SPORT DEVELOPMENT

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The local or community sports club is at the heart of sport development in nations like Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the UK. It is important to take some time to consider the function of sports clubs, the environment in which volunteers and staff operate, and the contribution that clubs make to the growth of sports. Sport clubs in Scotland are profiled in a background study for Sport Scotland that was first created in 2001 and updated in 2002. (Allison 2002). The multiplicity of neighbourhood sports groups is what stands out the most. Sport clubs provide a wide variety of chances for individuals to participate in sport, and they have many different roles, structures, resources, values, and beliefs. The majority of clubs provide participation in a single sport and place more emphasis on having fun playing sports than on winning competitions. The average membership size of sport clubs in Scotland is 133, and most of them cater to both youth and adult athletes. They have minimal structures, employees, revenue, and outlays, and often depend on a small number of hired or unpaid people to plan and manage club activities. Clubs often run on their own since membership fees make up the bulk of their revenue. In Scotland, local sports clubs are managed via a "organic and intuitive process" that relies more on experience and trust than on written agreements and standards of conduct. Local sports clubs in various nations have comparable qualities. The great majority of sports clubs depend nearly entirely on volunteers to run their organisations, aid with training, match day activities, and fundraising in addition to teaching, refereeing, and managing their clubs.

Administrators

The organization's general leadership, direction, and oversight are the responsibilities of administrators who serve in positions as elected or appointed committee members. The Australian Sports Commission states that although governance is discussed in length in Chapter 13, it is essential to highlight here that a club's capacity to carry out these activities successfully will vary depending on its resources, culture, and the calibre of its willing participants. At a local sports club, the chairman or president, secretary, treasurer, and volunteer coordinator are crucial administrative positions. Responsibility for coaching, officiating, representative teams, match day arrangements, fundraising, or marketing may fall within the purview of other committee positions.

The committee's chairman or president should be the one to define the agenda for meetings, work to determine the club's strategic direction, preside over committee meetings, and oversee the work of other committee members. Club secretaries are in charge of maintaining mail, documents, and information concerning club activities. They serve as the administrative liaison between club members, the committee, and other organisations. The treasurer is in charge of creating the yearly budget, keeping tabs on spending and income, forecasting future financial requirements, and handling operational concerns such petty cash, payments, and banking. The duties of a volunteer coordinator include creating systems and practises for managing volunteers, including planning, recruiting, training, and rewarding them.

Coaches

Depending on the sport and the resources available to each club, coaches within the sport club system may be paid or unpaid. In order for athletes to improve their abilities and knowledge, acquire winning strategies, and enjoy their sport, coaches play a crucial role. Coaches serve as crucial role models for sportsmen and players. For coaches to enhance their abilities and expertise to coach at the local, state/provincial, national, or international levels, most sports provide a systematic training and accreditation programme. A three-tier National Coaching Accreditation System (NCAS) was created in Australia, for instance, by the Australian Coaching Council in 1978. A level 1 beginning course, a level 2 intermediate course, and a level 3 advanced course in coaching are all available to coaches.

Officials

Any those who officiate games or events as referees, umpires, judges, scorers, or timekeepers are considered sports officials. The majority of officials work for free, however other sports, like basketball and some other football codes, pay officials at all levels, allowing individuals to make a good living off of officiating full-time. Unless they are at the state or national championship level, officials in other sports like netball, softball, or tennis are seldom paid. Sports officials play a crucial role in encouraging people to participate in sport, but they are the most difficult posts to fill in the nonprofit sport system since they take up so much time and sometimes have poor status.

Similar to how coaches get systematic training and certification, officials in all sports may advance their knowledge and expertise at the local, state/provincial, national, or international levels. The 1994 establishment of the Australian National Officiating Accreditation System (NOAS), which was modelled after the NCAS, does not impose formal degrees of officiating since they differ widely amongst sports. Through training programmes that include three components (1) general principles of officiating and event management, (2) sport-specific technical rules, interpretations, reporting, and specific roles, and (3) practise at officiating and applying the officiating principles—the NOAS seeks to develop and implement programmes that improve the quality, quantity, leadership, and status of sports officiating in Australia.

Broader volunteers

Sports organisations rely on volunteers for a variety of tasks, including fundraising, organising representative teams, assisting with matchday logistics like parking and stewarding, and marketing the organisation. The majority of general volunteers already have a connection to a sports club, either via the parent of a player, another family tie, or through friends and coworkers who are active in the club. A thorough overview of volunteer activity in a variety of activities was given in the Volunteering Australia booklet Snapshot 2004: Volunteering Report Card from 2004. An estimated 4.3 million Australians over the age of 15 participated in organised sport and physical exercise in the year before April 2004; this represents 27% of the country's total population. A third of them—1.5 million people—were engaged in more than one non-playing activity, including serving as a coach, official, administrator, scorekeeper, or other non-playing job. Just roughly 12% of these participants got compensation for their work, hence 88% of the 1.5 million participants in non-playing positions were volunteers. 60% of these 1.5 million persons also participated in sports. The bulk of activity that didn't include participating was in youth sports. The statistics between 1993 and 2004 showed that although the number of persons coaching remained constant, the number of people participating in officiating and administration decreased. Comparing data sets may be challenging owing to variations in sampling techniques and equipment. The fact that the bulk of individuals would

be volunteers draws attention to the potential vulnerability of a sporting system that depends on volunteers to promote participation. A 1998 study on New Zealand's voluntary involvement found that slightly under 20% of adults participated in volunteer work in the physical recreation industry (Hillary Commission 2000). With individuals offering an average of 2.7 hours each week, these jobs comprised 11.1 percent as coaches, 8.7 percent as officials, and 8.8 percent as administrators. This volunteer contribution was calculated to be worth over NZ$900 million annually, or more than 77% of the comparable full-time staff. These numbers unequivocally demonstrate the significant impact that volunteers make in jobs like coaches, officials, and administrators that encourage people to participate in sport. Yet, there are some alarming indications that such volunteerism may be waning, and that the management of sport volunteers has to be improved in order to maintain present levels of interest in sport.

All of these sport organisations have one thing in common: they all have a nonprofit mission. They all exist to make it easier for their members, who might be individual players, coaches, officials, or administrators, clubs, associations, or other sport organisations, to participate in sports. Moreover, they are depending on one another for playing talent, access to competition information, resources for coach, official, and player development, and financial support for their endeavours. Volunteers play crucial roles in decision-making and service delivery at all levels of nonprofit sport organisations, which is a vital fact to keep in mind. Yet many of the bigger nonprofit sports organisations also have a sizeable paid workforce that helps with continuing administration and providing services to member associations and clubs.

Sport Governing Bodies Sport clubs participate in competitions that are organised by regional, state- or province-wide sports organisations. Teams from states participate in tournaments organised by national sports bodies, whereas teams from countries play in leagues or events run by larger competition bodies like the International Olympic Committee or the Commonwealth Games Association. These groups, sometimes known as governing bodies for sport, are in charge of managing, administering, and developing a sport on a worldwide, a national, a state or provincial, or a regional scale. The links between these numerous sport governing organisations are shown by the structure of the International Netball Federation Limited (IFNA). 39 national organisations from five continents—Africa, Asia, the Americas, Europe, and Oceania—make up the membership of IFNA. The world governing organisation, which is in charge of establishing netball's rules, organising international competitions, encouraging good management in the regions, working to get netball recognised as an Olympic sport, and boosting participation levels around the world, elects two representatives from each region to lead its operations.

More over 350,000 players are enrolled with Netball Australia, one of the 39 IFNA members, and they play for eight state/provincial organisations. They in turn have 541 associated associations in total. Each of the state/provincial associations has a representative on the national board who, along with the Netball Australia staff, is in charge of informing members of IFNA rule changes, running a national competition, encouraging good management in the state/provincial organisations, boosting national participation, and submitting bids to host international competitions. With 110,000 registered players competing in 250 affiliated organisations throughout the state, grouped into 21 regions and six zones, Netball Victoria is one of Netball Australia's biggest members. With responsibility for coach, official, and player development, managing state competitions, encouraging good management in the clubs, providing insurance for players, aiding in facility development, attempting to increase participation in the state, bidding to host national events, and managing two teams in the national competition, Netball Victoria's role differs noticeably from that of Netball Australia

and IFNA. Netball clubs also manage volunteers, organise fundraisers, field teams, locate coaches and players, and may own and run facilities.

It's crucial to keep in mind that the volunteers who work for these sport regulating bodies participate in decisions at every level, from clubs to worldwide federations. Nonprofit sport organisations do not function as top-down power structures, with clubs constantly adhering to regional instructions or national governing bodies concurring with global policy efforts. These groups may have conflicting agendas and localised problems, which may make it challenging for them to communicate and agree. The nonprofit sport system must function with an attitude of compromise and collaboration. For the majority of nonprofit athletic organisations, the straightforward exercise of power in a conventional organisational structure is inappropriate.

In order to accommodate the wants of a variety of "clients" rather than just the conventional member, volunteers at the club level must now manage their organisations in an increasingly competitive leisure market. Individuals who are unfamiliar with a sport may find it difficult to distinguish between community clubs and for-profit facilities, and they may look to volunteers to fulfil their needs without being involved in club activities. As an example, consider the parent who uses the nonprofit athletic club as a low-cost alternative for child care by dropping off and picking up their kid without contributing any time, effort, or expertise to the club's operation. The ability of volunteers and charity sports groups to handle these challenges varies greatly. Some have established resources and methods, while others teeter from crisis to crisis, always playing catch up. The people most impacted are community-based groups and volunteers. The 2003 study suggested using a variety of adaptable and useful strategies to help nonprofit sport groups handle these demands. Better education and training materials, streamlined government funding requirements, lowered compliance burdens for reporting for sports organisations, and speaking to nonprofit sports organisations in a manner more in line with their core values of individual volunteer motivations and commitment rather than overly formal business and management language were some of these.

Nonprofit organisations are those that are technically formed, are institutionally independent from the state, do not distribute profits to owners, are self-governing, and have a large component of volunteerism. Nonprofit organisations exist to foster community growth, provide for the needs of distinct and identifiable groups within such communities, and advance the public good rather than focusing on the accumulation of personal riches. Volunteers, as opposed to paid personnel, are the main force behind the majority of nonprofit organisations.

Professional service organisations, industry advocacy groups, sport event organisers, and sport governing bodies are examples of sports organisations that run on a nonprofit basis. The majority of nonprofit sports organisations, including sport governing bodies and sports clubs, provide chances for their members and other members of the public to participate in athletic competitions or events. All of these sports organisations have one thing in common: a nonprofit mission. They all exist to help its members, who might be individual players, coaches, officials, or administrators, clubs, associations, or other sports organisations, have access to athletic possibilities. Moreover, they are depending on one another for playing talent, access to competition information, resources for coach, official, and player development, and financial support for their endeavours. Sport regulatory bodies and clubs depend nearly entirely on volunteers to run, manage, and run their businesses as well as to teach, officiate, and generally help with events, training, and fundraising. Governments are seeking to influence the nonprofit sector of sport's operations more and more as a result of the substantial funding that has been given to nonprofit sport organisations by governments to support their initiatives in areas of popular involvement or elite performance. The dependence of the sports system on volunteers,

the rising costs of insurance for nonprofit sport organisations as a result of society's increased litigiousness, the trend away from traditional sports, serious capacity issues, and the additional complexity of these organisations' governance and management requirements are just a few of the challenges facing the nonprofit sport sector.

Exercise Australia

In addition to the added complexity of being a multi-disciplinary sport and having commercial operators involved in the sport delivery pathway, this case study explores the challenges faced by nonprofit sport organisations in delivering sport through a network of volunteer controlled community based organisations. Being the Australian affiliate of the International Gymnastics Federation, Gymnastics Australia's mission is to represent the interests of gymnastics in Australia (FIG). Gymnastics Australia organises and provides for Australian athletes, coaches, and officials to compete in gymnastics in sanctioned national and international tournaments in collaboration with association members (state associations). The association encompasses seven essential gymnastics disciplines: cheering, rhythmic, trampoline, aerobic, acrobatic, and men's and women's artistic gymnastics (the "classic" forms of gymnastics). Gymnastics for Everyone, a programme that serves as the foundation for all Gymsports and is a Gymsport in and of itself, is also offered by Gymnastics Australia. Before gymnasts specialise in any of the other Gymsports, clubs may use Gymnastics for Everyone to introduce the foundations. As an alternative, clubs may concentrate on Gymnastics for Everyone, which produces gymnasts with a wide range of abilities and flexibility in their movement. The International Federation of Gymnastics (FIG) has divided Gymnastics for Everyone into two categories: Gymnastics with equipment and Gymnastics with Dancing. Display Gymnasts may perform in club, state, national, and worldwide display competitions, which is a significant and vibrant component of Gymnastics for Everyone. Gymnastics for Everyone is the umbrella organisation providing KinderGym programmes for kids under the age of five. Club activities that adhere to the KinderGym Guiding Principles are grounded on the idea that children learn best through play.

Every nonprofit sports organisation that delivers sport opportunities—the sport's "product"—to a range of "agents" (clubs, schools, and corporations) has the constant challenge of upholding minimal service delivery standards while operating on a shoestring budget. For affiliated gymnastics clubs, Gymnastics Australia has created Club 10, a quality assurance and risk management strategy. Clubs may go through the five stages of certification by self-evaluation, external assessment, and endorsement, entailing a number of checklists and application procedures. There are five Club 10 Accreditation Categories (Star 1 to Star 5) with different compliance criteria for each. Star 3 is the standard for all clubs (the "middle ground"), where clubs must provide supporting paperwork and proof of conformity with all Club 10 National Standards.

Club 10 was created to provide the required knowledge to allow gymnastics clubs to construct such systems as well as to assist those who operate gymnastics clubs in understanding how to design and maintain management systems that would ensure quality. Every service industry, including a gymnastics club, will be supported by management systems provided they are properly thought out and developed. Club 10 may make excellent commercial sense and should also result in changes inside each gymnastics club, even if not all clubs will need to completely reorganise their procedures to reach national standards. The use of quality management systems in a gymnastics club has various benefits. Improvements to both internal processes and external activities may be a result of quality assurance and risk management. With the help of the system, clubs can enhance their performance in areas such as promotion and marketing, technical development, membership, information, services, compliance, planning, leadership,

management, communication, facilities, and equipment—all common problems for nonprofit sports organisations. According to the GA website, Club 10 is intended to help gymnastics clubs assess current performance and lay a strong basis for success in the future. A thorough, impartial evaluation gives a general picture of how well the club's processes and activities adhere to the values and National Standards of Club 10. Reviewing the club's management practises and performance against a benchmark model of excellence established by and for gymnastics clubs is what Club 10 is all about.

While GA created Club 10, the eight associated state and territory organisations really offer the procedure to clubs who want to connect with their particular state or territory association. GA enforces minimal requirements via its member organisations, which serve as the foundation for earning the first level of the Club 10 certification ratings. In addition to joining as clubs, individuals may join as athletes, coaches, or judges. Athletes register as members so that their performance and development can be tracked, and coaches and judges register so that GA can be confident that the proper individuals are receiving the right training and have developed the necessary abilities to fulfil their positions as coach or judge.

British Hockey

This case study investigates the challenges that charity sports groups confront while trying to provide sport via a network of volunteer-run community-based organisations. According to the chapter, nonprofit sport organisations' capacity varies greatly depending on the local environment in which they operate, the level of support they receive from their local government authority, their asset base, the competitiveness of the local market (i.e., how many other sports can people choose to play), and crucially, the management system used by their volunteers and their individual abilities, skills, and experience in managing a sport organ The national governing body (NGB) for field hockey in England is called England Hockey. The English Hockey Association (EHA), which succeeded England Hockey as of January 2003, had been established in 1996 to bring together the then-separate men's, women's, and mixed organisations. In order to coach, officiate, and manage the sport, England Hockey has around 70 full-time employees who collaborate with volunteers at the club, county, regional, and national levels. The European Hockey Federation (EHF) and the International Hockey Federation are both members of England Hockey (FIH). The creation of the "Rules of Hockey," which are the regulations that are adhered to by all players and officials taking part in the game, is the responsibility of the FIH. The purpose of England Hockey is to oversee all levels of hockey in England, from recreational to professional.

Regional and County Associations are given control over the game's governance at the regional and local levels. The three single service Associations are represented by six regional associations: East, Midlands, North, South, West, and the Combined Services. Counties are associated with their specific Region. These organisations unite clubs at the local level and make sure that information spreads up and down the game hierarchy. They are also in charge of carrying out England Hockey's disciplinary code. The Regional Consultative Committee (RCC), which supports the work of the Board to ensure that it is operating in accordance with the agreed-upon Memorandum & Articles of England Hockey and follows best practises in terms of the financial management of the company's affairs, is made up of representatives from the Regional Associations. There are more than 1050 connected clubs with England Hockey. Also affiliated with their county and regional associations are these clubs. The foundation of club activity, according to the England Hockey website, is league hockey, which is organised through regional and county leagues and is primarily played on artificial turf fields on Saturdays. The top men's and women's clubs play nationally in the English Hockey League,

whose men's game is played on Sunday. Similar to how teams go through leagues, umpires advance from the grassroots of the game to the national and international level. Parallel umpiring organisations and committees guarantee that the games are handled, if feasible, by adequately trained officials.

Clubs often have between one and twenty teams that regularly use a local hockey field or pitch, either at a school or a recreation centre, and will use a tavern (hotel) for post-match social activities. Other teams will have their own stadium and clubhouse (es). Training throughout the week will be another club activity, and a rising number of clubs operate with young people on weekdays after school, in the evenings, and on Weekends. Young people love playing hockey, which is played in clubs' junior divisions as well as in schools. With the work they do with development schemes and projects and arranging age group representative teams, sometimes in cooperation with other local authorities, Regions and Counties play an essential role in the promotion of the game. Hockey's Single System, the growth route for players, coaches, and officials, is a crucial component of the delivery of hockey throughout the nation. It is founded on a set of long-term athlete development principles that put the participant first and are supported by scientific research that has been extensively embraced by the majority of England's main sports. The system, which is built on a complicated network of service providers, clubs, schools, and organisations working together to train and assist players, provides possibilities for individuals of most ages to engage in hockey. The affiliation fees that members pay are a pillar of the England Hockey model (and many other sports), since they allow England Hockey to carry out its hockey development objective.

a quarterly issue of the journal Hockey News keeping you informed of club and national hockey news; benefits from funding and sponsorship, such as lower entry fees for junior and adult competitions; access to Capital Funding; individual guidance and support on how to develop your club or how you as an individual can develop your skills on or off the field; information, resources, and website downloads so you can get the most recent hockey news and information that applies to you; CRB checking at a low cost, intended to help club members; and CRB checking at no cost.

CHAPTER 4

PROFESSIONAL ATHLETICS

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Everywhere it is played, professional sport is the most costly, publicised, and watched sport. The majority of the available sponsorship money and corporate backing go to it, and it also receives the most of the media attention. Professional sports are performed in the greatest venues (Eden Gardens, Maracana Stadium, Melbourne Cricket Ground), by players who often earn, based on the size of the market, millions of dollars, in cities all over the globe, from Kolkata, India to Rio de Janeiro, Brazil to Melbourne, Australia. Professional sports, as well as the economy that supports them, dominate the world of sport, and individuals who participate in them are regarded as worldwide cultural icons. Sport groups at the local, regional, state, and national levels often work to support professional sport leagues by fostering player talent or fan enthusiasm. However, these same groups are often compelled to compete fruitlessly with professional sport for media attention, funding, and public support (from fans, governments and communities). Professional sports, at their finest, represent the pinnacle of the sports sector, providing resources financially and culturally to those groups below it. In its worst, it is a commercial beast that is greedy and ravenous for material, intellectual, and social resources.

Professional sports leagues, like the National Football League (NFL) in the United States, control weekly media and social interests in the cities where they are well-liked. Fans are drawn to weekly plots and subplots in the form of winners and losers, accidents and scandals, player or coach sackings, player transfers, and crisis events (financial, human and organizational). American college football games were played on an as-needed basis in the late nineteenth century, mostly as exceptional occasions that attracted the attention of certain football fans and some media sources. College football didn't become ingrained in the culture and identity of the US until games were scheduled according to seasons, allowing media outlets and spectators to schedule their sport-related production and consumption around a weekly schedule. Professional sports leagues' stability and consistency have been the cornerstones on which their appeal has been based. Professional sports leagues have established themselves as essential components of what it means to be a member of a social or cultural group in several locations across the globe. In other words, professional sports leagues and their teams have evolved into a crucial component of identity for many fans.

Professional sporting events like the World Cups of Football, Rugby Union, and Cricket have also influenced our culture and commerce. They are conducted regularly (generally every four years) and draw crowds because they include unusual sporting activity and are often motivated by nationalism. We are also exposed to yearly competitions like world championships and circuits like the global rally championship, which has rounds in nations like Sweden, Mexico, and Finland. Sports events are heavily covered in the media on a daily basis on television, the radio, in magazines, in newspapers, and online. The influence of professional sport on modern culture is unavoidable. Modern professional sports are a huge industry. It no longer only

revolves around what occurs on the playing field, as it did in the past (generally speaking, before sport became commercialised in the 1970s), but now includes what occurs in the boardroom and on the stock market. The world's most valuable football/soccer teams according to Forbes magazine's opinion are shown in Table 4.1. The top ten teams all have estimated annual revenues above US$300 million, with the top four recording estimated annual revenues above US$550 million across three different Leagues (Spain's La Liga, England's Premier League, and the German Bundesliga), showing that sport is a well-established global business. The list also shows that many of these teams are significant corporate entities.

You learned about the three-sector model of sport—public, nonprofit, and private—in the first chapter of this book. Although the public and nonprofit sectors were addressed in Chapters 2 and 3, professional sport is the subject of Chapter 4. Yet, it would be incorrect to believe that in the context of sporting organisations and their activities, the words private and professional are interchangeable. However, we are focusing on sport organisations in this chapter that rely on competitive commercial income to support their operations as opposed to those that get funding from the government or are nearly entirely supported by membership dues or subscriptions. It is important to note that many of the organisations discussed in this chapter are nonprofits rather than privately held businesses. Organizations in professional sports are distinguished by two key characteristics. First, they all operate at a scale (especially commercial and financial) that places them at the pinnacle of the sports business. Second, every player or athlete is a "professional"; they are paid to practise and compete full-time in their sport. Sports that require participants or athletes to work extra jobs to augment their income cannot be categorised as professional.

In order to clarify and comprehend the contrast between for-profit and nonprofit companies within professional sport as well as the variations within sports, the professional football environment in Australia serves as an excellent illustration. All of the clubs in the Australian Football League (AFL) are fundamentally membership-based businesses (in which supporters or fans who buy memberships are entitled to attend games, as well as vote to elect a board of directors to govern their club). AFL teams generate yearly revenues of up to $80 million, but they are nonprofit organisations; all of the money is spent on club operations (such as paying employees and players, maintaining facilities, or promoting the club), and none of the earnings are given back to owners or shareholders. The Australian Football League (AFL) is Australia's richest and most well-known professional sports league, and it also receives the largest proportion of sponsorship and broadcast rights money while being basically a collection of nonprofit organisations.

The National Rugby League (NRL) in Australia has numerous member-based clubs, similar to the Australian Football League (AFL), but there are also several privately owned teams. When a club is privately held, the yearly profit or loss is either paid to the private owner or absorbed by them. For instance, any profits made by the Melbourne Storm, one of the National Rugby League's (NRL) most popular and successful clubs in the first decade of the twenty-first century, are given back to the club's owners, led by New Zealand businessman Bart Campbell, who acquired the team from global media conglomerate News Corporation in 2013. The eight teams of the Australian A-League (soccer) are all privately owned, in contrast to the AFL and NRL, although the league's governing body, Football Federation Australia, is a nonprofit. In this instance, both for-profit and nonprofit entities are accountable for maintaining a thriving professional league. It is crucial to remember throughout this chapter and the following chapters of the book that both charitable and for-profit organisations participate in professional sports leagues.

Loops for Marketing

Whitson utilised the idea of "circuits of promotion" to characterise and clarify the linkages between professional sport, the media, sponsors, and business. The foundational idea of the circuit of promotion notion is that formerly distinct lines between the marketing of sports and the usage of sporting events and sportsmen to advertise items are increasingly being blurred. In other words, it is become harder to distinguish between the athletic organisation and the sponsor, media outlet, or advertising. They are merging into one, with each component of the professional sports machine working to advance the interests of the others for the benefit of the whole system. A cycle of promotion is at work perfectly in the connection between Nike and former Chicago Bulls and Washington Wizards star Michael Jordan. Jordan's success in winning six NBA titles with the Bulls strengthened the business synergy between the two 'brands,' which in turn helped to boost the return on Nike's investment. The Nike advertising campaigns that included Jordan also served to raise the profile of the firm and the player. Also, the National Basketball Association (NBA) in America's cultural, social, and commercial stature was raised by Jordan's success and the worldwide advertising campaigns created by Nike. Conversely, the NBA's worldwide marketing and advertising, which either included Jordan or did not, assisted in promoting both Nike as the leading producer of basketball gear and footwear as well as Jordan, who was the most well-known and identifiable player in the League. Last point: By their sponsorship of Jordan, Jordan's other sponsors, like Gatorade, promoted not just themselves, but also the NBA and Nike. A sports circuit of promotion is, at its finest, one that provides ongoing financial gain and limitless chances for leverage for the individuals and organisations involved.

Athletic Circuits

Sports leagues or organised competitions are a part of sport circuits. For more than 50 years, NASCAR has been one of the most well-liked sports in the USA. It airs on the television networks and stations FOX and NBC (such as Fox Sports 1). NASCAR follows a seasonal schedule, similar to some other professional sports like the National Hockey League (NHL) in America, the Bundesliga in Germany, and the National Rugby League (NRL) in Australia. From February through November, races are held in various American cities and towns at race tracks like the Texas Motor Speedway (Texas; 191,000 seats), Daytona International Speedway (Florida); and the Talladega Superspeedway (Alabama; 175,000 seating capacity). Although scheduling races at several locations guarantees strong live attendance, it also allows NASCAR and its rival teams and drivers to take advantage of a variety of sponsorship options. A worldwide sport circuit built on a league format is the European Champions League, where teams compete in a variety of cities based on how they qualified for the competition and are eliminated one at a time until a champion is declared. The professional tennis tours for men and women are examples of a world circuit where a sequence of events serves as the framework for competition. In both the aforementioned cases, the circuit is managed or overseen by a governing body, although in the case of tennis the responsibility for managing and running individual tournaments is devolved to the host organisation. In both the aforementioned cases, the circuit is managed or overseen by a governing body, but in tennis the responsibility for managing and running individual tournaments is devolved to the host organisation. For instance, Tennis Australia, the sport's governing body in Australia, manages and administers the Australian Open, the Grand Slam in the Asia-Pacific area. The venues of competitions or events that take place on national or international sporting circuits are often up to bids from cities or nations. Although the Grand Slam tournaments of the Australian Open, US Open, French Open, and Wimbledon are the only high-profile events in tennis, the European Champions League allows clubs who qualify for the competition to host their home matches

(a performance-based flexibility) (there is no flexibility). While towns and countries compete for the privilege to host rounds, the locations of the events on the annual calendar might vary in other circuits, such as the World Rally Championship (WRC). Portugal, Poland, and Spain hosted WRC races in 2014, although 10 years before, these countries were not on the schedule. Similar to Cyprus, Greece, and Turkey hosting matches in 2004 but not in 2014, As towns and countries want to secure the reputation, status, tourism, and possible economic advantage that are connected to well-known international sport circuits, bidding for these sorts of events may often be quite competitive.

The Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup are the two largest international sporting events, and they are also the two biggest events of any kind ever held. Both events feature a complicated system wherein nations and towns may compete to host the event, which is held every four years. A rigorous two step selection procedure is required for a city to be chosen to host the summer or winter Olympic Games. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) administrative committee evaluates each city based on technical criteria such as venue quality, general city infrastructure, public transportation, security, and government support during a ten month process known as the "candidate acceptance procedure" in the first phase. National Olympic Committees may nominate a city during this phase. Chicago (USA), Prague (Czechoslovakia), Tokyo (Japan), Rio de Janeiro (Brazil), Madrid (Spain), Baku (Azerbaijan), and Doha were approved as candidates for the 2016 summer Olympic Games (Qatar). The chosen "candidate" cities go to the second and last "candidature phase." The 2016 Games will be held in Chicago, Tokyo, Rio de Janeiro, and Madrid, among other cities. At this phase, the cities are visited by the IOC's assessment panel and are required to submit an extensive bid dossier to the IOC. All IOC members have access to the assessment commission's report on the potential host cities before choosing one during a full IOC session (for the election of the 2016 Games the IOC session was held in Copenhagen in October, 2009, at which it was announced that the Rio de Janeiro bid had been successful). There are additional international sport circuits whose participation in the competition is virtually exclusively based on financial gain, placing them at the pinnacle of professional sport. The America's Cup is contested every four years, much like the Olympic Games, however unlike the Olympic Games, a team can only join if it has the funding to mount a challenge. For instance, Oracle, one of the biggest software corporations in the world, funded Oracle Team USA, the crew who took home the 34th America's Cup in 2013, and that year's fiscal year saw sales of US$37 billion. Each team that competed for the 34th America's Cup is said to have committed between US$80 million and US$200 million to the effort of winning the competition, with boats costing around US$10 million apiece.

MEDIA

Media companies are becoming crucial allies for both for-profit and professional sports teams. The volume and breadth of coverage that media outlets provide their professional athletic partners is so significant that it has the potential to affect the social and economic behaviour of millions, if not billions, of people. Sport and the media are often seen as being interconnected due to the size and breadth of the financial connection they enjoy (Bellamy 1998; Nicholson 2007). The upheaval that sport has experienced as a consequence of its interaction with the media has only been matched by the influence of sport news on the popularity and profitability of new media formats. In the 1890s, it would have been feasible to consider sport and its social and economic importance without referring to the media, but by the 1990s, it was impossible to do so. Now, it seems "virtually inconceivable" for one to exist without the other.

Sport organisations today depend on the sale of broadcast rights as their main source of money, as opposed to the past when ticket sales were the main source (and to a lesser extent sponsorship revenue). For instance, in 1930, ticket sales and subscriptions from its member organisations accounted for 85% of FIFA's revenues, but by the start of the twenty-first century, they only made up 1%. The 2010 World Cup in South Africa brought in US$2,408 million in television broadcast rights and US$1,072 in marketing rights, which were heavily reliant on media coverage, bringing in a total of US$4,189 million for FIFA from 2007 to 2010. The Olympics are a prime illustration of both the real and perceived popularity of sports, as well as the rise in broadcast rights prices paid by broadcasting networks throughout the world.

Sponsorship

The quantity of funding made available to professional sports organisations via agreements or negotiations with sponsors is closely correlated with the level of return on investment that the sponsor is able to accomplish. In general, the increase in sales or business that a sponsor obtains via enhanced awareness or direct marketing is what determines the return on investment. Sporting organisations with sizable fan bases, like Manchester United, are able to land sizable sponsorship agreements because the sponsor may promote its product directly to a sizable fan base and raise its profile via media coverage of the club and the league. The sponsorship market favours sports groups with prominent national, regional, or international reputations. Advertisers choose to engage with organisations who have excellent network television coverage that reaches a wide audience. The majority of the time, exclusive broadcast rights agreements are used to accomplish this. Nevertheless, a club or league's appeal to sponsors may also be influenced by the general "news" media coverage that it gets in a range of media formats and venues, including television, radio, newspapers, magazines, and the internet. In general, the sport is encouraged to be consumed by fans via this media coverage, whether they want to watch a live event or access a mediated version. The club or league that is able to get more of this "news" media attention is more likely to become ingrained in audiences' and customers' commercial awareness. A measure of the audiences that advertising (or sponsors) may reach via a commercial affiliation with a professional sports team or league is the quantity of media attention they get, which is directly inversely related to the value of the sponsorship.

Different sports, leagues, clubs, and nations place different values on sponsorships. The IOC established "The Olympic Partner Program" (TOP) at the highest level in 1985 to provide businesses exclusive global marketing rights to the Games. The following businesses were a part of the Top VII partnership programme, which covered both the Olympic Games in London in 2012 and the Winter Olympics in Vancouver in 2010: The 2012 London Olympic Games had a number of sponsors, including Coca-Cola, Acer, Atos Energy, GE, McDonald's, Omega, Samsung, Visa, and Panasonic, as well as BMW, BP, British Airways, and Adidas. As clubs and leagues are willing to enter into sponsorship agreements that allow commercial organisations to obtain naming rights or enter into agreements that give them either exclusive or increased access to fans, sponsorship or marketing arrangements may be more extensive at other levels of professional sport. In this regard, the growth of the internet and online marketing has been very important.

The English Premier League serves as an illustration of how sponsors are becoming more prevalent in professional sports leagues and teams. The Barclays Premiership is a league sponsored by a financial services company with operations in banking, investment banking, and investment management. There are several other secondary or associate sponsors for the English Premier League. For instance, the three "official partners" of the League are EA Sports, Nike, and Carlsberg: The official "Sports Technology Partner and Interactive Gaming

Licensee" is EA Sports, while the official "Ball Supplier" is Nike and the official "Beer" is Carlsberg. The teams that compete in the Barclays Premiership also have large sponsorship agreements. Each club's principal sponsor is allowed to prominently display their logo on the front of the playing strip: Emirates, one of the top airlines in the world, sponsors Arsenal; Etihad, another top airline and a rival of Emirates, sponsors Manchester City; Samsung, a manufacturer of electronic goods, sponsors Chelsea; Standard Chartered, a bank; Chang, a Thai beer, has sponsored Everton since 2004; and Tottenham Hotspur, a pan-Asian life insurance company with its headquarters in Ho Chi Minh City.

Sponsorship money in professional sports has increased tremendously, much like broadcast rights revenue. A Ford dealership sponsored NASCAR racer Fred Lorenzen in the early 1960s for US$6,000 for a full season. During the late 1980s, it was thought that a NASCAR team needed around US$3 million in sponsorship to break even over the course of the season. UPS announced their sponsorship of the Dale Jarrett-driven Robert Yates No. 88 squad in 2000, with an estimated annual value of US$15 million. Sponsoring a top NASCAR team currently costs between $20 and $30 million USD annually. Sponsorship in professional sport extends beyond business deals between teams and leagues. In addition to their playing contracts (for team sports) or prize money, individual athletes often have sponsorship deals that provide them extra money (for individuals). An athlete's general reputation may be improved by well selected international companies, and for more well-known athletes, a sponsor may help create the athlete's own brand. Superstar players like David Beckham (previously of the football clubs Manchester United, Los Angeles Galaxy, Real Madrid, and Paris Saint-Germain), Tiger Woods (golf), or Kobe Bryant of the Los Angeles Lakers are just a few examples of professional athletes that get sponsorship (basketball). Instead, professional athletes are sponsored wherever there is a market, whether it is a big market for international athletes or a niche market for tiny or cult sports.

Sponsorship income

Manchester United is an extremely successful football team as well as a commercial powerhouse. The club estimates it has 659 million global followers, up from the 139 million core supporters and 333 million followers it stated in its 2010 bond prospectus and research by TNS Sport. The number 659 million followers is astonishing, especially when you consider that it represents around 1 in 10 individuals on the world. Using data derived from a poll of 54,000 respondents in 39 countries, Kantar estimates that there are 325 million Manchester United fans in Asia, 173 million in Africa and the Middle East, 90 million in Europe, and 71 million in the Americas. A person who "watched live Manchester United matches, followed highlights coverage, or read or spoke about Manchester United frequently" was considered a club supporter. Notwithstanding probable methodological issues with the data and larger demographic assumptions, Manchester United may reportedly claim 277 million of the 659 million supporters as their own, which is still astounding. This is true even when a tighter definition of "favourite football club" is used. It is hardly surprise that Manchester United is well-known for catering to its global market via both conventional and new media given these statistics about its followers and supporters. Manchester United opened a page on the popular social networking site Facebook in July 2010. The club's page had more than 11 million admirers by the beginning of 2011, and by 2014, it had around 55 million Likes. The Twitter account for Manchester United gained 345,000 followers on the first day after it went live in July 2013 and had 2.97 million followers a little over a year later. Manchester United believes that 47 million people watch each of its games on average, according its 2013 annual report. Due to its enormous base of devoted supporters, the club has been able to establish a presence on a variety of media channels, with its website and content distribution through mobile phones

standing out. The website of Manchester United, which is available in seven different languages, receives more than 63 million page visits per month on average. Manchester United earned £101.6 million from television and £23 million from new media and mobile in the 2012–13 fiscal year.

Manchester United may earn extra sponsorship and merchandise earnings outside of matchday and broadcast revenues because to its fan base and media exposure. More than five million branded licenced goods, including more than two million jerseys, were sold by Manchester United in 2012–13. In 2012–13, income from retail, merchandising, and product licencing was £38.6 million, whilst sponsorship revenue was £90.9 million. The three main sponsors of Manchester United in 2014 were Nike, Chevrolet, and the worldwide insurance and risk management firm AON. In order to replace AON as the principal sponsor on the front of the team's playing uniform, Chevrolet inked a seven-year deal for £53 million per year in 2014. At the same time, the club decided to switch from longtime partner Nike to Adidas for the 2015–16 campaign. The new sponsorship agreement with Adidas is for ten years and will cost £75 million, which is a significant increase from the previous record sponsorship agreement between Adidas and Real Madrid, which was worth £31 million annually. Nike's sponsorship deal with Manchester United was worth £23.5 million per year. Moreover, Manchester United has a wide range of sponsors, which highlights both the complexity of modern professional sport and the many ways the commercial landscape may be divided. Singha is the official beer, Bulova is the official timepiece partner, Aeroflot is the official carrier, Epson is the official office equipment partner, bwin is the official online gaming and betting partner, Nissin Food Group is the official global noodle partner, Kansai Paint is the official paint partner, and DHL is the official logistics partner. Chevrolet is the official automotive partner.

Player Administration

The pay of players and sportsmen have grown along with the level of professionalism in sport and the money made from sponsorship and broadcast rights agreements. The rise in expectations of clubs and leagues, the complexity of contract negotiations, and the development in off-field commercial possibilities for well-known "sport stars" are all paralleled by the growth of player and athlete revenue. These changes in the world of professional sport have sparked the growth of a sector called "player and athlete management," which simply aims to provide services to players and athletes in exchange for a cut of their earnings.

The International Management Group (IMG), founded in the 1960s and with more than 2,000 employees spread over 70 offices in 30 countries, is one of the most well-known player and athlete management firms. What was formerly just a player management company has grown into a sophisticated corporate enterprise with television and publishing departments. Arnold Palmer, a golfer who won the US Masters in 1958, 1960, 1962, and 1964 as well as the US Open and British Open in 1960, was the first athlete to be branded globally by Mark McCormack, the founder and CEO of IMG. The 'brand-name' strategy Palmer and McCormack used to approach sport in the 1960s was the first effort to change how well-known sportsmen conducted their business. Sport and business have always been intertwined, but their scope of operation was distinct. What became known as "Sportsbiz" required a certain degree of vertical and horizontal integration (Boyle & Haynes 2000). In contrast to earlier initiatives that may be considered ad hoc, McCormack carried the agent connection farther than previously and started to manage contract talks. He also actively looked out business prospects and planned the selling of the Palmer brand over a lengthy period of time. McCormack established a significant precedent by marketing people as commodities. A rival of IMG, Octagon is a multinational

sports marketing organisation. More than 800 individuals from 35 different sports throughout the globe are represented and promoted by it.

Octagon asserts that through utilising its players' off-field business partnerships, it earns yearly marketing revenues of over $300 million US. According to the firm, it does this by creating a special and personalised marketing strategy for each of its players. Michael Phelps, an American swimmer who holds the record for most Olympic medals ever with 22—including 18 gold—is represented by the octagon (six in 2004 at Athens, eight in 2008 at Beijing and four in 2012 at London). According to the business, Phelps is the ideal example of what effective sport marketing and management can do for an athlete in the modern, hyper-commercial sports climate. According to Octagon, Phelps provided the initial impetus with his swimming prowess, but Octagon improved the Phelps narrative with a focused PR strategy that included appearances in Time, People, the Wall Street Journal, and USA Today. The outcome, according to Octagon, was the development of a relationship between Phelps and corporate America, which included the biggest swimming endorsement contract in history with Speedo as well as subsidiary agreements with VISA, Omega, and AT&T Wireless.

In many ways, agencies and sponsors should target athletes who compete in individual sports; yet, team-sports participants are often just as important, if not more so. An athlete that has the potential to garner many media outlets and endorsements is referred to as a "multiples" in the US. The multiples play at the highest level on the field, aid in attracting spectators to games, aid the team in obtaining broadcast or sponsorship agreements, aid the team in merchandising and licencing, and, in rare instances, have the ability to boost the organization's net value. As a result, the athlete's commercial potential may be determined in terms of personal profits (via the team or an agency) as well as the expansion of the club or league in which they play.

By any standard, professional athletes are handsomely compensated. Significantly, their pay is based on the earnings of the teams, leagues, competitions, and events in which they participate. In truth, the amount of player compensation is determined as a proportion of league income in various professional sports with powerful player unions. Nike, Wilson, and Gatorade are three of Williams' four sponsors, and they are all tennis or sports-related, so there are clear financial advantages for both Williams and the company. For instance, customers may buy products from the "Serena Williams Collection" on the Nike website, allowing tennis players and spectators to dress like Williams on the court. This collection includes sneakers, tennis shorts, tank shirts, tennis dresses, jackets, and caps. To "dominate the court in designs from this collection inspired by - and worn by - a great tennis champion," Nike asks its customers. Fans may personalise merchandise by adding their favourite player's name and number, which is common practise in many team sports. Individual players like Williams, however, enable businesses like Nike to create and sell a wide variety of related merchandise. In this regard, Williams has proven to be a particularly wise investment for Nike given her status as a tennis fashion icon. Tiger Woods earned US$20 million in victories and US$70 million in endorsements in 2010, according to Sports Illustrated's ranking of the top 50 American sportsmen by earnings, despite off-field issues that diminished his commercial worth. Williams missed the top 50, which highlights the dominance of sports played by men in the American market, including football, basketball, and baseball. Floyd Mayweather, a boxer, led the earnings list in 2014 with US$105 million, although Venus Williams had risen to the top thanks to her domination on the court in 2013 and her endorsement income.

Results and Ownership

Several ownership and governance structures are used in professional sports to efficiently control and run their companies. Although some of the models have a long history, others have

been chosen or modified for their practicality. One of the most important disparities is between professional sports leagues and clubs that may be classified as "win maximizers" and "profit maximizers." While there is significant disagreement about whether these phrases correctly describe how professional sports clubs and franchises operate, they are helpful for broadly classifying operational and financial objectives. Teams that maximise profits, like those in the top American professional sport leagues, are often owned by people or organisations who want to get the most financial return on their investment. Yet, in other sports, such as cricket and English, Scottish, and Australian football (Quirk & Fort 1992), the urge to win takes precedence over the requirement to make a profit. In reality, win-maximizing teams can put the club's finances in danger, especially when they sign players they can't afford.

To maintain the attention and involvement of fans, sponsors, and the media, teams—whether they are win- or profit-maximizing—must work together on some level. Sport leagues with a monopoly of one or two clubs are sometimes thought to be less appealing to spectators than leagues where game outcomes are unpredictable. Although frequently the teams that are a part of the rivalry benefit at the expense of teams that perform poorly, there is a long history of leagues in which fierce rivalries have kept fans interested in the game (for example, the Los Angeles Lakers versus Boston Celtics in the NBA and Rangers versus Celtic in the Scottish Premier League). A league is considered to have "competitive balance" if it is not dominated by a small number of clubs and the results of games or seasons are unpredictable (Quirk & Fort 1992). Several procedures have been put in place by leagues all around the globe to attempt to create the competitive balance that is often illusive. The draught method used by football leagues like the National Football League in America or the Australian Football League is perhaps the most visible and well-known metric. To balance playing skill throughout the league and foster more competitive games, the league may assign greater selection preferences (the best athletes available) to underperforming clubs via the draught.

Basketball Association of America

The National Basketball Association's structure and operations are examined in this case (NBA). In the United States, the National Basketball Association competes with the National Football League (NFL), Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Hockey League (NHL), and NASCAR for fan support, media attention, media revenue, sponsorship revenue, and the ability to keep and market its players as brand icons. The Basketball Association of America, which was founded in 1946, and the competing National Basketball League merged to become the National Basketball Association in 1949. The league grew and shrank during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s as teams made an effort to develop basketball in different American towns and cities. Also, teams relocated from one location to another in quest of financial stability. The rival American Basketball Association was founded in the late 1960s, but after seeing only modest success, it merged with the NBA in the middle of the 1970s. Since that time, the NBA has remained unrivalled as the top professional basketball league in America.

The National Basketball Association (NBA) has 30 clubs, 29 of which are based in the United States and one in Canada. The Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), the top women's professional basketball league in America, and the NBA Development League (D League), which functions as the NBA's minor league, much like the established minor league system in baseball, are two other leagues that are independent of the NBA but affiliated with and promoted by it. The 1997-founded WNBA has 12 teams; some are located in well-known basketball cities like Los Angeles, New York, and Chicago, while others are situated in smaller towns without much competition from other professional sports, such Tulsa and Connecticut. There are 18 teams in the D League, and each of them is connected to at least one NBA

franchise. Teams from the D League may be found all around the country, mostly in smaller cities.

The NBA is divided into two conferences, the Eastern and Western, with three divisions within each conference (Atlantic, Central and Southeast in the Eastern conference and Northwest, Pacific and Southwest in the Western conference). To limit travel as much as feasible within the constraints of the scheduling regulations, the divisions are based on geography. Each club plays its division opponents four times (16 games), teams from the other two conference divisions three or four times (36 games), and teams from the opposite conference twice over the 82 games that make up the season (30 games). Teams must rank among the top eight teams in each conference to advance to the play-offs. The NBA Championship game is between the winners of the Eastern and Western conferences after a series of in-conference elimination games (1 vs 8, 2 versus 7, 3 versus 6, and 4 versus 5 in the first round). There are 30 teams in the NBA. The league has remained mostly steady over the previous 25 years, despite the addition of clubs and the relocation of several teams. Due to their recent success, high profile, historical rivalries, and the exploits of previous stars like Magic Johnson (Lakers) and Larry Bird, teams like the Los Angeles Lakers and Boston Celtics are highly recognised in America and across the globe (Celtics). Due to Michael Jordan's accomplishments, the Chicago Bulls gained a similar level of fame in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Jordan won six NBA titles, including three straight times. The NBA has teams all around the United States and Canada, similar to the WNBA. The population density of the cities where each of the 30 NBA teams is situated. The chart shows that certain teams, like the Utah Jazz, New Orleans Pelicans, and Milwaukee Bucks, are situated in relatively small cities, whilst others, like the New York Knicks, Los Angeles Lakers, Chicago Bulls, and Houston Rockets, play in huge American metropolitan areas. The Toronto Raptors benefit from being the only NBA club in Canada, in addition to being situated in a large metropolis. Contrarily, the Los Angeles Clippers are situated in a big city, yet they play against the Los Angeles Lakers, who are perhaps the most well-known basketball club in the world, making them practically Los Angeles' second team. NBA clubs' financial performance is largely based on the money made from the sale of broadcast rights. The NBA signed contracts with ABC, ESPN, and TNT in 2003. These contracts were later extended in 2007. The Walt Disney Corporation, which owns ABC and ESPN, said in 2007 that the contractual obligations pertaining to the broadcast rights for the NFL, NBA, NASCAR, MLB, and college football were valued at US$19,200 million over an eight-year period. According to estimates, the NBA will make around US$930 million yearly from the TV deal that was renewed for the 2015–16 campaign. The NBA is aired in more than 200 nations worldwide, mostly via ESPN, taking advantage of the game's widespread appeal.

While television coverage continues to be the league's primary means of ensuring its financial viability and retaining its fan base, the NBA's media prominence goes beyond that medium. Local and national television stations both show NBA games. Several of the games are televised into certain markets so that the host city's supporters may watch their preferred club. Moreover, NBA fans have the option of purchasing a "League Pass" that allows them to stream games online. Being able to watch NBA games online is a relatively new occurrence; for overseas NBA fans, it has been revolutionary since they were previously only able to see a select few games that were acquired by local free-to-air or pay television providers. The NBA's player profiles help to increase media coverage of the league. Like other professional sports, basketball is heavily promoted by the league, its players, and most crucially, its sponsors. Basketball is most often connected with Nike, a large worldwide footwear and clothing brand. Because of its connection to Michael Jordan, Nike has a long history of affinity with basketball. By partnering with current athletes like Kobe Bryant, LeBron James, Kevin Durant, and Kyrie Irving, Nike is reaffirming its connection to basketball and the NBA. As a recognition that

personalities like Kobe Bryant and his Nike alter ego, The Black Mamba, are crucial in boosting sales of basketball footwear in particular, Nike's basketball advertising places a strong emphasis on personalities and specific players.

European Cup of Champions

This case examines the structure and operations of the UEFA Champions League with a focus on the relationship between local and international competitions. The chapter emphasised that professional sports leagues' ability to succeed depends on its players' ability to be retained and promoted as brand icons, as well as their levels of public support, media coverage, media income, and sponsorship money. Like to other major sporting events, the Champions League has strong corporate backing and support from its audience. The fact that it is founded on a concept that honours national and regional achievement and is backed by both local and international interest prevents it from being compared to national football leagues. The Champions League offers a unique viewpoint on a variety of topics that are important to the study and practise of professional sport because of its structure, which is rather uncommon.

The global football regulating organisation is FIFA. There are six regional football federations that make up this association: those from Africa, Asia, South America, North and Central America and the Caribbean, Europe, and Oceania. Even though the African football confederation has the most members, the European football confederation is by far the most powerful because it includes many of the best footballing nations in the world and is also the location of the most illustrious leagues, including the English Premier League, the Italian Serie A, the Spanish La Liga, and the German Bundesliga. The governing organisation for football in Europe is the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA). Elite club tournaments, such as the UEFA Champions League and the Europa League, as well as international events, like the senior and junior European Championships, are organised by UEFA.

UEFA earned €1,699 million in 2012–2013. 1 325 million euros in income from broadcast rights comprised 77% of overall revenue, while 313 million euros from commercial rights (sponsorship) represented 18%. Contrarily, ticket and hospitality revenue (€39 million or 2.3% of total revenue) made up a very small portion of UEFA's overall earnings. The Champions League, EUFA's top tournament, generated a significant share of the confederation's total earnings, according to a deeper look at the organization's financial situation. In 2012–13, the UEFA Champions League brought in 83% of the organization's total income, with the UEFA Europa League adding another 14%. A comparable event to the FIFA World Cup but only open to European nations is the European Championship, which is held by UEFA every four years. These years, like 2008 and 2012, saw a significant growth in UEFA's income, which totaled €1,351 million in 2008 and €1,391 million in 2012. For UEFA in 2012–13, the European Champions League was more valuable than the EURO 2012 competition that took place in Poland and Ukraine.

Since they have a predetermined number of clubs from year to year and well defined promotion and relegation regulations, the majority of national sport leagues are largely stagnant. For instance, the English Premier League, which has 20 teams, relegates the three lowest-performing teams from the Premier League each year to the Football League Championship, the second-highest League in England, and promotes three teams from the Football League Championship based on their performance (the top two teams plus a third as a result of a play-off system). Similar methods are used by European football leagues including the Italian Serie A and German Bundesliga. The number of teams who participate in the Champions League, in contrast, is predetermined, but the league's makeup and the number of teams that may participate from a single tournament rely on the results of the national leagues.

Three qualifying rounds, a play-off, a group stage, and a knockout stage make up the European Champions League, which runs from July to May of the following year (round of 16, quarter-finals, semi-finals and final). 90 matches are played in the qualifying rounds and play-offs, which decide which 32 teams advance to the group stage, which consists of 96 matches. The top two teams in each of the eight groups advance to the knockout round of 16, which consists of 16 teams.

According on their League and their League status from the previous season, participating teams are assigned to the different League rounds and stages. The teams who dominate the Champions League are unsurprisingly from the strongest European leagues, especially those rated in the top 6 according to UEFA's coefficient system, which have at least two clubs in the group stage.

The following table shows which teams have continuously participated in the Champions League's group stage from the competition's debut in 1992, including some of the most well-known and potent clubs in Europe. Clubs that have participated in 12 or more group stage matches are included. It is also more probable for teams from the more prestigious, established leagues like Spain, England, Germany, and Italy to get to the knockout stages. According to estimates, several of these clubs are in the top ten most valuable soccer (football) clubs in the world.

Some of the reasons why the same teams always win the Champions League include because the competition is based on national league results and the most important and dominant European leagues lack a competitive balance. In other words, the governing body has not imposed rules in these leagues that would equally distribute playing skill and guarantee competitiveness, such as a salary cap or player draught. These kinds of rules often function effectively in football leagues in nations like America or Australia where international or regional player mobility is either heavily restricted or nonexistent. The structure of the European leagues allows the wealthiest, most powerful, and most renowned clubs to afford the finest players, enabling the team to triumph in national and regional championships, ensuring they stay extremely lucrative, and ultimately allowing them to recruit the best players. This cycle always makes it exceedingly difficult for lower-ranked clubs to escape the grip of those that dominate the upper tier.

 UEFA awarded €1.2 billion, or 70.5% of its earnings, to teams who competed in UEFA tournaments in 2012–2013. In comparison to the €585 million given to the 32 teams who took part in the group stage in 2006/7 and the €23.5 million given to clubs in 1992/3, the first season of the Champions League, €905 million was given to the 32 clubs that competed in the group stage in 2012/13. In comparison to the participation award of €3 million in 2006–07, each team in the group stage in 2012–13 got a participation bonus of €8.6 million. A participation bonus of €3.5 million was given to each of the 16 clubs that advanced to the knockout stage in 2012–13 as opposed to €2.2 million in 2006–07; quarterfinalists received an additional €3.9 million ($2.5 million in 2006–07); and semifinalists received an additional €4.9 million ($3 million in 2006–07). The prize money split between the winners and runners-up was €10.5 million ($7 million in 2006/07) and €6.5 million ($4 million in 2006/07). FC Bayern Munich got €55 million for winning the championship in 2012–13, while Borussia Dortmund took second place and received €54 million. The host club retains all gate proceeds during the Champions League, with the exception of the championship match. For teams with large stadiums and fan bases, this is a substantial source of revenue. Clubs also earn a portion of the Champions League payouts depending on the size of their respective national television market. This sum, known as the "market pool," is allocated depending on the size of the television market in the country

the club represents, the extent to which the club advances in the competition, and the performance of other clubs in the same nation. Juventus got €65 for losing in the quarterfinals in the 2012–13 season, of which €45 million came from the market pool. Although being eliminated at the group of 16, the other Italian team in the group stage, AC Milan, received €36 million from the market pool and made €51 million altogether, nearly as much as the runners-up.

CHAPTER 5

PRINCIPLES OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

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The match or interface between an organisation and its external environment is strategy, to put it as simply as possible. This perspective on strategy is a good place to start since it emphasises the significance of both the organisation and the environment in which it functions. The underlying premise of strategy is that these two components are equally important. In addition, strategy affects the whole company, all of its activities, and the entire environment. The strategy management process is distinct from other aspects of management thanks to its all-encompassing approach. The complicated, multifaceted nature of strategic management is one problematic issue. For instance, Johnson et al. highlight a number of crucial characteristics linked to strategic decision-making:

With the aforementioned information in mind, it is clear that effective strategy management requires a thorough awareness of the business, the environment, as well as the effects of choices. Yet one crucial result of the strategy process is left out of these statements. Being unique from the competition is the main goal of strategy. According to this perspective, strategy should assist in demonstrating how one football team differs from another or why a client should choose one leisure centre over another in the same neighbourhood. An organisation should have a distinct competitive advantage that no other company can simply replicate as a consequence of the fit between the organisation and its environment. Making a few key definitional and terminological differences is crucial before moving on. Secondly, planning and strategy are two different things. A sport organization's strategy is the process through which it chooses its direction and range of operations in relation to its resources and the environment in which it works. The act of systematically outlining these choices, stating what has to be done, by whom, with what tools, and when, is known as planning. In summary, strategy combines analysis and creativity; science and craft. Planning specifies the rational and methodical actions and activities that must be carried out in order to achieve a plan. Strategic management combines planning and strategy into a single process.

Second, there are three stages of decision-making that may be correctly explained using the word strategy. A sport organization's first objective is to create clarity on the kind of business it does. Are sports contests, facility management, player development, medal, championship, and tournament wins, product sales, profit-making, or increasing shareholder value constitute the primary business? The word "strategy" is often used at the second level to describe how the company will effectively compete against rivals. Here, strategy explains how competitive advantage will be developed and maintained. At the operational level, strategy may be used to determine how routine tasks should be carried out and how resources should be allocated to support them. An operational plan that calls for the acquisition of certain computer software, for instance, may assist a more general strategy to enhance player scouting techniques. Remember that at many levels of a sport organisation, strategic management may be utilised as a method and style of thinking.

Strangely, it's not usually thought that the planning process has to be managed. Some managers think that using a systematic strategic management method is impossible given how quickly things move in the sports sector. These managers create their strategies "on the fly" and in reaction to changing conditions and happenings. The ideas of strategic management, which stress the need of actively influencing one's own sport organization's future rather than waiting for events to trigger action, go counter to this strategy. Since it helps to lessen the uncertainty that comes with chaotic and dynamic sectors like sport, where on-field performance can have such a profound impact on an organization's success, proactivity promotes excellent strategy.

Strategic management experts would argue that as uncertainty increases, so does the necessity for more strategic effort. In order to find innovative methods of handling its financial commitments, a sport club that may produce a sizable surplus with a performance at the top of the ladder but a hazardous loss with a performance at the bottom should participate in the strategy process. Moreover, proponents of reactive approaches to strategy presume that opportunities are always obvious and open to view. Seldom is this the case. Finding fresh chances that haven't been used by rivals before seldom works out to be simple and takes careful study and creative thought. Without spending time and effort developing a plan, none of these can be readily accomplished. The value of coordination goes hand in hand with the idea of proactivity. Without a comprehensive approach to the strategy-making process, many organisational units are likely to pursue their own objectives. The use of limited resources must be coordinated and integrated in accordance with a broad plan. A plan that is implemented with such coordination is certain to bring about change. Strategy is the intellectual component of management that may be planned in many sports companies when change is a must for survival. The end result of this process should be a coordinated effort to reach objectives that have been approved by organisational stakeholders and that considers a balance between the resources needed to do so and the goals to be achieved. One essential advantage of effective strategic management is efficiency.

Sport management that is strategic

Finding the right balance between two or more conflicting duties is one of the major challenges in sport strategy. For instance, athletic organisations often aim for both increased participation rates and top accomplishment. From a strategic perspective, it may be challenging to allocate resources to both of these obligations since they are not always compatible. People may be inspired to engage by an activity's international success. Nevertheless, the long-term retention of new athletes tends to be low and bad in the medium term. The decisions that must be made while playing a sport—from the need to improve players or expand participation to the stress of having to win at all costs or generate more money—can be confusing and complicate issues.

Most runners see a marathon as the pinnacle of challenges. 42 kilometres of endurance is about the upper limit for most individuals. In addition, the marathon, which is often regarded with awe as a test of the mind, body, and soul, serves as the last and most important event on any summer Olympic calendar. Sport management are now looking at new options to take the challenge of running to the next level with longer and more difficult distances since the popularity of marathon running has declined in recent years. Here we are in the ultramarathon era.

Ultramarathon running competitions take place over distances of 50, 80, 100, or 161 kilometres over varied terrain. A distance running programme for almost all sorts of extreme runners may be created by adding the more challenging multiday or "extreme conditions" races. Since trail running first gained popularity in the 1970s, competition in ultramarathons has increased. After this, international ultramarathon events took off, with over 70 nations currently organising

some kind of ultramarathon event. The major strategy of the sport at first focused on participation as a means of training to increase runners' capacity for marathons, but now the competitions draw their own specialised competitors. One ultramarathon event is held in the United States on average once a month, reflecting the exponential growth in ultramarathon participation. The majority of competitors are over 40 years old, while women make up about 20% of the runners. The International Association of Ultrarunners, the sport's regulatory body, provides guidance to event planners and the essential guidelines for the formal approval of ultramarathon events.

A key component of organising a successful event is comprehending the motivations that push runners to compete under challenging circumstances. Event planners may accommodate the potential prospects a special event might offer to a place by using a SWOT analysis while designing events. The greatest level of thought must also be given to creating a plan to protect the welfare of ultramarathon participants and volunteers. For instance, the 2011 Kimberley Ultramarathon in Australia had catastrophic results when runners were trapped by a blaze due to miscommunication and a natural catastrophe, leading to an investigation of the event's planning by the Australian government. The Comrades Marathon Association (CMA) was established in 1921, and it quickly established itself as a staple on the South African calendar for long-distance runners. 34 runners participated in the 89-kilometer race in its first year, but now there are over 14,000 racers who are supported by sizable crowds and media viewers. In its early years, CMA was similar to other amateur athletic organisations of the period. The majority of strategic choices were made on the fly, and volunteers oversaw the event's management. The usually well-attended Comrades event, however, had grown into what CMA organisers viewed as "heritage" status by the 1980s, and tactics were required to maintain it as a "national treasure." To safeguard and advance the event's distinctive character, an executive committee was established in 1985, and a Board of Trustees was established in 1989. Since it separated decision-making from CMA's everyday operations, the establishment of a distinct Board from the management committee marked a significant strategic choice. Also, trustee members were urged to occupy powerful roles outside the CMA and develop closer ties with other stakeholders. CMA revised its strategy in 2004, which resulted in a new vision and reorganisation. The ultramarathon was now a well-liked competition for both domestic and international participants. Several of the top ultra-distance runners in the world were attending, including Tatiana Zhirkova of Russia and Vladimir Kotov, a South African Marathon winner who was born in Belarus. The number of participants was constantly growing, and the Comrades marathon provided a distinctive competitive element by rotating annually between a mostly uphill and a mostly downhill circuit between Pietermaritzburg and Durban. The following four essential elements of the vision were created and are still relevant today: To be world-class in racing, administration, customer service, and innovation; to acknowledge the event's rich history; to provide excellent service; and to uphold the principles of openness, equality, integrity, diversity, and respect for one another.

The event's operational operations were supported by a functional organisation, which placed a strong emphasis on marketing and professionalising the event's execution. Although Business Operations were divided into traditional portfolios of marketing, finance, media, foreign athletes, and the event museum, Event Operations were overseen by a Race Directorship. This new organisation allows for the separation of the event's daily operations from the more general, strategic choices required for its effective positioning. For instance, since event personnel often change, event-specific operations must be more adaptable than organisational management tactics. Information technology has recently been included in the event's portfolio of business activities. In the globe, there are now over 800 sanctioned ultramarathons, with almost 700 of them taking place in Europe and North America. As a result of its reorganisation

and vision in 2004, the Comrades Marathon has grown to become one of the biggest occasions. The number of entrants is currently limited to 18,000 people, and competitors are organised into "teams" similar to how it is with the Tour de France. Each year, the path is reportedly lined with 250,000 people.

Process of strategic management

The goal of strategic management is to locate the point where opportunity and preparedness meet. This manner of thinking resulted from the military's first use of the strategy idea. On the battlefield, it is crucial to impose restrictions that put the adversary at a disadvantage during fighting. One of the fundamental tenets of military strategy, for instance, is to manoeuvre an opponent into a situation where they are outnumbered at the moment of confrontation. Strategic choices are made more difficult by factors like topography and the potential to outflank, or attack the adversary from both the front and the side at once.

The sport manager, like an army commander, must first evaluate the 'war' circumstances. Studying the strengths and weaknesses of their own firm, rival companies, stakeholder groups, and the business environment, or "battlefield," helps them achieve this. The strategy analysis phase of the strategic management process is the first one. The sport manager must next make some judgements for the future in light of the data gathered from the first stage. They are often condensed into a "mission" statement that captures the organization's reason for being, a "vision" statement that outlines the organization's long-term goals, and a list of objectives with metrics to pinpoint the key accomplishments along the path to the vision. Strategy direction refers to the second phase of the strategic management process.

Only by choosing a path can an organisation know what it intends to accomplish. The sport manager must next think about how the directive may be carried out. The strategic management process's creative phase is this one. Here, the sport manager and his or her staff must collaborate to come up with the finest practises or plans of action for the company. Sport managers now try to fit the organization's special circumstances to its special environmental conditions. Opportunities are discovered when they are properly pursued. It is known as the strategy formulation stage.

The role of the sport manager shifts from planning to execution once there is a defined direction and a clear understanding of how to get there. At this phase, the organization's portfolio of goods, services, and activities—as well as the systems that support them—are modified in accordance with the broad strategy that was created in the preceding step. The strategy implementation step is at this point.

Last but not least, seldom is a plan flawless the first time. Adaptations are always necessary. Very often, this entails making a little modification to the method through which the approach has been applied. Nonetheless, there are occasions when it is necessary to reconsider if the plan itself is appropriate. Without some initial input about the effectiveness of what has been done, neither of these can be properly carried out. Because of this, the strategic management process's last step, strategy review, is essential. The organisation evaluates if goals have been accomplished during this phase. A remedial action will typically need to be done. A return to strategy analysis is usually required as a result of unanticipated occurrences that have an impact on the environment in which the sport organisation functions. In this way, strategic management is a continuous process. In order to provide the optimum results, switching back and forth between the phases is typical. The strategy process functions best when management adopts the perspective that it is a circular, ongoing activity rather than a discrete, linear procedure.

Strategy Evaluation

Combating the need to make decisions and take action right away is one of the toughest problems confronting sport managers. While a call to action is a motivated manager's natural tendency, many methods might fail if the groundwork is not done correctly. This first effort involves a thorough analysis of both the internal and external settings. SWOT analysis, stakeholder and customer requirements analysis, competition analysis, and the five forces analysis are some of the methods for achieving this.

SWOT evaluation

The SWOT analysis is one of the fundamental methods used in environmental analysis. This kind of study aids in examining an organization's strategic position both internally and outside. The SWOT analysis takes into account an organization's opportunities, threats, weaknesses, and strengths.

The SWOT analysis is divided into two sections. The organization's internal analysis is represented in the first section, which may be summed up by its strengths and flaws. It includes everything that an organisation can influence, some of which may be considered as capabilities (strengths) because they are done successfully, while others might be viewed as deficits since they are more difficult to perform well (weaknesses). The external issues that the firm has no direct influence over are the focus of the second section of the SWOT analysis. Threats and opportunities are separated from them. In other words, problems and environmental conditions develop that may either be taken advantage of or need neutralisation. The SWOT approach aids sport managers in identifying the key elements that are probably going to influence whether the organization's strategy is successful or if its direction is suitable. The sport manager should be searching for broader problems with this in mind. A reasonable guideline is to focus on no more than five elements for each of the four categories. In this approach, the most significant topics are given greater attention.

Considering that the organization's internal operations are the focus of the strengths and weaknesses section of the study, it has a present-day temporal orientation. Strengths are skills or resources that a company may employ to carry out its strategic direction. Dedicated coaching staff, a strong membership base, or a strong junior development programme are examples of common qualities. Weaknesses have to be seen as constraints or shortfalls that will obstruct the achievement of the strategic aim. Poor training facilities, insufficient financing, or a declining volunteer workforce are examples of common problems. In contrast, since it is necessary to take into account what is going to happen, the opportunity and danger analysis also incorporates a future-thinking component. Opportunities are favourable conditions or occurrences that the organisation can take advantage of to improve its skills or circumstances. New government funds, the discovery of a novel market or product, or the possibility to hire a new employee with specialised talents are often encountered opportunities. Threats are undesirable circumstances that can make it harder for the company to follow its strategic course. Threats to traditional sports include rising player pay, new rivals, or unfavourable trends in leisure consumption, such as young people's preference for gaming consoles over traditional sports.

Analysis of stakeholder and consumer demands

An evaluation of the stakeholders and consumers of the firm is still necessary until the environment has been fully analysed. All individuals and organisations with a stake in a company are considered stakeholders, including the company's staff, players, members, league or connected governing body, government, community, facility owners, sponsors,

broadcasters, and customers. Whom a sport management is attempting to please is a continual issue that has to be addressed. Serving certain stakeholders' interests above others, whether on purpose or accidentally, has severe ramifications for determining the strategic course and allocating scarce resources. For instance, certain professional sports organisations have a propensity to prioritise winning above all other considerations, including prudent financial management. While this could temporarily please members and fans, it does not represent the interests of governing bodies, leagues, and staff, for whom a sustainable business is essential.

If their requirements are not addressed, sponsors and government agencies that subsidise sports may remove their support. Hence, before a strategic direction can be determined, a thorough investigation of the intents and goals of each stakeholder in their connection with the sport organisation must be carried out. The opinions, standards, and goals of the most influential stakeholders have an impact on the strategy's content.

Competitor research

Everything in the external world may be an opportunity or a danger, including the existence and actions of rivals. Competitor analysis makes ensuring that an inquiry is carried out methodically since the activities of competitors may significantly impact the success of a strategic approach. Competitor analysis comes in a variety of formats and levels of depth.

The five forces

Michael Porter created the five forces analysis, which is an extension of the competitive environment analysis. It is the method most often used to describe the market environment.

Threat of new competitors Every business must contend with the chance that brand-new rivals may join their market at any point. This is improbable in several professional sports because of the very high admission requirements. For instance, it would be very difficult for a private independent league to compete with any of the European professional football leagues. On the other side, new sports venues, competitions, clothing brands, and equipment producers often enter the market.

Buyers' negotiating power: Buyers are the people, organisations, and businesses who make purchases from sport organisations for their goods and services. The strength or bargaining power of buyers has an impact on the type of competitive environment. For instance, if the cost of football tickets is any indication, the majority of football fans in the UK are powerless. Prices are lower when there is purchasing power. Despite some extravagant fees paid by broadcasters for the media rights to some sports, media buyers should have a fair amount of negotiating power. But for the majority of sporting organisations, the main consumers—the fans—do not band together to increase their purchasing power, which limits consumers' bargaining power. The ability of suppliers to negotiate: When providers of crucial raw materials to sporting organisations threaten to increase prices or discontinue their goods or services, they are trying to strengthen their negotiating position. This could come from manufacturers of sporting goods or from suppliers of the building materials needed to construct a new facility. The unionisation of professional athletes in an effort to raise their pay and club salary caps has created the most significant supplier issue in sports. In cases where player unions were well-organized, their bargaining power was substantial.

Threat of replacement goods and services: The traditional sports industry sectors are expanding, and competition between sports is becoming more prevalent. A sport organisation faces the challenge of being outcompeted by other sports, or worse, by other leisure activities, when this threat is significant. The level of competition between rivals in a market: The

intensity of competition increases with the number of sports organisations that provide nearly identical goods and services. For instance, Nike and Adidas have a fierce rivalry in the market for sports shoes. The rivalry between sports teams in the same league that play in the same general geographic area is murkier. football teams in London and Melbourne Examples include Australian football teams and colleges in the same American state. It is unlikely that one club could "steal" supporters from another neighbourhood club in these situations. Additionally, it is unlikely that an alumnus of one college will start going to the home games of another college team. However, there is fierce competition between these clubs for corporate sponsorship, media coverage, players, coaches, managers, and management personnel. Of course, they also compete for the championship in the fiercest rivalry imaginable.

Strategic Planning

The strategic direction can be determined after the strategic analysis is complete. Four traditional methods are employed to specify and record this direction: 1) The organization's mission statement; 2) its vision statement; 3) its goals; and 4) its performance indicators.

Mission declarations

A mission statement states the organization's goals. Although it may seem strange to have to put this in writing, doing so lowers the possibility of strategic ambiguity. Players, participants, spectators, staff, coaches, members of the media, sponsors, and government officials, for instance, may all have different perspectives on what a sport organization's goals are. The mission statement should define why an organisation was set up, what services and products it provides, and for whom it provides them. When reduced to a single statement, this mission is a powerful statement of intention and responsibility. It usually does not exceed one paragraph.

Vision statements

It goes without saying that behind the idea of setting a strategic direction is the need to be visionary: to look into the future and form a clear mental image of what an organisation could be like. Thinking in this manner means being able to interpret the information collected during the analysis stage and find the opportunities they present. A vision statement represents the culmination of this kind of thinking. It is a statement that declares the medium- to long-range ambitions of an organisation. The statement is an expression of what the organisation wants to achieve within a period of around three to five years. The statement is normally no longer than a sentence.

Organisational goals

Organizational objectives act as stepping stones in the direction of the vision statement, which is a representation of the medium- to long-term goals of a business. The accomplishments that must be completed in order to actualize the vision are reflected in the objectives. For instance, a club's goal can be to place in the top three if they are currently at the bottom of the championship ladder. A goal can state the desire to advance by three spots by next season as a step towards the overall vision, although realising this aim in a single season is impractical. Every major operational aspect of an organisation, including on-field performance, youth development, finances, facilities, marketing, and human resources, often has its own set of objectives. Yet it's crucial that goals continue to be quantifiable.

Performance evaluation

Organizational goals and key performance indicators (KPIs) are combined to determine success or failure. KPIs should be developed concurrently with goals since they cannot be separated

from them. It is important to take care each time a performance metric is utilised to make sure that it can be quantified. An organization's marketing purpose to "improve the public image" is useless, for instance, unless it is followed by measurable results. It's important to remember that metrics don't always have to concentrate just on outputs like volumes, rankings, and prizes. They may also be used to gauge productivity, or how much more can be accomplished with the same amount of resources.

Formula for a strategy

Setting the strategic direction charts a roadmap for the future and displays the competitive position of a sport organisation. How do I get there is the next question. The sport manager and his or her team are tasked with placing their business in the competitive environment at the strategy development stage of the strategic management process. This calls for a blend of scenario thinking and creativity. In other words, they have to think about the effects of every possible strategic course. Nonetheless, there are a limited amount of tactics that the sport manager has access to, which helps from the perspective of strategic positioning. The term "generic competitive tactics" refers to them.

Canadian speed skating techniques

It would appear that you would want to be Dutch if you had even the tiniest interest in being successful in the sport of speed skating. Speed skating has developed a stellar reputation for the Netherlands on the international level. The Netherlands have won 105 medals overall since the 1924 Olympics, which is much more than any other country. While Canada has typically concentrated on winter sports, its overall number of Olympic medals has remained at a relatively modest 35. Speed Skating Canada established a plan to promote speed skating throughout the nation, unfazed by the fierce competition. Prior plans had money allocated to the sport with a focus on talent spotting and international competition. As a result, the strategic imperative of creating a strong base of participants from whom outstanding athletes may later be picked has been eclipsed by the financial benefits and media attention often associated with winning Olympic and World Championship competitions. By changing their way of thinking, they adopted a long-term perspective on the tactical advancement of the sport. Speed Skating Canada recognised as a consequence that strategy plans that just concentrate on medals and world championships sometimes overlook the critical need to develop athletes for the future. While Speed Skating Canada's current strategic plan does not neglect excellence, a dual emphasis that combines grassroots development and elite performance has formed. The Long Term Participation and Athlete Development (LTPAD) Model is the name given to this more comprehensive strategy today. It represents the goals and values of the Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L) movement, giving priority to the execution of a seven-stage development plan to raise the standard and competence of physical exercise in Canada. From childhood to old age, all Canadians are encouraged to participate in various aspects of participation at each stage of the model, such as getting started, appreciating the fun of sport, learning to train, training to train, competing and succeeding in sport, and staying active throughout one's life. The CS4L movement's unique guiding concept asserts that neither a formal infrastructure nor a governing body are needed for its execution. Instead, to drive sport participation in Canada, the CS4L looks to industry specialists from education, government, provincial, and national sport programmes. With the aim of fostering its long-term athlete development (LTAD) framework since its adoption in 2005, CS4L has broadened its approach to include a leadership team from 17 supporting sport organisations throughout Canada. As part of its overall goal, Speed Skating Canada has adopted the CS4L concept and included a long-term athlete development plan. The goal of the strategy is to make the most use of available resources by directing highly talented

skaters into career involvement and eventually elite competition. It tackles concerns of growth and development within the sport. The strategy has also addressed some of the shortcomings of the present approaches, which have a tendency to provide results quickly. Speed Skating Canada has acknowledged that increasing the emphasis on skill development is necessary to attract more individuals to the sport. In reality, they should be reallocated to the developmental phases of participation so that the principles of the sport are learned sooner and at a better level of skill performance. For instance, in practise, the most experienced coaches deal with the elite end of participation. The natural evolution from participation and enjoyment to competitive participation and elite competitiveness is significantly slowed down as a result of such short-term strategies. The long-term focus of the new strategic plan will shift from the chance-based method of talent discovery to talent development programmes and participation rates. Maybe not unexpectedly, the new Speed Skating Canada plan is modelled after the Dutch concept, which is known for producing sustained results.

CHAPTER 6

GENERIC APPROACHES TO COMPETITION

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Porter (1985) said that regardless of an organization's industry, goods and services, environmental situation, or resources, there are only three basic or generic tactics that may be used. The most fundamental issue a sport management must consider when making a strategic decision is what will be our source of competitive advantage. Generic competitive strategies provide an answer to this question. In other words, every sports organisation has to occupy some kind of market space. Finding a situation that is both favourable and opportune is difficult. As a result, some sports organisations compete against their rivals by offering their goods and services at lower prices; others do so by offering something special that is difficult for competitors to match; still others try to establish themselves as the sole provider of a modest but devoted market niche. The following is a description of these three strategic roles:

Cost leadership: To become a cost leader by offering goods and services to as many clients as possible at the lowest cost. This strategy approach's premise is based on volume and market share, where more sales than rival rivals result in higher profitability. Efficiency and the capacity to reduce expenses to the absolute minimum are crucial components of this general competitive strategy. Although this method is often used in consumer goods like shampoo, it is less frequently used in sports. Yet, some makers of sporting goods and equipment do price their goods below those of their more costly rivals in the hopes of outselling them considerably. Similar to this, numerous recreational establishments make an effort to attract clients by offering reduced costs.

Differentiation: To provide a distinct range of goods and services that are challenging for rivals to imitate. The underlying premise of this strategic strategy is that customers will put a high value on distinctive goods and services. This strategy is often backed up by an effort to create a strong brand image, frequent innovation and new features, and prompt customer service. Because of the nature of their products, many sporting organisations find themselves in this situation practically by accident. For instance, a tennis club provides a variety of services that are by definition unique, at least in comparison to other sports or leisure pursuits. It could be important for one tennis club to adopt a different strategic stance when two tennis clubs compete in the same region. One possibility is to further distinguish their offerings, possibly by providing something novel or ground-breaking like a daycare centre for players who play during the workweek or a fitness centre for players who are more intensely competitive.

Focus: In order to dominate the market and a certain market segment, a set of goods and services must be offered. This strategy approach is justified by the idea that a company may achieve early success by dominating a tiny portion of a bigger market without having to contend with far more powerful and well-funded rivals. In order for this strategy approach to be successful, the market segment must be carefully chosen, keeping in mind that the offered goods and services must satisfactorily address specific client demands. This strategy is used by

several sports groups. Examples include specialised sporting goods and niche sport organisations like table tennis and rock climbing.

The strategic management process' analysis and direction phases serve as the basis for choosing amongst these three options. A sport manager who understands strategy is always trying to figure out how to position the company in a crowded market. Determine what the sports organisation is likely to be able to perform better than others; this is part of the decision-making process (like keeping costs low or delivering great customer service). Finding a chance in an area worth examining is the other component. Strategic formulation occurs when these elements line up in a way that is compatible with the strategic direction. It is important to keep in mind that being "caught in the middle" between plans is the worst possible situation, but that, with the right management, combining strategic alternatives may be beneficial.

Implementing a Plan

Implementing a strategy is equivalent to introducing the organization's selected competitive approach. The implementation stage, for instance, takes into account how a differentiation strategy might be implemented throughout the organization's goods, services, and activities. Thus, there has to be a clear separation between the strategic level of decision-making and the level of execution. To use another military comparison, strategy refers to the organisation of a whole army. Tactical and operational choices are also taken at the implementation level. They are comparable to the decisions made by each battalion, unit, or platoon. The army's aims are always reflected in the larger goal, but each smaller component of the army strives for manageable victories that will ultimately lead to victory in the conflict.

The process of putting choices on the strategy that will be used to accomplish organisational goals into action starts after those decisions have been made. This implies that decision-making on how they might contribute to the general plan must include representatives from each significant area or department of the business. Planning is likely to include the directors of the developmental programmes, for instance, if one of a club's goals is to improve on-field performance. Likewise, a goal related to financial success will need participation from the marketing team in charge of sponsorship. This means that every aspect of the organisation, such as junior development, community relations, coaching, facilities, governance, marketing, finance, and human resources, should be included in the plan execution process. A plan illustrating the series of actions that will be taken at the tactical and operational levels to support the general strategy should be created for each of these areas. Each of these activities needs a metric or KPI of some kind, much like goals. Changes to resource allocation, organisational structure, mechanisms for providing goods and services, organisational culture, and leadership are often necessary as part of the implementation process.

According to recent estimates, less people are participating in team sports. For instance, only in the past few years, participation in the four most popular sports in the country—basketball, soccer, baseball, and football has decreased by around 4%. Sport managers must do environmental assessments in order to better understand the motives and choices of their audience in order to react with more alluring products and battle this diminishing enthusiasm. In order to create the most successful plans for the success of their athletic companies, sport managers must understand their clients. The typical team sport consumer, for instance, has a number of essential psychographic and behavioural traits in common, such as a long-standing passion in the activity cultivated via familial or local traditions. Team sports may also provide more cheap possibilities to play sports from an economic standpoint since more players can use the same facilities, which lowers the direct expenses of participation. Participants depended on easy access and a feeling of community since sport clubs first developed in local

communities. Team sports may foster comradery similar to fighting for your country, while also enhancing abilities and coordination and fostering beneficial social relationships. The attractiveness of team sports is ensured for the majority of players when these factors are combined with the potential for fame or hero status. The significance of completing an environmental analysis has only grown in light of the underlying motives that are similar to involvement in most team sports as well as the growth of competing options ranging from the competitive to the leisure. Developing consumer "intelligence" is still a crucial part of developing a strategy. Creating a profile of a consumer's demographic, psychographic, and behavioural traits indicates the possibilities that may be exploited as well as the sports that they can be persuaded to try. The requirements and desires of sport consumers have changed as a result of the fall in team sport participation and the increase in solitary fitness-related activities. For instance, consumer research has shown that a significant portion of sport players have left team sports because they do not like its competitive culture. Although if team sports are initially enjoyable for children, they may soon intensify to emphasise elite competitiveness and specialisation, which leads to the discovery of potential. Other alleged restrictions include worries about privacy, safety, and time obligations, and cultural obstacles sometimes prevent people from feeling as if they belong.

According to the research that is currently available, sport and leisure customers are looking for less competitive, more individualised participation activities that emphasise health and fitness above awards and performance. Working with a personal trainer is the best alternative to conventional, structured team sports for those people who are not interested in team sports and are time-constrained. While the social and economic conditions of prospective clients, such as their level of discretionary income and personal concerns about leading a healthy lifestyle, might affect the need for personal trainers, interest in this field has grown significantly over the last several years.

Personal training has developed into a new sport and leisure activity in the United States. It mostly comprises of one-on-one and group face-to-face sessions led and motivated by a trainer that take place inside or in parks in the early morning and late at night. One of the main sources of attraction is seen to be "personal," reflecting a fresh understanding of what today's consumers want. Psychographically speaking, a personal trainer serves as a mentor, protector, and motivation. But, even this sector is changing, and an increasing number of customers are looking for guidance from an online personal trainer. Everyone in the world may get the service from an online personal trainer at a time and location that are convenient for them. These customised services appeal to clients who may struggle with self-esteem, be time-constrained, or have a nomadic way of life. Personal trainers may provide their services everywhere there is internet connectivity.

Customized online fitness, wellness, and sport training programmes are often offered for events including marathons, cycling, triathlons, crossfit, and ironman. The sport manager must examine the psychographic, behavioural, and demographic preferences of current customers of personal training in order to develop a targeted strategy to draw customers to this expanding industry. The sport manager must also develop strategies to entice potential new participants.

Strategy Analysis

Controlling or evaluating what has been done is one of the trickier parts of strategic management. This process is problematic in sports for a variety of reasons, not the least of which is the evident propensity for on-field performance to overshadow other aspects of strategy. Two linked parts of the strategy must be evaluated as part of the strategic review step.

The success of the implementation steps must be determined, followed by a comparison of the KPIs linked to each organisational target with actual outcomes.

Approach as Change

Organizational transformation has to be managed within a cogent framework for managers with a firmly strategic viewpoint. According to this perspective, effective strategy execution is still inextricably linked to organisational transformation since change should manifest as a result. As a result, strategy and change are often confused and used interchangeably. Strategists deal with organisational transformation issues that previously looked too challenging or too entrenched, whether they are brought on by a declining bottom line, a poor performance on the field, an unforeseen shift in technology, weak product sales, or one of a hundred other scenarios. Sadly, a lot of sport organisations get sidetracked or distracted by the details of how to accept the need for change without taking into account the straightforward need to prepare for it.

An organization's alignment with its external environment may vary through time in terms of form, quality, or status, which is how strategic change is commonly defined. Nevertheless, when it comes to strategy, most change leaders seldom ever have time for definitions. We can recognise excellent strategy when we see it, just as we can great art. A strategic approach to change presumes that the desired end point influences change efforts in the same manner as the summit of a mountain designates the point at which a climb has been completed. A sport organisation must use a strategic approach to establish its existing position and then decide exactly where it wants to go at the conclusion of the transformation process by using both logic and honesty. The prerequisites for change are then determined by the distinction between the two situations. The gap technique, albeit it is oversimplified, describes strategic change since the motivation for action centres on bridging the gap between the present and desired state. Naturally, bridging a performance gap requires judgements on how to allocate limited resources while taking into account the complexity of environmental limits and the relative relevance of various goals. A strategic viewpoint also presupposes that organisations engage with intentionality and proactivity. Change happens as a result of top management and other change agents deciding it is essential. It proceeds logically and linearly, with leaders serving as the key catalysts and arbiters. A strategic approach argues that sport managers have the last say in how their organisations are run. Leaders introduce many systems, institutions, and goods until they either discover the best formula or a disaster occurs. In contrast, a change that is unsuccessful must be the result of inadequate management or leadership, or a bad choice of initial plan. An interventionist, managerial strategy is used for strategic transformation. It places emphasis on how strategically astute leaders may manipulate organisational components in reaction to external conditions. Such thinking is still evident in today's sport organisational executives, whose use of strategic terminology and techniques reveals a conviction about the causal relationships between strategic choices and performance outcomes. Change that results from the creation of an organisational strategy is predicated on the systematic, deliberate search for the best answers to challenges that are well-defined and well-understood. Finding the right match between a vision and the environment, according to sport managers, is how they maximise the performance of their business. Change is dependent on the traditional understanding of strategy presented in this chapter in this regard since it represents an alignment of corporate goals, internal resources, and external possibilities. Goal development, execution, assessment, and adjustment repetitive sequences are a mainstay. Although it would be inaccurate to say that a traditional model does not make an effort to take into account the complexity of organisational change, it does depict it in a linear manner. Since everything in a

sport organisation should be governed by the will, vision, and actions of its leaders, change can be managed.

Despite the assumption that strategic change occurs as a precisely defined process that was envisioned from the beginning, sport organisational development often has emergent features. Programs for transformation evolve. Leaders and pundits often provide tidy, methodical interpretations of events after the fact, suggesting that each decision was well considered. Contrarily, the first-hand accounts of spectators and staff members inside sporting organisations may reveal a great deal of confusion and muddle. While change may be presented strategically as being orderly and tidy, few operational sport managers and workers really perceive change as anything other than hazy. Original ideas seldom materialise precisely as they were imagined. Disconnects between strategic planning and strategic thinking are usually unavoidable, notwithstanding the possibility of plans going awry and unforeseen problems developing in the environment. Moreover, it may be claimed that the fact that organisational change was necessary in the first place shows that organisational planning and strategy failed. Of course, the appropriate answer is moving forward with more strategic transformation.

No matter how effectively the strategic change plan is developed, how passionately the majority of the staff agrees, how well it is led, or how significant it is, someone or a number of people inside or sometimes outside the company will try to sabotage it. This might happen because a person or group thinks that the suggested approach will negatively effect them, because they don't comprehend the plan's needs, because they can't accept change easily, or because they think the plan is wrong. Not everyone responds to change with the same rationale that is meant to be guiding the change process. Virtually all analyses of strategic change include the possibility of resistance from a certain group within the workforce. Most people will provide logical recommendations for improvement, but it is still difficult to anticipate opposition while maintaining a strategic attitude.

It should be highlighted that not all sport organisations or degrees of change respond well to the strategic change paradigm. Yet, the strategic model provides a strong organisational foundation for significant change throughout a big sport organisation. We believe that, with dedicated leadership and a clear drive for change, the principles associated with strategic change provide an effective, though sometimes too rigorous, first direction. Sport organisations are not always logical participants in the process of transformation. Their future is not only defined by a leader's capacity to do accurate analysis and create effective strategies to achieve set goals. According to strategic change methodologies, change is one-dimensional in nature. Change, however, takes place on several levels and in a variety of ways. Moreover, even if it is not an unchangeable force, the external environment cannot always be controlled with cunning strategies. A strategy plan can't always represent how sport organisations interact with and contribute to their surroundings, which makes decisions on how to react much more ambiguous and difficult. Change managers may discover that further investigation creates greater complexity when the nuanced peculiarities of numerous scenarios emerge. The strategic approach to change's portrayal of management decision-making as a "black-box" that generates the right results when the right inputs are calculated has another evident drawback. For instance, it may be particularly challenging for organisations to maintain objectivity in the face of their socio-historical contexts. Due to environmental instability, historical baggage, and the unexpected "human element," organisational transformation is often chaotic and non-linear in reality. Even while it is wise to undertake environmental evaluations and set specific objectives, the future often deviates from predictions made on the basis of linear trends. The difficulty for sport managers is not just in anticipating change but also in recognising when to alter the strategy.

As Practice: Strategy

A new problem in strategy underlines how difficult it is to distinguish between management practise and strategy, especially when organisational structures are seen as essential to the process of strategizing. This stance reflects the broader strategic management paradigm of strategy as practise, which is focused on how managers "do strategy" or strategize. Since it requires a clear separation between the two as independent qualities and processes, the idea that organising forms inside structures stays subordinate to strategy may be seen as outdated. Organization and strategy are not always separate concepts. Strategy is not followed by organisation. The more modern perspective is that the strategy is the organisation. A sport organisation could be able to penetrate new markets and reach more people, for instance, by investing in advanced IT infrastructure. Here, it is assumed that changing organisational structures constitutes a strategic shift. Moreover, the phrases organising and planning are crucial to this claim. The phrases' verb forms convey the significance of dynamic rather than static transformation processes. So, strategy and organisation become strategy and organisation.

From the perspective of a sport management, success is more dependent on having the capacity to continually modify strategy and structure in response to changes in market and competitive dynamics than it is on getting things right from the start. The knowledge and expertise of a sport organisation depends on managers' capacity to simultaneously consider organisational choices and strategy. The breadth of strategy without organisation is constrained, much like a sports team without specific playing roles. The strategizing-organizing school of thought also contends that intermediate and lower level managers must participate in the formulation of strategies.

Organisational design

Managers pay a lot of attention to organisational structure as they try to arrange their employees and volunteers to have the most possible influence on organisational performance, employee behaviour, organisational culture, and achieving their strategic objectives. This chapter emphasises the distinctive features of sports organisations' organisational structures rather than reiterating the wealth of prior literature on the subject. The important research results on the organisational structure of sport organisations are thus summarised in this chapter, which also discusses the core principles of organisational structure and offers examples of the distinctive characteristics of sport organisation structures. A review of organisational management concepts for community, state, national, and professional sport organisations is also provided in this chapter. The reader should be able to: describe the key organisational structure dimensions; comprehend the distinctive characteristics of the structure of sport organisations; comprehend the various organisational structure models that can be used for sports organisations; identify the factors that affect the organisational structure of sport organisations; and comprehend some of the difficulties managers and volunteers involved in managing the organisational structure of sport may encounter.

The framework that specifies how activities are allocated, categorised, and coordinated inside an organisation is known as its organisational structure (Robbins et al. 2010). Every sports organisation has a structure that details the duties that should be carried out by teams and people. Developing the ideal organisational structure requires balancing the need to codify processes with the need to ensure task responsibility while promoting innovation and creativity. The "correct" structure is one that allows owners and managers to exercise sufficient control over staff members' actions without adversely influencing those individuals' work motivation and attitudes. In addition, it offers transparent reporting, accountability, and communication

channels while attempting to eliminate pointless and expensive management layers. The structure of an organisation is crucial because it establishes how employees and volunteers "fit in" with respect to job responsibilities, decision-making processes, the need for cooperation, degrees of responsibility, and reporting structures. In other words, an organization's structure acts as a road map for how roles within an organisation interact to one another and what duties are carried out by both people and work teams.

Organizational Structure Dimensions

Managers must take into account six factors while creating the structure of any organisation: job specialisation, departmentalization, chain of command, and span of control, centralization, and formalisation.

Specialisation of work

Work specialisation is the process of assigning people to roles that allow them to focus on performing a small number of tasks. Organizations that produce athletic products or need to manage a huge number of resources, such as providing uniforms and information to volunteers for a major sporting event, may readily use this approach. The benefit of breaking down occupations into a series of regular, repetitive activities is an improvement in worker productivity and a decrease in expenses due to the employment of a labour force with lower skill levels. This benefit must be weighed against the dangers of making work excessively monotonous or unpleasant for people, which may result in accidents, subpar performance, decreased productivity, absenteeism, and a high rate of job turnover. Most sports organisations have a small staff that is frequently asked to complete a variety of tasks throughout the course of a day, week, or year. Under these circumstances, the organisational structure will call for little to no job specialisation. In a state or provincial sporting organisation, a sport development officer might, for instance, be responsible for things like running skill clinics for young athletes, creating coach education programmes, maintaining a database of temporary employees, or representing the organisation to sponsors or funding organisations over the course of a season. These positions call for extremely distinct skill sets, and under such a structure, a low degree of task specialisation would be advantageous.

Departmentalization

Departmentalization is the process of organising people into teams so that activities that are similar or related may be coordinated. In essence, departments are formed to meet organisational objectives. Companies might departmentalize based on roles, goods or services, workflows, locations, or types of clients.

The most popular kind of departmentalizing is based on allocating individuals or positions to distinct departments in accordance with the potential functions they may carry out. For instance, a state or provincial athletic organisation may divide its employees into departments for athlete development, competition administration, special events, and corporate relations, each of which is responsible for carrying out a particular specialised task.

As an alternative, a sporting organisation that produces cricket gear may divide its workers into teams according to the product lines they create, with teams managing the production, sales, and servicing of cricket gear such shirts, bats, and training aids. Each department in this example performs the duties of marketing, human resource management, financial management, and production. Sport groups that focus on community service might also use these criteria. For instance, a company that manages athletes may provide a variety of services in the areas of financial planning, career development, life skills training, and public relations.

Each department would, once again, be in charge of managing its own marketing, human resource, and financial management systems. Sport organisations might create their departments based on location as well. For instance, a sports legal firm's activities may be divided into divisions for offices in capital cities or for regions. Each of the offices or regions would be in charge of its activities within a certain geographic area. Lastly, sports organisations might set up their departments based on the different kinds of customers they serve. An institution like the Australian Institute of Sport may implement this strategy by setting up divisions to serve either individual athletes or team sports. It is important to highlight that companies may decide to employ many criteria to create departments, and their decision will rely on the size, capabilities, and operational needs of the business.

Command structure

The reporting path between an organization's higher and lower levels is known as the chain of command. In essence, it is the chain of command that links the Chief Executive to every job inside a business. It includes the ideas of delineating distinct lines of power and accountability for each job inside the organisation. When we talk about authority, we mean the ability of managers to offer directives to other team members and the belief that these directives will be followed. Managers are given a matching amount of responsibility if they are given the power to complete tasks at a specified level of an organisation. The unity of command is the idea that each employee reports to a single superior. Having a single "boss" helps to create unambiguous decision-making and prevents staff from having to handle possible conflict while managing the needs of two or more bosses.

Area under control

The term "span of control" describes the amount of employees that a manager may personally oversee without losing efficiency or effectiveness. The precise number that any manager can successfully manage depends on the employee's degree of competence or experience; the idea being that personnel with more training and experience need less supervision. The ideal span of control for a particular manager within an organisation may depend on a number of factors, including the complexity of the tasks, the location of the staff, the reporting structures in place, the degree of task standardisation, the management style, and the culture of the organisation. The number of management levels needed in any particular firm depends on the range of control. More workers may be under one manager's supervision when the control area is larger, which reduces management expenses. The efficacy of this single management must spend more time liaising and communicating with a big number of employees as a result of this lowered cost. During the last ten years, businesses have increasingly introduced greater spheres of influence, which has led to a flattening of organisational structures. This has to be done in combination with more employee training, a dedication to creating healthy workplace cultures, and support to make sure workers are more independent in their positions.

Centralised and decentralised

The level of decision-making centralization inside an organisation is referred to as centralization. When top managers make the bulk of decisions with minimal input from workers at lower levels, the company is said to be highly centralised. As an alternative, a company is said to be decentralised when workers and managers at lower levels are given the authority to make choices. It is crucial to realise that the ideas of centralization and decentralisation are relative, meaning that neither is ever the exclusive characteristic of an organisation. If all choices were determined by a select few top managers or if they were given to lower level employees, organisations could not operate. Due to the impact of their historical

organisational forms, nonprofit sport organisations tend to be more centralised than decentralised. At the board level, when volunteers make choices on the strategy that are then implemented at the operational level by hired employees, decision-making is often centralised. Politics or delayed decision-making issues may result from this. On the other hand, nonprofit sport organisations must make decisions at the local level in order for clubs, events, and athletic contests to function well since they are often composed of diverse groups and dispersed across a large geographic region.

Formalization

The term "formalisation" describes the degree to which tasks are standardised and the amount to which employee behaviour is governed by policies and guidelines. The selection of new employees, training, general regulations on how work is done, protocols for regular activities, and the level of information in job descriptions may all be covered by these rules and procedures. By formalising an organisation, managers may exert more control over employees and limit their ability to make independent decisions. As compared to the tribunal for a professional sports league, which has a highly specific set of processes and regulations about how matters are reported, heard, and prosecuted, an organisation like a small sports club may have relatively few rules or procedures for how things are done.

Building Block Models

Sports organisations' organisational structures may be divided into four categories: bureaucracy, team structure, matrix structure, and basic structure. Let's take a quick look at each of them and see how it relates to sports groups. Wide spheres of control, limited departmentalization and formalisation, and a centralised decision-making process are all characteristics of the basic structure. A small sports goods retailer with 10 part-time and full-time employees and an owner/manager might use such a system. Departments wouldn't be necessary since the owner/manager, together with the rest of the sales floor crew, would handle the majority of decision-making and administrative duties. The owner/manager would have all workers reporting directly to him or her, and the bulk of operations would be carried out in accordance with a straightforward set of regulations. The structure's benefits in this situation are evident: choices can be made quickly, it guarantees a flexible staff to accommodate seasonal demands and busy times, and it makes it plain that the owner/manager is accountable. In order to handle the extra responsibilities of managing workers in various locations, making choices across a larger range of operational areas, and ensuring high-quality goods and services are offered at each shop or location, the owner/manager would need to change the organization's structure. The proprietor/manager may think about implementing a bureaucratic organisation.

The bureaucratic structure makes an effort to standardise how an organisation operates in order to optimise staff collaboration and activity management. High degrees of formalisation, the utilisation of departments to divide workers into separate teams that focus on distinct duties, highly centralised decision-making, and a clear line of command are all essential components. A department of sport under a state or provincial government would be organised in a manner similar to that of Sport England, the Australian Sports Commission, or Sport England. It goes without saying that an organisation is more likely to exhibit certain aspects of bureaucratization when it grows in size, extends the places where it provides services, or diversifies the range of activities it engages in. The matrix organisational structure depicts how teams of people are divided into departments based on the services and goods they provide. For instance, a prestigious sports institution may create separate teams out of experts like sports psychologists, biomechanists, skill acquisition trainers, and exercise physiologists. It is possible for members

of these teams to serve a variety of athletic organisations or athletes at the same time, thus giving them two employers. In spite of violating the unity of command concept, this enables organisations to gather professionals in order to optimise knowledge transfer and facilitate their participation in a variety of projects or service delivery sectors. The justification for this structure is that it is preferable to have a team of professionals work together than to hire people to do their duties alone. Although doing so enables the company to provide a variety of services, it also raises the possibility of misunderstanding when it comes to handling the expectations of two bosses, which might result in an increase in stress.

The team structure is a relatively recent alternative for structural design. Decentralized decision-making is necessary in teams composed of individuals with the necessary competencies to carry out a range of activities because of the team structure. Such a structure may be used by a football club franchise with teams created for club activities or marketing initiatives since it enables swift financial, personnel, or player-impact decisions. There has been some study that has tried to classify the many structures that exist within nonprofit sport organisations, even though these general forms may be applied to all sorts of organisations. On the basis of the organisational features of specialisation, standardisation, and centralization, Kikulis et al. (1989) created a structural taxonomy for provincial (state) Canadian amateur sport organisations. The 1980s saw the professionalisation and bureaucratization of Canadian sport organisations, which led the researchers to try to determine precisely what shape this transformation had taken. In 1989, Kikulis and colleagues found eight structural concepts for

The three structural aspects of volunteer sport organisations (VSOs) vary in magnitude of complexity developed a typology of structures for British sport regulating bodies in a research similar to this. To discriminate between diverse structural designs, they too used the structural aspects of specialisation, standardisation, and centralization.

A research by Kikulis et al. (1992) focused on identifying design types for national level sport organisations. Organizational values and organisational structure factors were utilised to develop three different designs, including kitchen table, boardroom, and executive office. Each design embodies a particular blend of organisational values, including the organization's orientation towards private or public interests, the range of activities it engages in (from a focus on high participation rates to high performance results), the level of professional involvement in decision-making, and the standards by which effectiveness is measured. After examining the components of structure and the numerous applications for which they may be employed, we can now look at the aspects that affect the structure that a sport organisation chooses to utilise.

CHAPTER 7

STRATEGY FOR SPORT MANAGEMENT

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In an ideal scenario, an organization's structure would be created only to increase the likelihood that its strategic objectives would be met. While it is uncommon, strategy does have a significant role in a sport organization's choice of organisational structure. The creation of a particular organisational structure will be required regardless of whether a firm is pursuing an overarching innovation, cost-cutting, or imitation strategy. The introduction of paid professional staff, a highly intentional approach in response to increases in government support in sport in most club-based athletic systems across the globe, has had a significant influence on the evolution of the structure for nonprofit sport organisations. Thibault et al. looked at how such an approach might affect the design of provincial VSOs in Canada (1991). They discovered that the addition of professional personnel led to an increase in specialisation and formalisation, but that over time, centralization actually declined after initially growing. It was hypothesised that when the relationship between the board and staff stabilised, centralization reduced as a result of volunteer board members' desire to maintain influence over choices. When Kikulis et al. (1995) examined the changes in specialisation, standardisation, and centralization of Canadian NSOs during a four-year period, they saw this resistance to structural changes. In all three organisational structure pillars, they found that stalwart volunteers opposed change, underlining the importance of human agents and individual choice in shaping organisational change results.

Size

The ideal organisational structure for a given organisation depends in large part on the size of the company. In comparison to smaller organisations, larger organisations tend to be more formalised, have more specialised roles and departments, and have more layers of management. This makes sense since in a big firm, managers must use more control mechanisms to manage the amount and conveyance of information. Several studies looking at the connection between organisational size and degree of centralization imply that as companies get bigger, decision-making becomes more decentralised, according to Amis and Slack (1996). (p. 83). In terms of nonprofit sport organisations, they discovered that as an organisation grows, control over organisational decision-making remains at the voluntary board level. They came to the conclusion that this, along with the "central role of decision-making as a means of control and the desire for volunteers to retain this control" (Amis & Slack 1996, p. 84), meant that the boards of many sport organisations were hesitant to hand control over to professional staff.

Technology

There is a connection between technology and organisational structure. According to Robbins et al. (2010), departments are highly compartmentalised and decision-making is highly centralised in firms that mostly carry out regular activities. This makes sense since non-routine activities need that choices be made at the organisational level where they really take place. A

sport organisation, like a professional sports club, may need more specialised staff due to the increased use of information and communication technology, including video technicians, statisticians, and network programmers, who may have taken the place of employees who once performed tasks manually. The workforce has become more departmentalized and specialised as a result of this.

Uncertainty in the environment

Suppliers, service providers, consumers, sponsors, athletes, volunteers, employees, stakeholder groups, government regulatory bodies, as well as broader changes in economic or market circumstances, may all have an impact on how unstable the environment is for sport organisations. For instance, if a group of professional athletes behave inappropriately, their club or team may not be able to maintain or grow sponsorships as a result, which may affect their ability to hire and retain staff and necessitate structural changes. Similar to how an economic slowdown may directly effect sales of athletic goods, businesses may need to restructure their organisational structure to save costs or switch product lines.

It's important to note several additional factors that contribute to structural transformation in sports organisations. Poor on-field performance, personnel changes brought on by politics, competition, and market factors, changes in governmental policy, and forced change brought on by mergers and amalgamations are a few of these. If a professional sports team or club performs poorly on the field, the organisation of the staff involved in coaching, athlete support, or allied health services may need to be reviewed, and the playing or coaching staff may be terminated at the end of the season. It is possible for structural change to be implemented as a result of personal preferences of elected leaders or a call for change due to the political nature of some sport organisations that elect individuals to oversee their operations. All organisations are impacted by competition and market forces, but clubs operating in a league or competition must share information because of their interdependence. As a result, these organisations frequently share similar organisational structures, which makes structural change challenging. Poor international performances may result in funding reductions, which may affect an organization's ability to maintain its organisational structure. Governments may also alter the way they fund high performance programmes or tie funding levels to the performances of international teams or individuals. Finally, structural change may be imposed on sports organisations by government policy or economic factors (such as population loss forcing clubs to merge in rural areas) (such as forcing single gender sport organisations to merge).

Issues Sport Managers Face

Striking a balance between using fewer employees to cut costs and boosting productivity is a constant challenge for sport managers. This can be accomplished by using technology more frequently for data management, communication, and analysis, hiring qualified staff who can use technology, and creating semi-autonomous work teams that can act quickly. This necessitates the use of an organisational structure that is perhaps more adaptable than the majority of modern sport organisations. Another challenge facing sport managers is ensuring that their organisations are adaptable enough to quickly respond to market opportunities or stakeholder demands while still upholding adequate levels of control and accountability. Without unduly limiting the flexibility to change these guidelines and formal procedures, sport managers will need to establish clear standards for decision-making and acceptable degrees of formalisation.

The presence of both paid staff and volunteers, frequently with volunteers supervising the work of paid staff, is a feature of managing organisational structures that is relatively unique to sport.

Sport managers must be aware of the need to uphold strong bonds between these two important parts of their workforce and must maintain an appropriate structure that enables these groups to cooperate and communicate effectively in order to achieve organisational goals. Sport managers must also make sure the structure allows for the implementation of the strategy. If strategic plans are made, new markets are found, or new product and service offerings are developed without concurrent changes to the organisational structure, then it is doubtful whether the organisation will be able to carry out such planned changes. As demonstrated in the previous chapters, organisations that work in the sport industry must collaborate with a variety of other organisations from the public, private, and nonprofit sectors. It is crucial that sport managers pay attention to designing their structure to enable the achievement of specific strategic directions. Numerous stakeholders are frequently involved in setting the strategic direction of sport organisations. Therefore, the organisational structure should encourage participation from all pertinent stakeholders in decision-making processes. Finally, organisational structures that reflect the interdependent relationships between sports organisations that may be a part of a league, a group of associations, a joint venture, or a funding agreement with numerous partners and sponsors are required. This may go as far as designating roles within the structure for external liaisons or including representation from representatives of external organisations on internal decision-making committees. The British Basketball League's organisational design is an effort to address many of these issues.

The BBL operates independently of the second tier competition, the English Basketball League, unlike other sports where second division champions are promoted to take the place of the bottom-ranked team in the top league (EBL). Between the BBL and the EBL, there is no promotion or relegation, and EBL clubs cannot enter the BBL solely on the basis of their performance in official competition. However, EBL clubs and any other organisations are eligible to apply for a BBL franchise.

Because operating a team in the BBL is significantly more expensive than operating any other team in the UK, the BBL uses a franchise system or organisational structure. By eliminating the threat of relegation, the structure aims to protect investment in clubs and offer financial security. The competitive balance and financial management of BBL clubs are also facilitated by a salary cap and income distribution policy.

Clubs can apply to join the BBL by sending the BBL Franchise Committee a thorough business plan that includes venue information, evidence of a sufficient amount of financial backing, and an explanation of how the club will be sustainable. The BBL does not receive any government funding because all basketball funding is directed to England Basketball. Instead, sponsorship, media deals, merchandise, and ticket sales are how it makes money. The majority of the revenue that the league and clubs receive comes from commercial and media rights.

To increase opportunities for British players, the BBL has implemented player eligibility rules. Each team is only permitted a maximum of five over-18 non-British players per game. Players are directly hired by clubs from their development programmes or by making a direct application; there is no national draught system. In a nation where football, rugby, and cricket are the most popular sports, creating a competitive professional basketball league is a significant challenge. The directors of the BBL and the managers of their member clubs must contend with competition for sponsorship dollars, access to suitable venues, securing media rights, and maintaining market share in a crowded professional sports market. The BBL's use of the US-style franchise system and organisational structure is an effort to address these issues. The structure enables the league and clubs to prepare for future growth, manage revenue and

expenses across all organisational facets, and guarantee fair decision-making among the member clubs.

The framework outlining how tasks are divided, grouped, and coordinated within an organisation was defined as the organisational structure. The structure of an organisation is crucial because it establishes how employees and volunteers "fit in" with respect to job responsibilities, decision-making processes, the need for cooperation, degrees of responsibility, and reporting structures. Work specialisation, departmentalization, chain of command, span of control, centralization, and formalisation were six essential components of organisational structure that were examined. In addition, the simple structure, bureaucracy, matrix, and team structures were examined as four fundamental examples of how an organisation might use these six components to design an appropriate structure. The general drivers of change in organisational structure, such as size, strategy, technology, and environmental uncertainty, as well as some particular drivers specific to sport organisations, were reviewed. Finally, it was discussed how dealing with structures presents a variety of special difficulties for sport managers. Sport managers should be aware of the forces driving structural change as well as the specific structural elements they can influence to help the organisation perform better.

Human resource management

In business or sports organisations, human resource management essentially revolves around two things: first, finding the right person for the right job at the right time, and second, making sure the organisation has a properly trained and content workforce. Effective human resource management is based on principles that are not particularly difficult to understand. Human resource management is a challenging topic to handle in practise due to the sheer size of some organisations and the challenges of managing unusual organisations in the sport industry. Good human resources are essential for successful sports leagues, clubs, associations, retailers, and venues to meet their goals both on and off the field. Organizations, on the other hand, will struggle to perform if their employees are unmotivated, unsuited to their jobs, underpaid, or undervalued.

One of the main components of an organization's planning system is human resource management. It cannot be separated from other important management tools like managing organisational culture and structure, financial planning, or strategic planning. Both driving and being a result of effective management and planning is human resource management. A crucial point is that human resource management is a cycle that an organisation uses to try to achieve its strategic goals. It involves ongoing planning and evaluation. As a result, human resource management is a holistic management function because it can be both goal- and person-centered. Depending on the context and perspective of the organisation, human resource management can mean different things to different organisations. Successful human resource management is equated with profitability, long-term growth, and success for professional sports organisations that are profit-driven, such as the American National Basketball Association (NBA), Major League Baseball (MBL), or National Hockey League (NHL) (on and off the court, diamond and rink). This is not meant to imply that these objectives are pursued at the expense of employees, but rather that employee success is determined by objective business indicators and that human resource management is a tool for advancing the objectives of the company. For instance, some player welfare and development initiatives within professional sports organisations aim to create citizens who are morally, morally upright, and ethical. The athletes' intrinsic value as well as the extrinsic value that results from improved public relations and sponsor servicing make this a good human resource strategy. In

other words, more profitable athletes translate into greater overall success for professional sports franchises and teams.

Successful human resource management for non-profit sports organisations is not always about bottom-line financial performance. Rather, depending on the organisational context, it may cover a variety of tactics and results. In order to promote a more responsible club culture, a local sports team that has experienced issues with underage drinking may create a variety of educational programmes for its players, coaches, and administrators (who may be paid or volunteer staff). This player welfare programme may actually be a component of a human resource management strategy because the unsuitable club culture may have made it challenging to recruit and keep skilled and devoted volunteers. The player welfare programme can be used in the context of a professional team to manage its reputation and uphold brand credibility. The player welfare programme can be used to keep volunteers who were being turned away from the local community sport club as a result of poor behaviour and a dysfunctional culture. It is evident from these two examples that human resource management can be both goal-directed and person-centered at the same time.

The fact that no two sport organisations are exactly alike makes implementing effective human resource management within them one of the biggest challenges. Different kinds of sport organisations have different staffing profiles, as Taylor et al. (2008) have shown. These staffing profiles depend on the kind of organisation as well as the reason(s) for its existence. For instance, a professional sports organisation, like a team in the Spanish La Liga, will have a large staff of full-time paid professionals involved in marketing, coaching, sport science, and general administration, whereas a non-profit organisation, like a local cricket or rugby club, is likely to have no paid staff. Other sports organisations may have a mix of paid and volunteer staff members who collaborate on daily operations of the organisation or in their roles as employees and members of a management committee or board of directors. Later in the book, we will look into how sport organisations are governed, but for now, it is important to note that many sport organisations have paid staff that reports to a volunteer board of directors. For the organization's overall management and, more specifically, the practise of human resource management, this relationship can be difficult.

Professional and amateur sport organisations do many of the same tasks, such as managing events, promoting events, generating money, providing membership services, and managing finances. Nevertheless, the size of the organisations varies. Sport companies are progressively embracing human resource management methods that are supported by the idea of professional and standard practise, however it is true that the size and kind of organisation has an influence on the practises that can and must be implemented. The professionalisation of nonprofit or local athletic groups has in fact been credited in large part to the adoption of certain human resource management techniques. For instance, the "Volunteer Participation Program" was created by the Australian Sports Commission in the early 1990s in collaboration with the Australian Society of Sports Administrators, the Confederation of Australian Sport, and state departments of sport and leisure. Given the significant number of volunteers participating in sport organisations and the growing professionalism of the sector, the initial programme was created to encourage them to adopt professional volunteer management techniques. Since then, the programme has been updated and improved to offer sporting clubs and associations tools and training modules for managing volunteers (including "recruiting volunteers," "retaining volunteers," "volunteer management: a guide to good practise," "managing event volunteers," "volunteer management policy," and "the volunteer coordinator"). Although it should be acknowledged that the variety of club-based sporting systems, such as those in operation in Australia, means that the capacity to professionalise varies considerably, these modules

encourage Australian sporting clubs and associations to develop systematic processes and practises.

Several fundamental principles of human resource management are relevant to all organisations, whether they are involved in business—like Coca-Cola or the mining corporation BHP Billiton—or sport—like the South African Rugby Football Union or the Canadian Curling Association. This is not unexpected considering that all of these firms employ personnel who are required to complete a variety of assigned jobs at a suitable level of performance. These employees will oversee financial management, strategic planning, and the creation of goods including Fanta, iron ore, coaching institutes, and national competitions. Nonetheless, there are important distinctions between corporate and athletic organisations that need alterations to standard human resource management procedures.

Professional sport companies in particular have distinctive characteristics that provide a distinct challenge for human resource management. Three different categories of personnel are vital to sports organisations, such as the Cincinnati Bengals of the National Football League in America. As an example, the director of business development or the director of corporate sales, marketing, and broadcasting are employed by the Bengals in what they refer to as "the front office." Second, the Bengals have employees in the "football department," which includes coaches, trainers, and scouts. The Bengals also employ the players, who make up "the team" and are the most well-known members of any professional sports club. One may argue that non-sport firms function similarly, with several levels of management, ranging from the Chief Executive Officer to the worker on the factory floor. The apparent distinction in a sports setting is that the lowest-paid personnel in the whole company are human resources, who are located at the base of the organisational hierarchy.

Chief Executive Officers, General Managers, and other top executives often get performance incentives and have access to share options in non-sport firms, allowing them to participate in the wealth and success of the business. The employees who make the goods (at the Fanta bottling facility or the iron ore mine, for example) are not eligible for performance-based incentives and incentive programmes that might be worth millions of dollars. The dynamic is flipped in professional sport organisations, where the players who create the product often get the performance incentives. While analysing the human resource management requirements of professional sport organisations in particular and sport organisations in general, it is crucial to keep this unique aspect of sport in mind.

Also, volunteers make up a significant component of the workforce in semi-professional and nonprofit athletic groups. It might be difficult for human resource managers in sport organisations to effectively manage volunteers and paid personnel separately. Sport is often performed in a communal setting (at a state, regional, or municipal level), therefore volunteers are always needed to support services, facilities, and events. Certain national sport organisations, like the Canadian Curling Association and the South Africa Rugby Football Union previously mentioned, employ paid national level staff members whose responsibility it is to plan and create programmes, tournaments, championships, and national teams. Depending on the size, popularity, and government financing given to the sport, equivalent state or regional organisations for various sports may also employ paid personnel in important administration, coaching, and development roles. Due to the need to offer programmes and services, govern the sport, and give strategic direction, these state or regional organisations may sometimes employ more people than the national organisation. Local organisations may also have some paid employees, again depending on the size and popularity of the sport, but at this level sports are supported by a sizable core of volunteers. In Australia, it is believed that 1.5 million

volunteers assist athletic events by giving more than 150 million hours of their time annually, whilst in the UK, volunteers are thought to provide more than 1 billion hours of service annually.

Every week, a significant amount of sport is performed in leagues and organisations across the globe. Football or ice hockey may have a winter season, whereas baseball may have a summer season, or the sport may be played year-round depending on whether it is played inside or outdoors (basketball). Sport organisations' personnel needs are predictable and mostly consistent due to the season's regularity and competitiveness, whether at the top or community levels. Nonetheless, there are a number of athletic occasions and competitions for which personnel numbers are unpredictable and difficult to prepare for. These occasions are either sporadic (a city may host the Olympics only once every 100 years) or significant enough to necessitate a huge staff for a prolonged period of time (the annual Monaco Grand Prix).

In essence, major events require a large workforce for a brief period of time prior to the event, during the event, and immediately following the event, as well as a small workforce made up primarily of paid staff for the remainder of the year (events such as the Olympic Games or world championships will require a permanent paid staff for many years prior to the event, but most staffing appointments will conclude within six months of the event finishing). A challenging issue in human resource management is the abrupt rise and fall in personnel over the course of one or two weeks. Simple but effective assessment and incentive systems are needed to keep the employees, and systematic recruiting, selection, and orientation programmes are needed to attract them.

With a huge staff, major firms have the ability and duty to practise sophisticated human resource management. Human resources management is often handled by a specific team or department that is overseen by a senior employee. Yet, small to medium-sized businesses may not always have the staff or resources to dedicate to conventional human resource management techniques. In small to medium-sized businesses, human resource management is frequently the responsibility of the most senior employee, such as the Chief Executive or General Manager, or it is combined with duties carried out by another senior manager who is in charge of the organization's finances, planning, or marketing, for example. Seldom do sports leagues, clubs, organisations, or venues have enough employees to justify hiring someone whose main job is to handle human resources. Human resource management is often seen as a luxury or as incidental to the other important management jobs, such as marketing, events, or sponsorship, which are frequently thought to be crucial. Moreover, personnel management, which includes more mechanical duties like payroll and record keeping, might be mistaken with human resource management (leave, sick pay, etc.).

Human Resource Management's Core Principles

The goal of human resource management in sports companies is to create a staff that is efficient, effective, and happy. The design, development, implementation, administration, and assessment of systems and processes used by employers to hire, select, develop, reward, retain, and evaluate their staff is referred to as human resource management. The essential components of the human resource management process. While it's vital to bear in mind that these stages will vary greatly depending on the size, direction, and context of the sport organisation in which they are applied, the following phases are generally regarded as the main duties of human resource management (Figure 7.1).
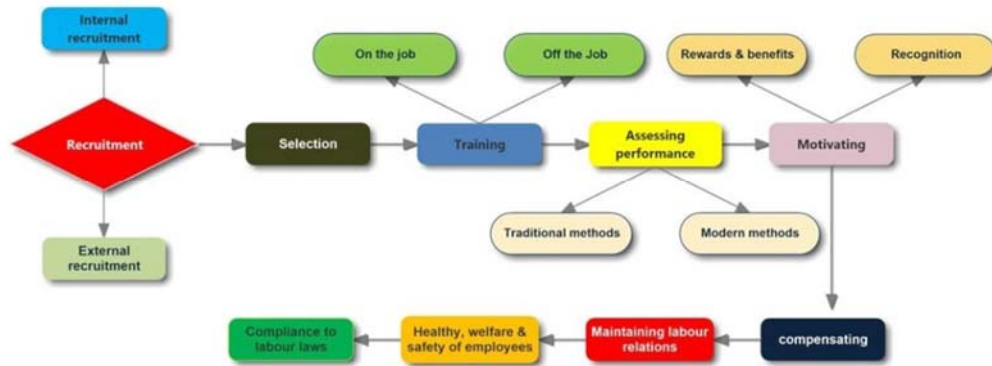
Figure 7.1: Conventional human resource management method.

Phase 1: Planning for human resources

The main purpose of human resource management planning, which is sometimes referred to as the most crucial stage for successful human resource management, is to evaluate and anticipate the organization's personnel requirements (Smith & Stewart 1999). In businesses where employment numbers are relatively stable and job types are seldom changing, the planning phase of human resource management is brief and mostly static. Human resource planning is a cycle of continuous improvement for companies that are dynamic or in a state of flux (due to economic constraints or possibilities, for example).

An organisation must determine during the planning phase whether current staffing levels will be sufficient to meet future demand (or whether fewer employees will be needed), whether staff turnover is predictable and can be accommodated, whether the ratios of paid, full-time, part-time, casual, and volunteer staff are appropriate or adequate, whether there are annual or cyclical fluctuations in staffing that need to be met and managed, and whether specific capabilities are required. An organisation must do a job analysis if it concludes that a new employee is needed or that a new position has to be formed in order to identify the job's prerequisites (skills, competences, qualifications, and experience), context, and main and implied duties (reporting relationships and job characteristics). The company is prepared to create a job description (a document that contains the work content and context) and a job specification after the job analysis has been completed in as much detail as feasible (a document that covers the job requirements, especially skills and knowledge base). Job design may be influenced by four management concepts. They are especially helpful for figuring out the many sorts of organisations and how a job could be positioned inside one. These topics include work rotation, job expansion, job simplicity, and job enrichment (Chelladurai 2006). The practise of breaking down a work (and the organisation) into a number of streamlined and specialised duties is known as job simplification. This simplicity aims to improve staff specialisation, which will boost production and efficiency. Work specialisation, depending on the situation, might make employees bored and thus unsatisfied with their work. Job simplicity, on the other hand, can be seen as a good management tool, especially when it comes to analysing the performance of an individual employee.

Job rotation, the second principle, helps combat the monotony and unhappiness that might come from simplicity. Job rotation is the practise of employees switching positions on a regular basis in order to stay motivated and fresh. Yet, it is obvious that a sport organisation would have a limited number of positions through which employees may cycle. A practise known as "job expansion" refers to the encouragement of workers to expand the scope of their work and

new duties, even if they are streamlined and specialised. A cheerful staff is an advantage of this strategy, but the impression of overwork is a drawback. The design of the work to increase employee engagement and participation is referred to as job enrichment. This procedure depends on the ability to create positions that are adaptable, have room for development, and can hire individuals who can work independently.

Recruitment

The process through which a company looks for the individual best fit for the position that has been created is known as recruitment. The likelihood that the company will discover a qualified candidate increases with the size of the application pool. Yet, creating a pool of candidates is not always straightforward, especially if the position calls for specialised knowledge, expertise, credentials, or experience that are in high demand or in low supply. Hence, the search for the chief executive officer of a large professional club with oversight of a multi-million dollar organisation might be time-consuming and expensive. But, it could simply take a tiny advertising in a neighbourhood newspaper to get someone to verify membership tickets at professional club home games. And finally, enlisting 10,000 volunteers for a significant landmark event would need a global or national advertising effort across numerous media platforms. As businesses benefit from the quickly evolving communication technology, hiring procedures are growing more complex.

Selection

The process of narrowing down the pool of applicants who applied for the job during the recruiting phase to a short list and choosing the most qualified applicant for the post is called selection and screening. The short-listed candidates will typically participate in at least one interview during the selection process, which will augment the application form and curriculum vitae that the applicants have supplied. These strategies for selection will be used to decide who among the candidates is the most qualified for the position and if the applicant is suitable in light of the job analysis.

The interview may take place in person, over the phone, through video conferencing, or online depending on the candidates' locations. In most nations, a variety of organisational and employment concerns are covered by industrial relations law. In order to protect the business from accusations of prejudice or discrimination, it is crucial to adhere to these rules and regulations throughout the whole human resource management process, including the recruiting and selection phase (on the basis of race, colour, country of birth, ethnicity, disability, religion, sex, age, marital status, pregnancy or sexual preference). The most typical method of deciding if a potential employee will be the greatest fit for the company and the role is via an interview. Yet, more and more methods are being utilised to assess if an applicant meets the job criteria defined during the planning stage, such as sophisticated personality and IQ tests (skills, competencies, qualifications and experience). For instance, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a personality test that assigns individuals to one of 16 personality types based on questions concerning psychological processes including how people like to understand information or make choices. Sport companies may utilise the MBTI, which is based on the psychological ideas of Carl Jung, to assess a candidate's suitability for the company as a whole as well as their suitability for the position in question in terms of personality, attitudes, and values.

CHAPTER 8

NATIONAL FOOTBALL LEAGUE SCOUTING

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The most well-known sports league in America is the National Football League (NFL). The National Football League (NFL) has 32 teams spread around the country, including the Miami Dolphins, Pittsburgh Steelers, Denver Broncos, Dallas Cowboys, Chicago Bears, and San Francisco 49ers (the 49ers). With multi-year, multi-billion dollar TV rights and sponsorship agreements as its cornerstone, the NFL is one of the wealthiest athletic organisations in the world. Monday Night Football and the Super Bowl in particular are American institutions. Due to the fact that NFL clubs spend more than $100 million on player wages alone, high school and college players from all over the country fight for lucrative contracts there while NFL teams scan the country in search of potential football talent. Every year in April, the NFL has a draught when each club has the chance to add players to its roster who were generally acquired via the highly established collegiate system. The worse performing teams are given higher "picks" in the draught than the better performing teams each year in order to create a degree of competitive balance.

This gives the poorer performing teams priority access to the top players in that year's graduating college class (including those that nominate early for the draft). Teams will go to great efforts to assess if certain college players will be prepared for the rigours of the NFL as well as whether the player will be a "good fit" in their organisation since the NFL is such a fiercely competitive industry. NFL clubs, like many other companies, must go through the "planning" phase of the human resource management process, during which they evaluate the playing talent they now have and try to predict the talent they will need in the future. NFL clubs have players in certain positions, such as quarterbacks, defensive backs, running backs, offensive linemen, wide receivers, etc., much as a typical corporation has departments for marketing, finance, sales, and other things, with personnel in each department. An NFL club must evaluate its future needs in each of these "divisions" and try to fill those needs by selecting players in the draught and via trades.

It is not up to chance which college athletes are selected in the draught. The top collegiate prospects for the next draught are invited to participate in the annual NFL "combine" in February of each year. The draught candidates go through a battery of demanding physical testing at the combine. Teams and coaches may compare the results of this year's combine prospects to those from past years since these exams are consistent from year to year. The NFL explains each of the exams in the manner shown below:

40-yard sprint

The highlight of the combine is the 40-yard dash. Similar to the 100-meter race in the Olympics, the emphasis is on speed, explosion, and watching talented competitors run fast times. These athletes are timed at intervals of 10, 20, and 40 yards. The scouts are searching for an explosion that begins static.

Exercise bench

Bench pressing 225 pounds for as many repetitions as the athlete can handle is a strength test. The NFL scouts are also interested in a player's endurance. Anyone may do a max once, but the bench press shows pro scouts how often the athlete visited the weight room at his or her college during the previous three to five years.

Leap vertically

All of the strength and explosion in the vertical leap come from the lower body. They measure the athlete's reach while he is standing flat-footed. As the athlete's vertical leap is determined by the distance between his reach and the flag he touches, it is critical to measure the reach precisely.

Wide leap

The wide jump reminds me of junior high school gym class. In essence, it evaluates an athlete's lower-body explosiveness and strength. The athlete begins with a balanced posture before pushing as far as he can. Explosion and balance are put to the test since he must land still.

Three cone drill

The three cone drill measures an athlete's capacity for rapid direction changes. L-shaped arrangement of three cones. Starting at the starting line, the athlete travels five yards to the first cone before returning. Next he turns, weaves around the third cone, which is the high point of the L, reverses direction, and returns to the second cone to complete the move.

Operate a shuttle

The first cone drill is the short shuttle. The 5-10-5 is the term for it. It evaluates an athlete's lateral speed and explosiveness in constrained spaces. The athlete begins in a three-point stance, blasts out five yards to the right, contacts the line, then pivots before turning five more yards to the left and finishing.

Fourth stage: orientation

The individual is prepared to start working in their new position within the sports organisation after they have successfully completed the recruiting and selection procedures. Nonetheless, they must be oriented and initiated before they begin. This stage of human resource management is crucial because a strong orientation and induction programme can make a new hire feel empowered and welcomed, whereas a weak programme or none at all can make a new hire feel as though they have just arrived in a foreign country where they have no idea where to go, no idea how to read any of the signs, and can't speak the language. Simply said, joining a new group may be intimidating and terrifying. Some of the challenges, worries, and fears may be eased by the adoption of effective orientation and induction programmes. If the employee is a volunteer, potential issues are amplified, and if the volunteer does not have any direct supervision from a paid employee of the organisation, things might become much worse. This will only lead to catastrophe for the company and the individual. Some of the orientation and induction procedures are described in Table 7.1 as part of a set of volunteer management modules suggested by the Australian Sports Commission.

An athlete is inevitably confronted with the whole new world of professional sport and all the expectations that come with it after they have been chosen to play for a team in a major professional sport league (passing the recruiting and selection procedures). The National Basketball Association (NBA) in the USA realised that many young players were going

through a challenging period and created a thorough orientation and induction programme. Since 1986, a week-long training and development camp has been held in the month before the start of the season for the next season's rookie players. This young athlete's development of improved life skills is the goal of the rookie transition programme, which is intended to help them be ready for the unique and distinctive pressures of a professional sporting career. The NBA expects that its young players will be better prepared to make choices thanks to the transition programme, which covers a wide variety of themes including nutrition, anger management, and sexual health.

Educating and developing

An organization's commitment to continuous growth and progress is centred on training and development. Without comprehensive training and development programmes, sport organisations will run significantly below their potential because they will lag behind in terms of skills, practises, and trends, as well as because they will not see themselves as learning organisations. At its most basic level, training and development is a process through which both new and current workers acquire the skills necessary for them to do their jobs effectively. These abilities may range from learning how to handle automatic turnstiles at a professional sports stadium (training for new hires) to developing unique branding strategies for the company to compete in a hostile market (training for the experienced existing employee). When a major league sports franchise ensures the quality of its products or services or when a national sport organisation creates an organisational culture that promotes compliance from state or regional sport organisations, training has evolved from a largely mechanistic activity to one that now includes more generic organisational skills that need to be developed and implemented.

A training and development approach for sports organisations that consists of five steps. The first step is to conduct a "needs analysis," during which the business determines the abilities that its workers require, evaluates the existing skill base, and creates specific training goals. The actual training curriculum is developed in step two, either internally or externally. As was previously said, the majority of sports companies are too small to have sophisticated human resource management departments with the knowledge and expertise to plan, create, and carry out extensive training programmes. Depending on the results of the requirements analysis, sport organisations will most often turn to external training providers, including universities or consulting businesses, to provide customised or standard programmes. In step three, validation, the company may verify that the training programme it produced or hired fulfils the requirements analysis. This step is optional. Phase four is programme implementation, which includes staff training (this could be anything from a one-day short course, through to a two-year Masters program). The evaluation of the training programme occurs in the fifth and last stage. Although the failing programme has to be abandoned or reworked, which necessitates that the business reevaluate the requirements analysis, the successful programme may be extended to incorporate more personnel or more talents. The ideal way to approach the training and development process is as cyclical, much as the whole human resource management process is.

To function well, the majority of large sporting events need both paid employees and volunteers. Mega events like the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup are too big to be managed by paid personnel alone; they need a sizable volunteer labour force to function. Mega events must have detailed policies and procedures for each of the human resource management stages covered in this chapter in order to successfully and efficiently manage this labour force. An event organisation must evaluate its present and prospective personnel requirements during

the "planning" phase of the human resource management cycle. In the years running up to the World Cup, the "current" workforce profile for a company like the FIFA World Cup organising committee is often rather modest; the employees are mostly full-time and compensated. Contrarily, the "future" staffing requirements are substantial, requiring a mixture of full-time, part-time, casual, and volunteer employees; World Cup organisers must draw upon past events' expertise as well as an analysis of their own unique demands in order to design the event.

The FIFA World Cup Volunteer Program was established for the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil in order to choose, select, train, and retain the significant volunteer labour force. FIFA said that in order to be considered, potential volunteers had to sign up on the FIFA.com website. A record 152,101 participants registered to participate in the event between 2012 and 2013, with over half of them being 25 or younger. The potential volunteer was forced to go through seven steps of what FIFA described to as the "selection process" after registering, although it is obvious that several of these steps included orientation and training components.

Group activity

During this step of the selection procedure, potential volunteers had to participate in a group activity where their behaviour, attitude, and aptitude would be evaluated. These focus groups were place over the course of the weekends from October to December 2013 in 10 host cities throughout Brazil, more than six months before the event. Candidates learned whether they would be moving on to the next round or had been disqualified after the group exercise stage. Skype interviews were conducted with volunteer applicants from countries other than Brazil; participation in the exercise as a group was optional.

General training over the internet

At this point, volunteer applicants have access to both more general material and World Cup-related online training. The volunteer applicants have to pass a mandatory test after completing this training. Also, candidates had to complete a compulsory English proficiency exam. On the basis of these findings, applicants were informed as at the end of stage one as to whether they could progress or had been eliminated.

Placement volunteer candidates at this step, the World Cup's volunteer department evaluated the data submitted by potential volunteers, including their test scores from stage 2, their profiles, their availability, and their self-identified chosen fields of employment. Applicants were assigned to general positions with no criteria or to specialised positions requiring a set of skills and traits. To develop a work schedule for both individual volunteers and the whole volunteer workforce, the volunteer department had to first evaluate how much time volunteer applicants could work for.

Personalized interviews

Volunteer applicants allocated to specific areas at this level were required to attend an interview, which included a conversational English language test. At this round, applicants were once again either permitted to go on to the final stages or removed.

Tailored instruction

At this point, volunteers were given job offers, and if they accepted, they received online training for the position. Candidates might still be dropped from the process if they failed to finish the training or meet the standards, just as in the earlier rounds. In this approach, the program's orientation and training phases continued the selection process.

A day of fun and focused instruction

The volunteers were given the opportunity to spend a day viewing the stadium in the host city where they were situated during the sixth step of the process, accompanied by representatives from the volunteers department. This "fun" day was intended to introduce volunteers to their coworkers and workplace and to provide them any further information that would be useful. Volunteers were required to attend a mandatory training session at the seventh and final stage, when they were given detailed instructions on the area they will be working in during the World Cup. The volunteers had the opportunity to meet their manager and the other members of their team at this last meeting. Mega events are very complicated, and it is clear from the seven step "selection" procedure for the 2014 FIFA World Cup described above that human resource management methods and practises must be carefully designed and carried out. It is also obvious that either a single paid employee or hundreds of volunteers may follow the human resource management philosophy of hiring the appropriate person for the task at the right time.

Performance evaluation

At the macro level, this stage of the human resource management process has the potential to pit "management" against "workers," and at the micro level, it may make managers uncomfortable making judgements about others or make employees feel unworthy as part of a negative assessment. Sport businesses must carefully handle the performance assessment process, and human resource managers within a company must work to create a collaborative process in which both the employee and the manager feel empowered. It is helpful to consider the administrative and developmental goals of performance evaluation. The term "administrative purpose" describes the requirement for firms to evaluate employee performance in relation to incentives and recognition, such as wage increases and promotions. Quantitative measurements are often needed for administrative purposes so that personnel may be evaluated using the same standards. The term "developmental purpose" refers to the process of advancing an employee's skills, which often calls for a combination of quantitative and qualitative evaluations and may serve as a spark for more education and training. The administrative and educational goals of performance reviews show that there isn't always a clear cycle to the human resource management process. Instead, there is a continuous to-and-fro movement between the stages.

In order to build total organisational capability, managers and leaders must be able to evaluate performance and recommend improvements throughout the performance assessment process. On the other hand, as part of a process of continual professional and career development, workers need a venue in which they feel comfortable acknowledging the things they did well and the things they might have done better. The simple yet effective "plan, do, review, improve" method, which is often linked with the quality assurance agenda, must be considered in this regard as the performance assessment process inside any sport organisation, regardless of its size or nature. The method of performance evaluation is often fairly open, albeit sometimes complicated, in professional sports organisations. Performance ratings are given to coaches and athletes all the time. The amount of scores, rebounds, assists, turnovers, steals, fouls, and blocked shots are all precisely tracked in basketball. Goals are established for athletes each year, and if they are able to hit the mark on key performance metrics, their contracts may be extended with better terms. On the other side, failing to fulfil the goals may force a baseball player to return to the minor levels, wait out their playing career, or both. The win-loss record is often the only statistic used to evaluate coaches' success. If the coach has a losing record, it won't matter much if he or she is skilled at making the players feel good about themselves or

has a strong working rapport with the administrative staff when it comes to negotiating a new contract.

Compensation and retention

It makes sense for a sport organisation to attempt to keep its employees after it has planned for, recruited, chosen, oriented, trained, and evaluated them. The company will be more successful financially and strategically if it can keep strong employees, whether they work for pay or volunteer. A sport organization's failure to retain its workforce results in the loss of organisational expertise and intellectual property. Frequent personnel turnover may provide the company the chance to foster and develop new ways of thinking, but it's more probable that it will result in squandered funds being needlessly allocated to basic induction programmes. Each of the first six stages of the human resource management process helps to keep employees on board. Staff retention may suffer as a result of poor orientation, training, and performance assessment systems, in particular. Rewards and salary, on the opposite side of the retention equation, may motivate workers to stay with a company. In a professional sports company, this can suggest that top management are willing to pay the "market rate" rather than trying to keep payroll expenses down (Smith & Stewart 1999). A note of gratitude and an offer to join again the following year might serve as the award in a group whose participation is mostly voluntary. In other words, the implementation environment and degree of work satisfaction will have a significant impact on the incentive and retention approach.

In order to manage human resources effectively, sports organisations must put a complex web of interconnected procedures into place. This may be seen as fairly mechanical on one level, but on a more optimistic level, it can be seen as a model for the effective management of people through a defined set of phases. Since effective people management is the foundation of every successful sport organisation, regardless of the context, human resource management planning, recruitment, selection, orientation, training, performance appraisal, rewards and retention strategies are crucial for an organisation to operate successfully in state, nonprofit or commercial sport environments. The place of athletes in professional sport organisations, the sizable casual and semi-permanent workforces required by major events (annual or periodic), and the sizable volunteer workforce within club-based sporting systems are just a few of the specific challenges that good human resource management enables sport organisations to address. On the other side, ineffective human resource management may produce a staff that is uncommitted and prone to low morale and job satisfaction. In conclusion, regardless of the size or kind of sport organisation, effective and methodical human resource management should be seen as an essential management tool.

NCAA student athlete administration

In order to shield children from the risky and unethical sporting activities of the day, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) of America was established in 1906. In the 1950s, the NCAA started to have a big influence on how college sports were run, and as college sports expanded in size and breadth, the NCAA assumed a more administrative role. The NCAA created its present three division administrative organisation in the early 1970s (Divisions I, II and III). The NCAA primarily acts as a governing body and sports administration for American colleges and institutions. In addition to a number of sponsorship arrangements, the NCAA has media rights agreements with the major American television networks to broadcast its games and national championships. The NCAA made $838 million in broadcast and marketing rights payments in the 2013 fiscal year, or almost 92 percent of their overall income. From US$558 million in 2005–2006 to US$750 million in 2009–2010 to US$912 million in 2012–2013, NCAA income has increased consistently; the percentage of

revenue related to broadcast and marketing rights payments has exceeded 80% each of the five years since 2005–2006. While the NCAA claims that more than 90% of its money is returned to its member colleges in the form of direct payouts or services, it is clear that the more prestigious Division I schools get the lion's share, receiving 62% of the overall distribution in 2012-2013. While the NCAA is a unique organisation and its operations are unique in many ways, human resource management is a crucial part of the organization's operations. The Association was first established, as was mentioned above, to safeguard young athletes from harmful and exploitative activities. In essence, the NCAA continues to play this duty, keeping an eye on the actions and output of schools, institutions, and the staff and students that attend them throughout the country. The NCAA has grown into a sizable administrative body, and college sports as an enterprise are obviously more sophisticated today than they were at the start of the 20th century. The NCAA had 387 members in 1950, of whom 362 were active; by 2010, that number had increased to 1,315 members, of which 1,062 were active. A number of what the NCAA regards to as "student athlete perks" are offered. The NCAA first offers athletes scholarships. The NCAA often awards athletes with unique scholarships that are either only accessible to certain categories of athletes or to athletes who compete in certain competitions. The NCAA also distributes money to Division I colleges and institutions via a fund for academic improvement. The NCAA also offers players financial assistance. This financial help is given in the form of opportunity and special assistance money for Division I athletes, as well as accident, disability, and medical insurance programmes. Finally, the NCAA offers health and safety initiatives, such as a cheerleader safety programme, as well as in-season and championship drug testing, especially for Division I and II participants. The NCAA also creates a range of materials to help its member schools create procedures and policies that enhance the health and happiness of student athletes. Last but not least, the NCAA offers a range of additional seminars, clinics, and education initiatives to help student athletes and their communities.

The NCAA also keeps an eye out for infractions of its rules and regulations via its committee system and the hiring of investigative officers, especially with regard to how its member schools treat their student athletes. There are a number of regulations covering topics including the selection of student athletes, their growth and training, and their remuneration. The NCAA runs a purely amateur competition, meaning that student athletes at colleges and institutions throughout America are not permitted to be paid in any way for their involvement in sport. This makes the question of compensation all the more important. All students who want to participate in athletics at a Division I or II college must be certified by the NCAA's NCAA Eligibility Center, which is managed by the NCAA. A student athlete must fulfil the NCAA's standards in order to be deemed eligible to take part in a Division I or II NCAA programme. The student must have completed 16 core courses or more, have a minimum grade point average (GPA), have graduated from high school, and have obtained a passing score on one of the requisite university entrance exams. A high score on one might compensate for a poor score on the other when calculating a Division I student athlete's GPA and entrance test results. The student must also obtain amateurism certification and complete an amateurism questionnaire. Contracts with professional teams, receiving a salary for participating in sports, winning prizes through sports, receiving benefits from an agent or potential agent, agreeing to be represented by an agent, or giving financial aid based on athletic ability are some of the activities that the NCAA may investigate. The NCAA seeks to guarantee that the integrity of the college and university system is maintained and that the emphasis of college and university sport is student athletes, not just players, by establishing these academic and amateur eligibility requirements.

Across a broad range of sports, including football, basketball, baseball, softball, track and field, golf, lacrosse, soccer, and volleyball, individual member schools of the NCAA compete with

one another to entice the greatest student athletes. Athletic scholarships are provided by colleges and universities, allowing student athletes to attend these institutions for free. However, because so many colleges and universities offer these scholarships, it is necessary for individual establishments to offer additional benefits in order to draw student athletes. Some people may be attracted by the quality of the practise and game facilities, while others will be more interested in the chance to appear on national television or play at a college or institution with a successful track record in their chosen sport. The NCAA has certain regulations that set out what is and is not permitted by students and their prospective schools and institutions because of the intense competition to attract student athletes. For instance, the NCAA has regulations that change as a kid advances through high school about the acceptable recruiting materials, number of phone calls, official visits, unofficial trips, and interaction between a coach and a potential player. A coach may only get in touch with a potential basketball player's parents three times during their senior year, but a coach may get in touch with a prospective football player's parents up to six times.

After the student has chosen which college or university they will attend, they sign a national letter of intent (NLI), which is effectively a legally binding contract between the student and the specific school. The NLI is a countrywide system overseen by the NCAA. The institution is given assurance that the student is devoted to it alone by the NLI, which gives the student financial assistance for a year while awaiting eligibility. The majority of NCAA student athletes have four-year careers in sports (freshman, sophomore, junior and senior). Draft systems are used to choose the very best student-athletes who compete in sports like football, basketball, and ice hockey that have professional leagues.

Leadership

Every organisation will struggle to come to a consensus on what leadership is. Sometimes leadership is characterised as 'getting things done via people'. Others contend that genuine leadership is "envisioning a bright future and leading people by the hand towards it" or that it involves "exercising authority in order to influence others." To put it another way, leadership may mean many things to various individuals. Former Kansas City Kings coach Cotton Fitzsimmons asserts that "if you're a happy guy, you're an instant motivator." People are capable of doing things that you don't believe they can. Leaders are formed, not born; and they are made by hard work, just like everything else that has been developed in this nation, according to Vince Lombardi, the renowned coach of the Green Bay Packers in the 1950s and 1960s. And it is the cost that must be borne by all of us in order to accomplish that objective or any purpose. Theodore Roosevelt, a former US president, asserted that "the best executive is the one who has sense enough to pick good men to do what he wants done, and self-restraint enough to keep from interfering while they do it," and Lou Holts, a former coach of the Notre Dame football team, contended that "all winning teams are goal-oriented." Teams like this constantly succeed because everyone in the team focuses on a set of goals. They conduct themselves as if they had blinders on, and nothing will deter them from reaching their objectives.

According to Harvard Professor and leadership specialist Linda Hill, in today's multi-stakeholder, fast-changing, global corporate contexts, we may need to "lead from behind" in order to allow others to take the reins as leaders when it is most necessary. These many elements of leadership may be used to create a definition of leadership. To achieve aspirational objectives, leadership means "influencing and empowering others," according to our definition in this book. While there are many different ways to define leadership, the one given above

will do for the purposes of this book's introduction. We will go into more detail about the different perspectives on leadership in the next portion of this chapter.

Public perception of leaders

Any web browser may be used to search for "sport" and "leadership," and more than 192 million results will appear. Clearly, a lot of people are interested in the leadership in sport shown by athletes, coaches, CEOs, chairs, volunteers, consultants, and governmental organisations. There are countless websites that extol the leadership qualities of successful sportspeople, recalling tales of leaders overcoming adversity, instances of young people developing these qualities through sport, debates over whether leadership in sport can be learned or whether it is an intuitive quality that only a select few possess, and endless lists of the traits of successful sport leaders.

The way that sport leadership is seen in popular culture appears to be based on the traits that people associate with effective leaders. Coaches of successful teams, such as Sir Alex Ferguson at Manchester United FC, Vince Lombardi at the Green Bay Packers, John Wooden of NCAA Basketball renown at University of California Los Angeles, or Phil Jackson at the Chicago Bulls, are always thought of as great sport leaders. Derek Jeter, a 39-year-old shortstop and New York Yankees captain, was listed as one of the world's 50 greatest leaders in a 2014 list compiled by Fortune magazine. Three sports coaches—Mike Krzyzewski, head coach of Duke University's men's basketball team; Gregg Popovich, head coach of the San Antonio Spurs; and Dawn Staley, head coach of the University of South Carolina women's basketball team—were also listed, tied for 20th Not just Fortune readers or the typical sports fan is fascinated by leadership in sports. Each year, a discussion on leadership in sport is held at the Sport Business Summit, which is organised by the business Leaders. The summit's 2014 promotional website offers the following justification:

The Leaders Sport Business Conference brings together leading figures in the industry to exchange ideas, elicit debates, and create connections that may impact the direction of sport in the future. The Leaders Sport Business Conference ensures top-notch speakers, cutting-edge material, and an invite-only audience of leaders in their fields at a time when time is so valuable. It guarantees that you make the most of your time, discover something new, and establish useful business connections. 1500 senior athletes from 50 nations and 45 sports are participating in the tournament simultaneously. Anybody who is committed to the business of sports must come.

In the high-profile world of professional sport, whether as a coach, CEO, or player, the leadership styles, attributes, successes, and failures are played out on the global stage for everyone to see. There is definitely a continuous curiosity with what makes good leadership work.

Several Leadership Theories

It categorises leadership theories according to the characteristics of leaders, their abilities, their leadership styles, the circumstances in which they must exercise their leadership, or the challenges they must overcome. Moreover, he categorises several ideas into their own subcategories, including the path-goal theory, the leader member exchange theory, the transformational approach, the genuine method, team leadership, and the psychodynamic approach. The prominent theories have been combined into four methods since this is an introduction to the notion of leadership: attribute or personality approaches, the behavioural approach, the contingency approach, and the transformational approach.

Approachable Traits or Personalities

Popular leadership literature continues to emphasise the significance of personality and natural ability in the manifestation of leadership, despite the fact that personality and trait approaches to leadership date back to the first leadership study periods. Regardless of whether the qualities and/or personalities of the leaders are significant contributors to, or detractors from, exceptional leadership, trait theories—also known as "great man theories"—are incomplete theories of leadership. Some qualities, including vigour and honesty, seem to be essential for good leadership. Michael Jordan, the legendary basketball player, is one example. It has been said that he has a wide array of intrinsic leadership qualities that will enable him to be a successful leader in a variety of situations. Leaders must utilise their character qualities to build abilities, create a vision, and put this vision into action. Given this, it seems that attributes only contribute to a portion of the picture.

Most of the popular literature continues to place a strong emphasis on leadership attributes as a method to better understand leadership, despite the fact that there is less empirical support for this claim. In general, attribute theories work on the premise that social background, physical qualities, and personality traits will set excellent leaders apart from bad ones.

Behavioural strategy

Organizational study started to concentrate on identifying common behaviours of great leaders when it became evident that strong leadership could not simply be described on the basis of the natural traits of the leaders. According to behaviourists, anybody may learn how to lead by just observing the behaviours of successful leaders. A behavioural method views actions as evidence of honed reactions to unforeseen circumstances. One may learn to use certain behaviours in specific leadership settings if research demonstrates that doing so makes a leader more successful. Early methods of management as a whole were also addressed by the behavioural approach to leadership. Frederick Taylor was a pioneer in promoting the notion that managers should utilise science to boost productivity. This method became known as Taylorism or Scientific Management, a philosophy in which the human aspect of the mass production movement received little consideration. However, Taylorism held that people were only "part of the greater machineries," and that standardising human labour would increase productivity and profit. According to Taylor, managers should start by examining the tasks that employees completed, then break down jobs by analysing, measuring, and timing each individual part of the job in order to ascertain the most effective way to do the assignment. The most effective technique for each profession became the standard technique that employees were expected to use as well as a way to assess employee productivity.

Behaviouralists advocated a new "human relations" approach to management of businesses that looked at how managers and employees interacted in response to Taylor's views. As part of the Hawthorne studies, which were initially intended to examine how lighting affects manufacturing employees, Elton Mayo found that the most crucial factors in guaranteeing efficiency were interpersonal relationships between employees and between employees and supervisors. In other words, managers might better guide the individuals who worked for the firm by focusing on human connection and understanding the best methods to engage. The so-called Theory X and Theory Y, created by Douglas McGregor, is another behavioural approach to the study of leadership. The ideas are built on the presumptions that leaders have towards certain people. Theory X-aligned managers believe that the normal worker despises their job and is always in need of guidance. They also believe that forcing workers to execute their tasks is necessary. Managers that subscribe to Theory Y think that workers are self-driven and

devoted to their jobs and the business. They demand accountability for their job by nature. Because of this, Theory Y leaders act in ways that are quite different from Theory X leaders.

Blake and Mouton developed a different behaviouralist strategy. Two aspects were used in the development of the management grid model: one was concerned with people, and the other was concerned with output. Different amounts of care for each of those characteristics, according to Blake and Mouton, would result in various leadership philosophies. Managers who care less about people and productivity, for instance, would have a worse style of leadership, while managers who care more about people and productivity may be described as having team-type leadership attributes. The Blake and Mouton method has also been used to distinguish between task-centered and person-centered leaders. In the end, it's critical to draw the conclusion that the behaviouralist approach to leadership results in the discovery of many leadership philosophies that may be categorised as more or less effective.

Continuity strategy

The features and behaviours of leaders were often seen in connection to the current circumstances, or more precisely, according to situational contingencies, it became more obvious to those studying leadership. Isolated behavioural and attribute methods did not include the situational factors that might affect and influence the link between a leader's behaviour and the various outcomes, such as task structure, environmental features, or subordinate qualities. The main claim made by contingency theories of leadership is that various management scenarios will call for various leadership techniques and styles. Because of this, for instance, Diego Maradona's brilliant on-field leadership with the Argentine team led to winning the, but when Diego was asked to achieve similar results with club teams in different cultures (Napoli in Italy and Barcelona in Spain), or even as the national coach of the Argentinean side at the 2010 World Cup in South Africa, he failed miserably, exposing a number of personal leadership flaws. Under the contingency method, we focus on the leader in connection with conditions that are unique to the current scenario, such as traits of the subordinates and the work environment, de-emphasizing the primacy of the leader's behaviour and/or personality. We will discuss three situational theories of leadership that have affected how leadership is seen and applied in the next section.

Fiedler uses a measuring scale known as the "Least Preferred Co-worker" (LPC) scale to classify task- or person-oriented leadership. The tool asks managers to rate employees on a range of bi-polar characteristics, such as pleasant-unpleasant, cold-warm, and supportive-hostile, to determine the extent to which they believe they would not get along with that employee. When a work unit is operating well, a leader with a low LPC will only be worried with connections with subordinates. These leaders are more driven by task accomplishments. A leader that has a high LPC score will be more inclined to foster intimate relationships with their subordinates. Task-oriented behaviour is less problematic and only becomes significant when healthy interpersonal relationships have been established. According to Fiedler, if the least favourite coworker still receives a pretty high score, it shows that the leader values building connections and has a people-focused leadership style.

Situational Leadership Theory by Hersey and Blanchard

The Situational Theory of Leadership is a theory that contends that as a group matures, so should a leader's behaviour. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the leader's behaviour will be most successful when it adapts to the group's changing levels of technical competence and psychological maturity. A high task-behavior of the leader, or, in other words, a "selling" and "telling" approach to interacting with the subordinates, should be shown when low levels

of maturity are being enacted in connection to the work being done. The highest levels of subordinate maturity require leaders to offer little direction or task-behavior and allow the subordinate to assume responsibilities, or in other words, a "supportive" and "delegation" driven style of leadership communication. At medium levels of subordinate maturity, leaders need to be more focused on relationship-behaviors.

Path-Goal Analysis

The Path-Goal Theory approaches leadership from a situational and behavioural perspective. As there are numerous ways to go to Rome, the Path-Goal Theory contends that a leader must choose the approach that is best suitable for the given circumstance. The idea specifically seeks to clarify how a leader's actions impact the drive and pleasure of followers.

The role of a leader in motivating employees consists of increasing the rewards that employees receive personally for achieving work-related goals and simplifying the path to these rewards by making it clearer, removing potential hazards, and creating more opportunities for personal fulfilment along the way. In other words, both the potential for enhanced motivation and the way in which the leader must act to promote motivation are determined by the qualities of the subordinates and the environment. The real circumstances in which they are put may also affect an individual subordinate's preferences for a certain type of leadership behaviour. The Path-Goal Theory suggests four forms of leadership behaviour that may be used to accomplish objectives by taking into account these various viewpoints (House & Mitchell 1974). As follows:

Leadership that is directive: The follower is given clear direction, expectations, and instructions. An effective leader cares for and supports their team members. The decision-making process involves the subordinates in participative leadership. Achievement-focused leadership: The leader sets goals, prioritises excellence, and exudes confidence that followers will meet demanding performance standards.

The theory's main goal is to investigate how leaders influence what their followers think will happen when they do particular actions. When the task is unclear, directive leadership is projected to have a negative influence on subordinates, but it will have a good impact when the task is unclear. It is expected that supportive leadership would boost work satisfaction, especially under challenging circumstances. Higher performance standards and increased expectations that desired results may be attained are projected to result from achievement-oriented leadership. It is projected that participatory leadership would increase satisfaction by encouraging engagement.

Leadership: moving from transactional to transformational

As was previously mentioned before in this chapter, Taylorism, a scientific management philosophy, reduced people to acting like machines. The human relations approach to management recognised the importance of the human factor in the labour equation and recognised that if people's unique needs are taken into account while guiding them towards reaching certain job outputs, considerably better outcomes may be obtained. The study of transactional and transformational leadership is one of the most current trends in leadership studies. Transformative leaders are charismatic and turn followers into leaders through a process that goes beyond the current organisational climate and culture. Transactional leaders include much of the theories based on rational exchange between leader and subordinate, such as the theories presented above. The goal of the transactional leader is to establish a cost-benefit economic exchange, or, to put it another way, to satisfy followers' demands in exchange for the

'contracted' services that the followers provide. The transactional leader may use the following strategies to influence behaviour:

The leader employs incentives or contingent benefits to get things done. By way of exception, active management involves the leader actively observing the job being done and implementing corrective measures to ensure that it complies with industry standards. By way of exception, passive management involves the deployment of remedial measures by the boss in the event of subpar performance or a departure from the norm. Laissez-faire management: The manager doesn't care about the employees' performance and takes a "hands-off" attitude to it.

Yet according to leadership theorists, transactional leadership just aims to persuade people by trading labour for pay. It does not actively engage the worker's imagination or capitalise on their yearning for meaningful work. In order to attain long-term success and enhanced performance, transformational leadership is a more useful and successful leadership style. The longtime manager of Manchester United, Sir Alex Ferguson, is an example of a transformative leader. He saw the club's future, and the Board honoured him by retaining him as manager of Manchester United for more than 1,400 games starting in 1986.

CHAPTER 9

CHANGE-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP

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According to some, the new kind of leadership that must go along with effective management is transformational leadership. Transformational leadership transcends the exchange process, in contrast to transactional approaches. Together with aligning and elevating the needs and ideals of followers, it also stimulates the mind and boosts followers' self-assurance. We found four "I's" that transformational leaders use to get better outcomes. Which are:

Idealized influence: Transformational leaders act in ways that earn admiration, respect, and trust, leading to their eventual status as role models. The transformative leader has strong moral and ethical standards.

Inspiring motivation: The transformational leader aggressively fosters team spirit and encourages followers to participate in and work towards a shared goal by exhibiting excitement and optimism. Intellectual stimulation: The transformational leader fosters an atmosphere that is intellectually exciting and encouraging by being imaginative, creative, and supportive as well as by rephrasing issues and challenging preconceived notions. Personalized attention: By serving as a coach or mentor, transformational leaders give close attention to each person's requirements for success and development.

When examining the four in more detail, it may be claimed that charisma, or the capacity to arouse others' ardour, interest, or love by one's own allure or sway, is a crucial element of transformative leadership. Purely charismatic leaders may have difficulty achieving their goals since they must persuade others to share their ideas, which may impede followers' capacity for personal development. But, transformational leaders go above and beyond charismatic leaders in that they raise awareness of the team's or organization's objective or vision before inspiring their subordinates and followers to take action in the team's best interests rather than just their own.

A leadership development course for high performance programme managers is highlighted in this In Practice; the course's content discusses some of the key concerns for leadership development in sport. The Australian Institute of Sport Center for Performance Coaching and Leadership's Performance Leaders Program is created to provide participants with "the best learning and development strategies in the world to inspire discussion, transformative change, and practical applied solutions to frontline performance coaching and leadership challenges." The National Institute Network and national sport organisations (NSOs) are among the organisations that make up the Performance Leaders Program, which is for performance leaders in the high performance sports industry (the national and state institutes). The AIS provides funding for the Performance Leaders Program, which has an annual cap of 20 performance leaders. A series of in-person residential laboratories, immersive experiences, project work, executive coaching, individual assessments, and frequent feedback and reflection are used to deliver the curriculum over a two-year period. For Australia's NSOs, professional sports, and

high performance programmes, this programme was developed out of a desire to elevate the standard of leadership within the Australian sport system and to directly impact the next generation of sport leaders. The program's three main topics emphasise the aspects of leadership development that are pertinent to sport.

The Leadership theme emphasises adaptable leadership in a challenging networked world.

Management and Leadership

It would be helpful to quickly review the controversy around the link between leadership and management and how to differentiate the two at this point in the chapter. In-depth study has been done to determine how to distinguish between managers and leaders. He came to the conclusion that the capacity to organise personnel, plan and budget, and control and resolve issues is what makes management successful. Yet, the capacity to set direction, align people, and inspire and encourage them is the main foundation of leadership. Kotter contends that although managers are successful in preserving the status quo, leaders succeed in bringing about change. Nonetheless, Bass (1990) asserts that "managers lead and leaders manage, but the two tasks are not equivalent." More elaboration on the contrast between leadership and management is beyond the purview of this work. It suffices to remark that, when addressing management principles in sport companies, management without leadership has a far lower success rate than management that is both competent and effective at providing leadership. We shall thus outline what might be referred to as the five essential roles of leadership in the next section: setting a vision, formulating a strategy, establishing goals and driving performance, inspiring and motivating others, and facilitating change and fostering culture.

Making a vision

A vision is "a condition of the future that is beyond the immediately conceivable by most people," according to the dictionary. Only the "visionary" (someone who is distinguished by extraordinarily keen foresight and imagination) can perceive this future in the framework of an organisation as a good and brilliant state of being at that moment. To put it another way, the leader is in charge of seeing a future for the organisation that can materialise if the members of the organisation can work together to realise that 'envisioned state'. It is often said that excellent leaders set themselves apart from good managers because they possess a vision, as opposed to managers who do not. The next role of the leader is to determine how to implement the vision via strategy.

To lay forth a plan

The many methods that a vision may be realised are the main focus of the strategic planning process. It consists of the viewpoints of the organisation and the people who make up the organisation, which are its two main perspectives. If visionary leaders are unable to convert their vision into action plans, they will likely not be effective as leaders. In order to effectively realise the vision, the leader must carefully manage both the internal organisation, including taking into account the requirements of each employee, and the external environment, which presents a number of possibilities and dangers. The leader must be active in creating measurable goals in order to be better prepared for action.

To establish goals and promote performance The next duty of the leader is to set goals. The time has come to associate quantitative results with these broad tactics (which must always be updated since they are never fixed in stone). To put it another way, what do we want to accomplish in the near future that will help us get closer to our long-term, aspirational goals? To put it another way, the leader is often engaged in defining goals at many organisational

levels, from "visionary" and strategic goals to assigning responsibilities for setting more practical goals at lower levels of the company. The only way a leader can successfully manage the performance of a business and its personnel is by setting SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, resources available, and time constrained) goals. The ability of the leader to manage people contributes significantly to the effectiveness of a company.

To sway and inspire others

We have previously discussed the many styles that leaders have chosen to adopt (because they better suit their skill set) in our review of the various approaches to leadership in order to influence groups of people and interact with individuals or teams. The actual activation and use of people skills are crucial when attempting to guide people in a given direction, while creating goals is necessary for making people aware of the aims of performance. This is where charismatic leaders will have an advantage. These leaders will be in a good position to accomplish the goals that were established thanks to their innate capacity to arouse others' excitement, interest, or love via personal appeal or influence.

To encourage culture and assist change

Lastly, it's critical to recognise that change is a constant in today's world. In the organisations of the twenty-first century, it will be difficult for leaders who are unable to help people comprehend why "change" is necessary and how this change may be implemented with least disturbance and maximum results. The majority of businesses are needed to maintain a careful eye on the market circumstances they are operating in and the effects that changes in those conditions will have on their organisational structures and business strategy. It is often necessary to react quickly to shifting market circumstances, and here is where the intriguing interaction with organisational culture is relevant. Strangely, a strong and stable organisational culture may make it more necessary to continually alter the organization's direction as well as its procedures and structures. It is the job of the leaders to foster an environment where change is seen as a normal aspect of company life. The upkeep of this culture is one of the core areas of leadership responsibility since it is the foundation of every successful company.

The Concept of Leading Teams

A consulting company called Leading Teams specialises on assisting enterprises with change and development. According to their website, Ray McLean founded Leading Teams, which specialises in providing culture change, leadership, and team development programmes that build exceptional teams and boost performance. By its work with many top Australian Rules Football Clubs, such as Geelong FC, Sydney Swans FC, and Hawthorn FC, who have had consistent success over the last ten years, Leading Teams rose to notoriety.

The Leading Teams website outlines their methodology as follows:

We at Leading Teams base our work on our Performance Improvement Program (PIP), which is our main initiative. It is a leadership, collaboration, and culture transformation strategy centred on values. For optimal effect, the PIP is often administered over a continuous time and frequently includes an all-organizational approach. It is a behavior-based framework for managing a team's full life cycle, from the time a member joins the team until they are eventually retired. The programme offers a framework that equips team members to take up leadership roles, take responsibility, and take part in candid performance evaluations. In order to produce functional dynamics inside the group and establish a common vision, behaviours, and expectations, we provide teams the tools they need.

We work with companies of all sizes in a broad variety of sectors. From Board and Senior Executive teams all the way down to entry-level teams, our curriculum may be implemented. The Leading Teams curriculum accentuates the significance of effective team dynamics and strengthens levels of responsibility, commitment, and engagement within teams. The concept is focused on: Strengthening existing connections between teams and within them, Finding a shared goal for each individual squad, Identifying the behaviours that are thought to be crucial to the team's or organization's brand, developing leaders that operate in a way that benefits their colleagues and the organization's success, creating a framework that would allow leaders to objectively evaluate both their own and their team members' leadership abilities. This empowers them to decide wisely on hiring, retaining, and induction, Develop managers further as leaders who serve as role models for the team's or organization's trademark behaviours and foster an atmosphere conducive to candid professional discussion on behaviour and output.

The Sydney Swans are among the better cases to look at when examining how the PIP has worked for AFL teams since they used Leading Teams to create their now-famous winning culture. Before the Swans' players or coaches were invited to face a peer evaluation, various team-building activities were conducted. This included the athletes choosing what they wanted to symbolise and how they thought they ought to behave, which is how they came up with the notion of standing for "The Bloods." The Swans players then decided which of their teammates best embodied The Bloods as the process progressed.

The club's leadership team was then built around these guys. Star player Adam Goodes was left out of the first voting at the Swans. As Goodes stood in front of his colleagues for his peer evaluation session, he discovered why. He was informed that while being a fantastic player himself, he wasn't contributing enough to the club's efforts to aid others. In The Rise of the Swans, McLean writes, "So then he began mentoring guys, creating connections, encouraging them to become better, and it was a no-brainer that he moved into the leadership group." Peer reviews are now an integral element of playing for the Swans. "We work hard but fairly," Jarrad McVeigh, a 2012 premiership co-captain, says in Blake's book. We want that individual to develop, and thus we progress as a group. We reiterate all the time that it's not personal. We want him to grow as a person and a player. We make sure everyone's honest, there's no tiptoeing around it. We say what we have to say and move on.

Leading Teams has not only been involved in AFL, it was also recruited by the Australian Netball Diamonds Head Coach Lisa Alexander in their ultimately successful quest to earn a Commonwealth Games Gold Medal at the 2014 Glasgow Games. Players were requested to submit comments on their personal performances and their training sessions. In a story by Chris Barrett of The Age at www. theage.com.au, he reported the Diamonds Captain, Laura Geitz, as stating. It's about establishing an honest atmosphere. We've probably not had that in the Australian netball squad before and it's speaking loudly.

That was applied at the beginning of last year and we went on to have our most successful series against New Zealand in 15 years. I believe there's absolutely something to be said about establishing an atmosphere where a lot of research goes into each person, that's for sure. We've seen fantastic things because of it.

The Leading Teams strategy has not been without its detractors, with some arguing it may be too confronting for certain athletes, and actually harmful to strong results. Although this case study is not an endorsement of the Leading Teams method, there does appear to be some validity in sport companies participating in an intentional endeavour to enhance their culture, their communication and eventually their leadership potential at all levels of their organisation.

A company's culture

The part organisational culture plays in sport and how it develops, manifests, and exerts power. This chapter is also for readers who desire to change clubs, groups, agencies, and corporations into something more valuable by destroying the tyranny of tradition that maintains organisations in the management Dark Ages. It demonstrates how to comprehend cultural differences and aids in directing how to develop sport businesses with enduring bonds and exceptional abilities. Our mission is more difficult than it first looks since culture is a touchy subject. We will be better able to explain the notion of culture and its significance to sport management if we can get an early consensus on what it truly is and how it functions. Organizational culture, in essence, refers to the common ideals, presumptions, and assumptions that shape how members of a group behave in terms of attitudes, routines, and traditions. In order to have a good effect on their company, the "culture-proof" sport manager has to be able to analyse these common beliefs and decide how to utilise or modify them.

The internal and external impressions of an organisation are also reflected in its culture. A deeper knowledge of how groups, or sub-cultures within them, act and collaborate, and therefore, how others perceive them, may be gained by looking into an organization's culture. Since the 1980s, when the idea of culture initially took hold, its importance has grown since it gives organisational leaders a window through which to consider how to respond to or oppose environmental change and either strengthen or lose any competitive edge.

All sports organisations now have their own distinct cultures, even when they are broken or chaotic. In fact, it is well known that underperforming sporting organisations lust for antiquated practises and rituals, even when they risk marginalisation or irrelevance at worse. The underlying factor maintaining traditional methods of doing things is culture. The elephant in the room is culture. Everyone is aware that it exists and that it is influencing the agenda, but nobody wants to discuss it or even make an effort to alter it. Culture may be a holding place for irrational ideas that pass for historical accuracy and timeless knowledge. It may also be a recipe for chronic failure and redundancy. Even those cultures that are known for their tenacity and adaptability don't always produce positive results. In actuality, antiquated civilizations often turn out badly. Moreover, dysfunctional cultures may be so deeply ingrained in an organization's identity, or the way they see themselves, that nothing else appears to be able to alter them. The amount of work that certain sports organisations put into maintaining their historical identities makes little sense to an outsider. On the other side, effective cultures promote performance, draw on rich history, and adapt swiftly to changing circumstances. Sport companies with strong cultures always find a way to succeed because it is integral to who they are. Organizational culture offers insight into the methods and justifications used by a company, as well as the conduct of its employees and the perspectives of its stakeholders. To put it another way, culture offers a framework through which members of a sport organisation perceive how things are done and what goes on in the course of a typical workday.

All athletic organisations have cultures, but some have stronger cultures than others. These cultures may have a significant impact on how people behave and how well organisations perform. A case has been made that sport cultures may be distinct due to the advent of sport business as a separate field of theoretical research and the rising volume of literature highlighting the particular economics of sport.

Corporate Culture

Practitioners and educators often only give the concept of culture a cursory examination. The sociological and anthropological underpinning of culture is one of the causes, since it doesn't

naturally appeal to the business-minded, market-focused, number-crunching sport executive. Occasionally, examining culture may be perceived as being too far from work-related results, or that an excessive amount of dispassionate "critiquing" of businesses and sports fails to take into account the financial realities of business. The notion that the investigation of culture may result in a persistent conflict between an organization's identity, strategic management, and commercial viewpoint may thus be readily combined with these arguments. For others, the inherent risk that the organisation would be labelled socially or culturally "flawed" comes with the critical investigation of culture. Yet, our belief remains that every athletic organization's history and traditions must be understood in order to accomplish any ensuing performance enhancement. Every effort to diagnose and enhance sport culture must also take into consideration how sport is used as a vehicle for communication and understanding among people. Sport has both local and global effects at once, which are seldom best stated in absolute terms. The unique characteristics of sport and organisations should be examined inside the texture and grain. We thus warn against a perspective that limits an examination of sport or organisations to a single interpretative lens. Such a strategy provides little opportunity for complexity in the connections between sports fans, organisational members, and the sport industry, which may vary from the delicate dedication of silent grief after a significant loss to the logical cost-benefit analysis of an entertainment experience. We would all be Manchester United and New York Yankees fans if sport could be reduced to basic, one-dimensional cultural constructs. However, we must be cautious not to ignore the context of sport, including its commercialization and media effect.

Anthropologists first referred to culture as a collection of people's shared values and beliefs. These scholars set out to investigate, analyse, and translate the social and behavioural patterns of groups of people by attempting to comprehend how they interact with their surroundings. From the viewpoint of sport, while individuals in businesses manage technology and create procedures, a significant portion of their behaviour is influenced by the systems they manage, including an often extensive and rich set of traditional practises. To put it another way, there are underlying factors that affect behaviour. These factors may be named by using the idea of culture.

Organizational culture has no standardised description that is widely acknowledged. For instance, while some see organisational culture as a company's "personality," others see it as what makes an organisation special. Nonetheless, a number of cultural assumptions in the workplace are widely accepted. While there are certain shared concepts and definitions among scholars when it comes to organisational culture, there is also a great deal of disagreement and inconsistency. In this chapter, we will focus on organisational culture, which takes a more psycho-dynamic perspective. This indicates that, in his opinion, conscious perspectives are essentially artefacts and symbolic representations, whereas culture is, in part, an unconscious process driven by fundamental assumptions and beliefs. For instance, the majority of participants in sports groups would say that success on the field is crucial. Schein's assessment of corporate culture raises concerns about the significance of winning. Is it related to a desire to fit in with a successful group, peer pressure, or some other more enigmatic explanation? While many individuals who are interested in sports would find it simple to respond to this question, it may be more difficult to identify the fundamental principles that underlie odd rituals, ceremonies, myths, tales, stories, beliefs, mementos, and attitudes. For instance, cricket is played with great passion among both current and previous members of the British Commonwealth, although a single match may last up to five days and often finishes in a tie. Similarly, American football seems extremely bizarre to those who are unfamiliar with it since each team has different players for offensive and defensive plays. Off the field may also be strange. Several (Australian rules football) teams there hold "sausage-sizzles" (BBQs), "pie-

nights" (which include the typical supper of a meat-pie), and a variety of beer drinking customs. Several sports organisations also demand their staff to labour through nighttime practises and weekend games and are stuffed with memorabilia. Sport organisations are full of powerful, significant cultural symbols that, while they first appear simple to understand, are sometimes merely the outward manifestations of deeper, more complicated problems.

A sport organization's culture is made up of a set of core principles that all of its participants share. These principles serve as the foundation for the organization's behavioural norms and standards. According to this description, sport organisations have methods of doing things that have changed through time. Organizational culture offers several solutions to issues that need to be solved. Culture refers to "the way things are done around here" and "the way we think around here." Various sports groups will have various cultural tenets. For instance, professional teams and the top national leagues are more likely to place an emphasis on calculating commercial principles, while smaller, non-profit organisations are more likely to place an emphasis on participation and enjoyment. Certain sports organisations, such as the football teams in Italy and Spain, are almost solely focused on winning and are willing to incur significant debt to do so. Others, such as the corporation Formula One Holdings, are primarily interested in making money and oversee the commercial rights to important events. Others, like the International Olympic Committee, are interested in expanding elite, Olympic sports over the globe and, in doing so, amass enormous amounts of money and spend it carelessly. The Fédération Internationale de l'Automobile attempts to control motor sport.

Sports organisations are under intense pressure to acquire the operational and structural traits of commercial firms as they feel more and more pressure to enter the corporate sphere. With athletic results accessible from any smart device linked to the internet, contemporary communication has had a significant impact. In order to stay competitive, many athletic organisations have come to the realisation that they must provide high levels of entertainment value, much like any other enticing leisure choice, from television to gaming consoles. As a result, corporate boxes line many major sporting grounds, sports are widely covered on pay, cable, and free-to-air television, high-profile sportsmen make enormous amounts of money, and politicians support certain teams. Sport managers have been urged to adopt business methods and ideas like organisational culture due to the economic and competitive constraints imposed on sport organisations by everything from local football clubs, schools and institutions, to professional leagues and teams. The ability to effect change via an awareness of culture is perhaps the strongest argument in favour of its consideration in sport organisations. The performance of an organization's members is greatly influenced by its culture, hence it is crucial that cultural qualities continue to be acceptable and robust. Strong cultures that have been shaped by tradition and a keen sense of history are typical in the world of sport. A more professional managerial style may be required in a media-savvy society when practically everyone has a smart phone with a video camera, yet other cultural traits like excessive drinking and on-field violence may no longer be appropriate. Although there are as many different perspectives on organisational culture as there are scholars studying it, most analyses tend to focus on its most obvious manifestations. Also, it is common to see sport culture as monocultural, or as existing on a single level and as a single entity. A sport organisation is differentiated in this context as a massive cultural mass that is uniformly created throughout and has little to no internal heterogeneity. This mode of thought, meanwhile, is difficult to maintain when examining an athletic organisation. Sports club cultures have a variety of cultural motifs and may be easily understood on different levels or as different subcultures. As a player unit, where motivations may range from glory to money, as an organisational or administrative unit similar to other corporate enterprises, and as a fan group with potentially diverse goals, traditions, and values (such as prioritising winning matches above financial

gain). Although a player may represent a team out of loyalty or financial incentive (or for any number of other reasons), fans are often fiercely committed to a team's colours and traditions and only ask for on-field success in return. Nonetheless, other sporting organisations are motivated by larger social or health goals or principles that put success and wealth in the background. Others yet are subject to financial accountability from owners, sponsors, and shareholders.

Multiculturalism in sport

The majority of nations in the globe have welcomed immigrants and tourists from many cultures. The economic, social, and political environment in which sports organisations operate benefits from cultural variety. For many multicultural countries, sport serves as a technique of assimilating individuals from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds into a new local setting. African athletes, for instance, have often gravitated towards Europe. Nowadays, however, athletes from Africa have relocated to other regions of the globe, including Asia, North America, and the Middle East, and they compete in a broad range of sports. A major escape route from the political and economic obstacles that reduced the standard of life in migrants' native countries may be found in sport. It may be difficult for certain nations to draw in and accept athletes from diverse ethnic backgrounds. Australia serves as an excellent illustration of how a long-standing heritage of sport may be combined with modern elements. The average Aussie appreciates their leisure time, and sport plays a significant role in giving those experiences significance. It is obvious that sport and leisure are important components of Australia's cultural identity since more than 70% of the population participates in physical exercise of some form. Australian Rules football, cricket, rugby, and netball are the most popular sports in that country, and they all have significant cultural identities. Unfortunately, there is a lack of representation for those from other ethnic origins. Despite efforts by clubs and governing bodies to develop anti-racial discrimination and inclusiveness rules, the inclusion of non-Anglo players is still fraught with controversy. In order to combat racism and exclusivity, a sport organisation needs take other measures in addition to creating and enforcing rules and regulations. Sport organisations need to transform the fundamental foundation of their cultural identities in order to achieve a profound embrace of diversity.

Business, subcultures, and sports

Translation and adoption of a culture straight from conventional business theory provide an extra challenge in sports organisational cultures. It is dangerously oversimplified to believe that a sports organisation should imitate the procedures and standards of an established company without taking into account cultural considerations. Although commercial practises may be adapted to fit a sports club's organisational needs, a straight transfer avoids addressing the reasons why a sporting organization's culture differs from that of a conventional business operation. An organization's readiness to accept a performance standard that encourages excellence in the creation of products and services, in an effort to turn a profit, tends to show an ideal corporate culture. Although being aware of economic requirements, this cultural philosophy is unable to accommodate the various diversified structures that exist in a sports company. Financial realities must be accepted in any organisation, but in the athletic industry, extra behavioural factors also need to be understood and respected. Although diverse companies have unique cultures, these variations are less frequent than those seen in particular sports. For instance, it cannot be believed that all sports have a single culture. The cultural intricacies of each sport and how they affect participants, staff, members, spectators, and the general public must be understood by sport administrators.

Even within a single sport, culture is a complex issue. For instance, professional athletes have a distinct cultural outlook than the majority of fans and amateurs. This range of opinions is indicative of a larger, more problematic problem: the clash of cultures in sports. At an international level, when players from various nations have been raised with radically diverse conceptions of the game and how it should be played, this is best displayed. In addition to the enormous cultural importance that the game itself has, football, known as the "global game," is an example of this cultural conflict. Sport undergoes ongoing change, is dynamic in nature, and is constantly reinterpreted by its players and watchers, much like all living cultures. The need for competition, the passion of winning, and the capacity to elicit intense emotional reactions in both success and failure are the only things that seem to remain constant in athletic culture.

There is unquestionably a need to research organisational cultures while taking the impact of the sport itself into consideration. For instance, we could imagine that bocce clubs share certain cultural characteristics, just as we might expect accounting businesses do. Similar to this, it may be predicted that the history and discipline at the heart of a bocce club would foster cultural traits distinct from the young and diverse mindset found in a BMX club. Some sports, such as mixed martial arts and ultimate fighting, promote other ideals by emphasising strength, toughness, and masculinity. These cultural traits may also influence the executive executives and staff members of the clubs, particularly given that many sports organisations want to recruit former athletes. A lot of athletic organisations are hesitant to change because they value history and prior successes so highly. Yet, before any change can take place, the culture of an organisation must be precisely identified as a cohesive identity.

Beginning of Esports

The new sports genre for the twenty-first century is eSports, which foreshadows the ramifications of a drastically transforming landscape in the intersection of sport, media, and technology. Electronic sports, sometimes known as eSports, mix competitive gaming with traditional sports. The competition takes place online rather than in a real setting. ESports, a worldwide online megatrend in sport, aims to co-create sporting engagement experiences with players via several expanding governing bodies and commercial organisations. As a result, eSports serves as an example of the expanding confluence between the relational and recreational interfaces offered by sports businesses. ESports is a relatively new industry, having emerged in the late 1990s, but it is already thriving and forging its own distinct cultural character. The eSports league, for instance, recently announced an astounding 3.6 million players, a figure that is increasing quickly. With over 430 people earning a livelihood from their performances in eSports, South Korea has emerged as the primary centre for professional eSports practitioners. Nevertheless, unlike physical exercise, which is seen as a good and healthy lifestyle option, computer gaming does not have the same favourable impression. Internet games are sometimes dismissed as meaningless forms of amusement or, worse, as a pastime that discourages physical exercise and hence negates its positive effects on health. Esports may be able to change that impression. ESports establishes its legitimacy in the sports world by holding live and recorded tournaments, employing professional athletes, and hosting practise sessions and facilities with the help of sports media. Events are held in more than ten nations, and naturally, they may be seen from any location in the globe using a smart, internet-connected gadget. Participants in eSports strive to outperform their opponents by being quicker, more talented, and better overall, just like in any other sport. With eSports, the rise of competitive video games and the quick development of digital technology have created a community of fans who, despite their disparate locations and inability to interact in person, have a same set of values and a conviction in the product. The International eSports Federation,

the industry's regulatory body, as well as media and technology companies, sponsors, players, and player communities, co-created the values, beliefs, and assumptions that form the basis of eSports' cultural dynamics, it becomes apparent when one digs deeper. It is understandable that a portion of the culture reflects the fusion of sport, entertainment, media, business, and marketing that exemplifies modern global sport, given that major corporations like Coca-Cola contributed significantly to a recent World Championships in a capacity-filled Staples Arena in Los Angeles. As the prize fund for eSports competitions averages roughly $20 million USD annually, we could anticipate that the industry's growth will be heavily reliant on a cultural focus on professionalisation. Fans pack stadiums to see professional sports gamers compete as avatars in virtual environments. Millions more people watch internet remotely.

Cultural "clans" have developed around geographic borders in a fascinating mingling of technology and tradition, notably within Asia and the United States as the two primary founding areas responsible for creating the eSports culture. The Cyberathlete Professional League, which now spans all geographical areas, was established in 1997 as the first official organisation to provide prizes for competitive gaming. Since then, there has been a steady rise in the prize pool, with over US$3 million in prizes awarded and an extra US$2 million in goods sales. Events with a global audience have increased exposure in recent years and emphasised cultural characteristics. More than 500 athletes from more than 40 countries competed in the 2013 World Cyber Games, which were hosted in China. While competitors might have participated in an entirely virtual manner, in this respect the Games were no different from any other significant athletic event where players had to go to a particular site. But, conducting it this manner allowed the organisers to gather a sizable crowd of spectators, intensifying the mood and strengthening the event's cultural significance via interpersonal ties. The World Cyber Games advocate three fundamental ideals, much as its enormous cousin the Olympic Games, which regulate Olympic sports. A feeling of community, teamwork, and gaining clarity in one's goals and ideals are fundamental concepts for individuals participating in eSports. The cultural identity of the eSports online community has developed and spread quickly, in contrast to a traditional sport organisation where tangible physical facilities connected to a geographical region have influenced cultural features over a long period of time and through a myriad of historical events. Yet, the renowned identities of the organisations overseeing eSports may be used to identify the qualities of online gaming, much like a football team and its game. A yearly symposium held in connection with the eSports world championship strengthens the culture of eSports, supporting the industry's claim to legitimate athletic status. It is noteworthy from a subcultural perspective that the particular online games players choose to participate in serve as a point of differentiation for membership to various clans. For instance, first-person shooting games are popular in the US, where players face off against one another and compete until just one (live avatar) triumphs. Real-time strategy games are given priority in competition in the Asian eSports subculture. Over half of eSports competitors are now female, which is a significant development in the atmosphere of the sport and one that is affecting the cultural values of the major governing bodies. Before, gaming was a largely male-dominated hobby. As eSports players are lured to both the visually appealing game elements made possible by technical advancements and the social interaction chances with other players, this transformation has increased the significance of social cultural values.

Identity the Organization

Organizational identity, like other social ideas, gives significance to mostly invisible but essential organisational behaviours. Identity, as seen from a social viewpoint, refers to how people see themselves and how others see them. Identity tends to be durable because it symbolises how a person views themselves, giving them a long-lasting, stable, unique, and

enduring picture. Sport organisations, like other social groups, have identities that have been formed via the acceptance, reinforcement, and rejection of certain traits developed by its members through time. The procedure functions as an extension of the self, allowing people to acquire or strengthen traits they find positive while eliminating those they find unfavourable. An organisation establishes its identity through the collective self-perceptions of insiders, which in turn accompanies how it performs (culture), the way it expresses itself, and the way it is perceived by outsiders. For instance, an organisation might adopt team-based work practises if its members anticipate collaboration to be advantageous (image). A sport organisation, however, could have a different idea of who they are than other people do. Identity represents enduring, consistent ideas of an organization's unique traits, making change to align the two challenging. Such views impact how stakeholders will react to and accept (or reject) such remarks, as well as how a company will perceive itself. Culture is the way we do things, and identity is how we see ourselves or are seen by others. Moreover, actions are taken in a specific manner not just because of culture but also to support or alter views. Organizational culture and identity cooperate in this way in a dynamic and reciprocal way. Identity is the more written, explicit, and instrumental side, while culture is the more contextual, implicit, and emergent side. An alternative perspective describes identity as a product and expression of culture. Identity does, however, reflect an organisational conflict, just as culture does. An organisation must adapt to thrive in a cutthroat environment, but identity must also exist for a long enough period to retain a feeling of continuity. Strong cultures remain while appropriate cultures change. Knowing the function that identity performs in companies is also crucial for diagnosing culture.

CHAPTER 10

MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

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An in-depth approach is needed to fully understand the idea of culture and how it relates to the person, the group, and the sport organisation. Sport organisations design environments and intents that have an impact on members' actions, routines, practises, and way of thinking. After that, these systems and processes develop patterns that are mostly learned via socialisation, or through time by seeing the responses and activities of others. Individuals in a sport organisation are essentially exposed to what researchers refer to as "culture revealing" situations, which may include other members' overt behaviour, their organisational strategies, "artefacts" like photos, honour boards, and other memorabilia on display, as well as interactive communication, or how people interact with one another.

Considering organisational culture

Identification and interpretation of organisational human behaviour as a cultural phenomena benefit from a psychological perspective. Psychologists contend that there are many tiers of behavioural awareness, ranging from the conscious to the unconscious, which was first inspired by Carl Jung's work. This way of thinking has been taken by organisational psychologists and culturally adapted. The main comparison is between a mind and an organisation. From a psychological perspective, an athletic organization's immediately noticeable and visible characteristics are analogous to the conscious portion of a person's mind. They include the surroundings, what people say in public, how they interact with one another, how they speak, what they are wearing, and the amount of memorabilia in the offices and rooms. The position of sports heroes is another of the most significant visible characteristics. They serve as detailed and prominent markers of the desired culture. Since they are chosen by both the members and the power brokers of an organisation, heroes provide insight into its culture. Heroes can serve as beacons for the characteristics of people who are respected and appreciated by a larger audience. In a sports organisation, the hero is a dominant character who may be both a current employee and a former athlete. The hero may also exhibit traits typical of commercial operations, such as charm, entrepreneurship, or simple administrative skills. It is feasible to track tendencies in cultural development by comprehending the direction of hero figures from both the past and the present. Heroes may be both retrograde and forward-thinking. Heroes that support the prevailing culture, for instance, won't alter the society's emphasis on certain values and behaviours. The actions and ideals of a club will alter as a result of a hero who transcends and changes the prevailing culture. A hero is often the most effective tool for successful transformation. Another way to understand an organization's culture is via its traditions. Traditions may be easily observed via souvenirs, much like heroes. The fundamental beliefs and ideals that lend significance to heroes and traditions, however, are found at a deeper level of a society. On the one hand, the current cultural identity may retain tradition, but on the other, the athletic organisation may have created a modern cultural personality. Recognizing the value of tradition and history to a sports organisation is thus important since it may serve as a cultural

lynchpin or a launching pad for the organization's current cultural identity. It is crucial to analyse and examine naturally occurring, visible outcroppings of culture; areas where the cultural understandings may be revealed; in order to get over the barriers (in the shape of stereotyped attitudes and superficial indications) that can prevent an evaluation of culture. It is possible to acquire a useful understanding of the organization's underlying culture by examining these sites. This level focuses on organisational rites and rituals because they are easily visible and often include the usage of other cultural forms of expression, such as specific customary language or jargon, gestures, and artefacts, by workers. In addition, these rites—which are common understandings—are communicated via myths, sagas, legends, or other tales related to the celebration, and in concrete terms they can manifest as barbecues or presentations. In addition to using observational methods, meanings must also be assigned to them in order to actively examine this level of culture. This demands a deeper degree of examination than surface-level thinking.

Organizations also include "unconscious" components. In actuality, the unconscious is what has the person under control. This includes the common attitudes, values, behaviours, and ways of thinking in an athletic organisation. This level of culture is difficult to accurately measure and rife with the potential for deception. Employee statements on their behaviour and beliefs, for instance, need to be matched to their actual actions. Sport managers should be aware that different interpretations might be formed based on the same facts as a word of caution. When members of a sport organisation face challenges to overcome, one method to examine culture is to concentrate on the consistency and congruence of policies and practises within the organisation. On the other hand, it is also legitimate to take behavioural ambiguities and inconsistencies into account. These anomalies often show where declared values and actual values diverge. Cultural expressions may be seen in many different ways, and they evolve with time and place. Finding trends, outliers, and numbers that need to change requires careful observation.

Sport Organizational Culture Mapping

Successfully converting knowledge into meaning is the foundation of cultural understanding. An athletic organization's culture is symbolically represented in some manner in every area of the organisation. While not all information is created equal, it is necessary to study all available data in order to provide the most complete picture of the current culture. Shared values and beliefs must be in some manner supported and communicated to organisational members via concrete measures in order for a culture to be developed and strengthened. A cultural map offers a way to translate unprocessed data into quantifiable criteria while summarising the key aspects of an athletic organization's culture. It functions by offering groups of categories in which data may be gathered and compiled with the aim of detecting the primary themes that repeatedly surface. According to some academics, this strategy may also be used in a more statistical manner, using the numbers associated with the answers provided by organisational members to questions generated from the dimensions. Even though there is a vast array and variety of data available for cultural study, many cultural studies only take into account the material that is obvious and easily accessible. Every piece of knowledge that is accessible will be used in a comprehensive cultural study, with the more evident components serving as carriers for the less concrete, more ethereal aspects of culture. Even if many models give a few neatly established sorts, the culture of any one athletic organisation cannot be divided into just a few categories. In truth, there are as many different organisational cultures as there are different sports leagues, therefore they cannot all be lumped together into a single category. Sports organisations are steeped in tradition, history, ideals, and mythology; these elements should be highlighted in any diagnostic. A correct diagnosis makes change much simpler.

The essential lesson for tackling cultural transformation is that it requires a previous awareness of the key cultural characteristics of an organisation and how they present themselves. When a thorough diagnosis has been made, it is possible to manage cultural aspects using a formal or informal cultural map. A sport manager must alter people's behaviours since they cannot actually change people's thinking. This can be mandated or promoted to some degree, but it takes time. For instance, new rituals may be substituted for more undesirable older ones, such as a club dinner in favour of a binge-drinking session. Even with the proper introduction of new symbols, language, heroes, stories, employees, and so on, genuine cultural change in an organisation can take many years or even a new generation of organisational members before it takes hold. This is because entrenched values and beliefs can be very difficult to change.

Cultural Difficulties

Each member of an organisation cannot ignore culture and identity. While it might be difficult to define and relate to the basic or concrete, culture affects how everyone in a company behaves collectively. By ingraining a variety of ideals and ideas into its members' heads, it does this. Values and beliefs, in turn, shape and limit thought processes. In other words, culture affects how people act and behave. For instance, cultural values and ideas may concern how males should treat women, why profit should take precedence over environmental awareness, or why success and winning should be prioritised above participation. As a consequence, while some cultures produce dysfunctional cultures, others provide socially desirable results. Positive culture transformation is possible, but it takes clever and skilled management. It requires, maybe more than anything else, a profound knowledge of how culture functions.

the value of fostering cross-cultural understanding. A athletic organization's culture is symbolically represented in some manner in every area of the organisation. Shared values and ideas that have been reinforced and passed on to organisational members via concrete methods like rituals are essential to building a strong culture. Without a previous grasp of the key cultural characteristics of an organisation and how they manifest, cultural change cannot be effectively addressed.

Element of cultural management is possible when a precise diagnosis has been made. Of course, despite the fact that they cannot actually alter people's thoughts, sport managers may nonetheless affect behaviour. Because of this, organisational rituals provide a means through which ingrained attitudes and ideas may be swayed by fresh symbols, words, heroes, and tales. Remember that putting facts into meaningful context is essential to developing a strong athletic culture.

Financial administration

The activity of managing finances in organisations involved in sport. A variety of fundamental accounting concepts will be explained using occurrences and examples. The essential concepts of solid financial management will also be covered, along with the budgeting process, examination of balance sheets, profit and loss statements, and cash flow statements. There will be references to a variety of accounting words and financial management principles throughout the chapter.

The ultimate goal is for readers to develop a wide accounting vocabulary that will provide them a foundational understanding of financial literacy, which can then be utilised to better comprehend the administrative procedures necessary to develop the financial sustainability of a sport organisation.

Sport's Financial Evolution

This transformation of sport into a form of business, with its corresponding financial systems, starts in Phase 1 when sport is still a recreational and cultural activity, with rudimentary sport organisations, small revenue streams, and a focus on having fun. Activities are also organised and managed by volunteer officials. As the game is managed by a small number of officials making crucial decisions from a member's house, this concept is sometimes referred to as a kitchen-table method to sport management. It has certain advantages in that it fosters a strong set of principles focused on playing the game for its own sake and the associated concept of amateurism, in addition to guaranteeing the participation of grassroots players and members and offering a strong local community club emphasis. At the same time, it maintains a straightforward management structure led by an administrative committee composed of a select group of elected representatives and self-selected officials. The secretary keeps things running by keeping track of members, coordinating people to manage teams, organise events, and maintain the clubrooms and playing facilities. The president serves as the club or association's public face. A treasurer is another position that oversees the organization's finances. The treasurer often lacks knowledge of accounting theory and concepts, but makes up for it with a keen eye for detail and a willingness to make sure revenues outpace costs. The second phase, known as commercialization, involves the use of additional money sources and the payment of both staff and gamers for their labour. The commercialised sport model exploits the commercial value of sport to attract corporate and other sponsors, whereas the kitchen-table model focuses on member subscriptions, player registration fees, and social events for their financial sustainability. Sports that can draw large audiences in this period are increasingly conscious that these crowds may be leveraged to entice companies looking to raise brand recognition, establish a unique and exclusive sales channel, or get access to a market group that will be interested in their product. Sport is still primarily a recreational and cultural activity, with the development of the sport as a whole as the main objective. However, there is an emerging or supplemental strategy that focuses on elite player development and the creation of pathways for players to advance to the top league or competition. The third stage is bureaucratization, during which administrative controls are formed, organisational structures grow more complicated, and functional specialisation rises. As an efficient bureaucracy demands greater resources, this phase is highly reliant upon its preceding phase. At this phase, the structures of clubs, leagues, and associations are changed to include boards of directors, whose main duties are to establish the strategic direction and guarantee adherence to legal requirements. This creates a division inside the business between the "steerers" (the board) and the "rowers" (the CEO and operational staff), who are tasked with carrying out the board's goals and policies. A business-like set of tasks and procedures are also developed, centred on managerial assistance, advertising, finance, game creation, player coaching, and similar activities. At this phase, the sport as business model is given more managerial space than the sport as enjoyment and cultural practise model.

In the fourth and final stage, known as corporatization, sport adopts the business model by placing equal value on brand management and player and fan interactions. Sponsorships and broadcast rights payments are taking a bigger share of revenue sources, product sales are expanding, and management are taking a more professional approach where the need to gain a competitive advantage takes precedence over the desire to stick with long-standing practises. At this stage, players are hired on a full-time basis, player associations are formed to safeguard their rights, and the sport's governing bodies assume the position of employers. A systematic system of industrial relations is established, which results in comprehensive contracts, collective bargaining agreements, and codes of behaviour. The marketing process also becomes more complex as a sports club, association, or league develops a brand, its members and fans

turn into customers, its sponsors turn into corporate partners, and its use of its brand name and image to fortify its corporate partner relationships and develop a merchandising division. Also, throughout this phase, sport is moving towards managerialism and becoming more responsible to its stakeholders for its performance and resource use. In the connection between sport and the government, where government support is increasingly dependent on sport achieving certain precise and predetermined results, this is especially clear. By a focus on performance evaluation, this managerialism-focused approach also promotes increased openness. In light of this paradigm, it is no longer suitable to merely evaluate player performance but also internal operations, market performance, employer performance, player behaviour, and even social responsibility.

The aforementioned factors make sport more difficult to manage, which in turn makes sport organisations more regulated overall. In certain cases, government-drafted legislation serves as the catalyst for the rules. Government measures include anti-discrimination initiatives, crowd control laws, and venue safety regulations. In other cases, internal enforcement of the rules occurs. Professional sports leagues and competitions exhibit highly visible internal regulation in that player recruitment is governed by drafting rules, player conduct is limited by a combination of collective bargaining agreements and codes of conduct, salaries are set within a total wage ceiling, revenues are redistributed from the wealthiest clubs and associations to the neediest clubs and associations, and games are scheduled to ensure the lowest cost and highest revenue.

Sports Funding Sources

It is obvious that the new corporate, business-based paradigm of sport entails a huge increase in revenue. Traditional sources of income have been preserved, although in a little more complex form, since it is crucial to avoid throwing the baby out with the bathwater. Member dues, fundraisers from social events, and gate earnings are all still significant.

Capital investment

The sources of capital financing, or money to finance the purchase of assets, are as follows:

Grants from the government, which might be federal, state, or municipal. The important thing to remember is that different sports have characteristics that reflect both their operational scope and their propensity to achieve international success. Funding may also be contingent on fulfilling criteria, such as adopting specific policy guidelines or operating within a legal framework. borrowing and loans with a maximum duration of one year or longer (up to 20 years). Debt finance refers to loans and borrowings. It offers quick funding for investments in facilities and income-generating assets, which is important to keep in mind. Yet, it also carries a heavy weight of interest and may not necessarily result in an increase in revenue.

Equity financing refers to a new share offering or a public float. The important things to remember are that, similar to borrowing, it offers easy access to cash but, unlike borrowing, it does not place the responsibility of interest payments or principal repayment on borrowers. Yet, it does transfer power to the shareholders, and a dividend is anticipated to be paid. Retained earnings, or cash that has been put back into the sports organisation. The important details are that no interest is paid and ownership of the utilised cash is kept. As this is a legal necessity, retention of revenues is required for nonprofit sporting organisations.

Consistent financing

Depending on the sort of Sport Company, money is needed to support day-to-day operations, and this money comes from a range of sources. The primary sources of income are briefly listed

below, along with a description of each source's advantages and disadvantages: Full adult, associate, family, and other membership prices are possible. The important things to remember are that they often provide an instant stream of revenue since they are upfront and generally steady. By creating a core consumer base, membership also fulfils a marketing purpose. Entrance fee for spectators that covers the entire adult, family, special group, and premium categories. The important things to remember are that, despite the great degree of flexibility, it is prone to substantial volatility because of shifting attendance trends and variations in how games are scheduled. Boxes and hospitality are examples of corporate amenities. It's important to keep in mind that a sizable investment is necessary, but the benefits include the ability to charge more rent and the formation of new business relationships. Entry fees, facility fees, and equipment rental are all examples of player fees and expenses. The important things to remember are that demand determines income and that users pay for the experience. Another source of ongoing money comes from special fundraising activities, which may include a dinner dance, rage party, auction night, quiz night, etc. The staff and members are responsible for planning and attending events, which is important to keep in mind. These gatherings may, however, turn a profit by charging a lot more for the food and beverages.

Games, including bingo, raffles, and slot machines. Here, it's important to keep in mind that licences are often needed, profit margins are poor, and there is fierce rivalry from other places. Merchandise includes collectibles, scarves, T-shirts, coats, and equipment that has been personally signed. The important thing to remember in this situation is that although it might result in a sizable short-term rise in income, it can also level out with a decline in on-field performance. Another excellent source is sponsorships and endorsements, which may come in the form of name rights, partnerships, signage, product endorsements, and contra arrangements. It is important to keep in mind that the organisation may cede power, become financially reliant on sponsors, and give in to partner demands. Catering might offer takeout or seated meal and drink options. It is labour demanding, but since it is provided in a setting that is not competitive, better profit margins may be maintained. broadcasting rights for radio and television, as well as, more recently, for streaming on the internet and mobile devices. The important things to keep in mind are that it concentrates on competitive sports with a wide audience and may not apply to most sports organisations and clubs. It also serves as the primary source of income for professional sports leagues. income from investments, such as interest and stock dividends. The risks involved are increased by the fact that share values may change suddenly and that losses can occur. Also, interest rates might be low. Grants from the government, which might be federal, state, or municipal. The important things to remember are that, like government capital funds, they are subject to specific requirements being satisfied, may change from year to year, and can show clear disparities within sports.

The costs associated with operating a sport business also vary. Pay and compensation for administrative personnel who are employed on a permanent, contract, or casual basis are among them. The important things to keep in mind are that it is often the biggest line item of spending, susceptible to inflation, and subject to bidding wars as teams try to sign the best players. Employee related expenses, such as insurance, education, vacation, and retirement. Here, it's important to keep in mind that they are mandated by law, continuing, and connected to the job contract. Costs associated with marketing include those for advertising, sales promotion, site visits, trade shows, and giveaways. There is always an implicit assumption that too much marketing and promotion is never enough, therefore it is important to keep in mind that it is simple to go over budget projections for office upkeep, which includes electricity and light, phone and fax, postage and stationery, and printing. Here, it's important to keep in mind that it's continuing and that strict management is needed. The playing ground, the watching area,

and the member amenities are all maintained by the venue. The important thing to keep in mind is that maintenance costs are continual and usually consume a considerable portion of earnings.

Equipment, apparel, footwear, medical services, physical fitness and conditioning, and travel are all included in player management. The important things to remember are that although they demand strict budgeting, they also represent a critical investment in enhanced performance.

Depreciation of assets covers those such as buildings, vehicles, and machinery. It's important to remember that assets depreciate and need to be replaced. Depreciation is a non-cash expenditure as well, thus it's crucial to amortise assets as expenses during their lifespan.

Despite the fact that large portions of sport are now companies, it is crucial to keep in mind that the majority of sport organisations are still rather small and rely on club members, volunteer officials, neighbourhood businesses, and local government for funding.

Having an understanding of financial data

Making understanding of the jargon used in accounting is another issue. Most of the time, it is easy to tell the difference between assets and liabilities. Assets are all the items we possess, while liabilities are all the debts we have to other people. On the other hand, the line between current and non-current obligations and tangible and intangible assets is sometimes less precise. Confusion may also emerge when comparing operational profit with net profit, as well as with the ideas of owner's equity, shareholder's money, and net value. As a result, to run a sport organisation effectively, it is necessary to have a solid understanding of financial management concepts as well as the backing of a financial recording and reporting system that makes it simple to gauge the financial health of clubs and organisations. Three integrated yearly financial reports are now expected from a professionally managed sport organisation. A statement of performance, often known as a profit and loss statement, is the first document that lists both the costs and revenues incurred during the reporting period. A statement of position, often known as a balance sheet, is the second document that provides information on the assets, liabilities, and equity at the moment. A statement of cash flows, the third document, describes the inflow and outflow of cash for the business. Activities involving the sale and acquisition of assets, actions involving the securing and borrowing of money, and activities involving their repayment are all included in the cash flow statement. Day-to-day operations are also included. Further information about the balance sheet, profit and loss statement, and cash flow statement is provided below.

Ledger Balance

A sport organization's wealth is determined by its financial sheet. Liabilities are shown on the right side of the balance sheet, while assets are listed on the left. On the right, proprietorship, also known as owners' equity, net worth, or accumulated money, shows the difference between assets and liabilities. The balance sheet contrasts an organization's assets (items it owns) with its obligations to provide a clear picture of its wealth at a given moment in time (things it owes). The balance sheet also shows how the organization's assets have been financed. It may be done via equity (the capital of the owner or owners) or by borrowing money from another company or person.

It is vital to remember that not all assets are created equal. Both of them and liabilities may be divided into a variety of categories (Hoggett et al. 2006). In order to provide a clear image of the amount of both current and non-current assets as well as current and non-current liabilities, a balanced sheet will be built up. As it is essentially the difference between the two, the amount

of owner's equity or shareholders' capital (or accumulated money, as it is often referred to in nonprofit organisation accounts) will also be shown on the balance sheet. This is due to the fact that assets may be amassed using the owner's capital, reinvested income, or borrowed money.

Assets

As was already said, an organization's assets are all of its possessions. Technically speaking, they are resources that a company owns and controls and from which benefits are anticipated to accrue in the future. In addition to being divided into several categories, the assets on a balance sheet are also ordered according to how liquid they are, with the most liquid items appearing first and the least liquid items appearing later in the statement. The ease with which an asset may be turned into cash serves as a gauge of its liquidity, and all assets that can be converted quickly are included under the current assets section. The most commonly mentioned current assets include cash on hand, accounts payable or debtors, investments in the stock market (which may be quickly sold for cash), stockpiles of raw materials and finished goods, and short-term invoices or bills that have not yet been paid (which at a pinch can be sold for cash).

Prepaid costs, or invoices that have been paid in advance, might be included in this category. As current assets are used to pay debts and satisfy creditors' requests for payment, they are a key indication of a sport organization's financial health. Moreover, fixed or non-current assets are indicated. Something that cannot be rapidly and cheaply transformed into cash is considered one of these assets. Sometimes, when there is not a lot of turnover, certain stock and supplies will be posted here. The primary things will be all those movable or material possessions that are necessary for making money but are short-term difficult to sell at a fair price.

Several additional things may affect a sports organization's financial sheet. Assets, for instance, may either grow in value over time or decline in value over time (i.e. depreciate). Property, stocks, and shares, as well as different rare artefacts and collectibles, are especially susceptible to price increases. On the other hand, certain assets are susceptible to rapid value loss, such as those that experience frequent usage and wear and tear, become outmoded, or both. Moreover, while they are intangible, certain assets obviously bring value to the firm and need to be taken into consideration. These financial realities have long been acknowledged by accountants, who have thus developed management techniques to deal with these occurrences.

Depreciation

The foundation of depreciation is the idea that every non-current asset is a prospective store of services that the organisation expects to utilise during the asset's lifetime. So, due to continual wear and tear and certain obsolescence, assets have a finite lifespan. The method of accounting for depreciation involves periodically charging income to reflect the increasing reduction in an asset's ability to be used, such as a car. In other words, the asset loses value in accordance with its cost or market value and is offset against income. An estimate of the asset's useful life must be developed in order to allocate the asset's cost to the time it is utilised. Often, this will be shorter than its physical life. For instance, it could be determined that even if a car is still in operation after three years, it will not operate as effectively and will thus be valued less at that point. To determine the actual amount to be depreciated, the asset cost will be removed from any residual or resale value, if any. The straight line or prime cost approach is the easiest way to depreciate an item. Using this system, depreciation is distributed equally throughout the course of the asset's useful life. The cost of the asset less its residual value is divided by the number of periods in the asset's useful life to arrive at the amount of depreciation for each period. Consider a $11,000 computer system as an illustration. After five years, it's expected

that the system will be worth $1,000 when it's time to sell it. The yearly depreciation will be $2,000 using the straight-line depreciation approach. This amount is calculated by multiplying the $10,000 difference between the purchase price and residual value by the estimated useful life of five years. Over the subsequent five years, the profit and loss statement will record this yearly depreciation as a cost. Amortization is the practise of dispersing an asset's cost over a certain amount of time. This approach is intended to demonstrate the connection between the expenses incurred in producing benefits from the usage of an asset and the dissemination of those benefits.

CHAPTER 11

VALUE OF ASSETS

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Moreover, asset valuations may be altered to reflect recent developments and costs. Assets are appraised at their original purchase price, or "historical cost," unless otherwise specified. Yet many assets, especially land and buildings, have the potential to appreciate in value over time. The real worth of assets may be substantially underestimated if this isn't done on a regular basis. Revaluing the assets by a certified valuer and including a note to that effect with the annual statement of financial operations and standing may solve this issue.

Liabilities

Liabilities are, to put it simply, the debts a company has to others. To be more precise, they are an entity's current liabilities that, upon settlement, require the use of financial resources. Liabilities may also be divided into current and non-current types like assets. Money that will be owing to persons in the near future for products and services they have provided is referred to as current obligations. For instance, a club could have financed certain athletic goods that had a 30- to 60-day payment term. This is referred to as debtors or accounts payable. Additional current obligations include short-term loans, advance member payments, and immediately due taxes. The topic of income received in advance is important since it is often seen as revenue or an asset rather than an obligation. To the present flows of income and costs, it is obviously irrelevant under the accrual accounting approach. But, because it is money received, it must be justified. Hence, money is deducted from the bank's cash account and credited to a future debt to members. In other words, it is an obligation that is reported as advance payment of revenue. Long-term debt, mortgage loans, deferred tax obligations, and long-term employee provisions like superannuation benefits are examples of non-current liabilities. As long as the debt is utilised to create assets that generate revenue, the buildup of obligations is not in and of itself a concern. Yet, the difference between assets and liabilities would widen if rising debt is linked to losses rather than gains. In the world of sports, it is not unusual for teams to have liabilities greater than their assets. Several football teams in Europe experience losses, and a significant number of these clubs have more liabilities than assets, as shown by the key case study in this chapter. This circumstance is mirrored in Australia, where certain rugby and Australian Rules football teams have negative net value (that is, they have more liabilities than assets). These tendencies are not long-term viable. A sport organization's balance sheets may reveal a lot about its financial situation. Balance sheets, however, do not provide much information on a sport club's earnings, profits, or losses for a given month, quarter, or year. We must consult the income statement, often known as the profit and loss statement in the nonprofit sector of sport, for this data.

Loss and Profit Statements

In order to assess a sport organizations financial health, it is important to focus on the financial performance of sport clubs and organisations throughout time as well as its assets and liabilities

at a certain moment in time (Atrill et al. 2006). The profit and loss statement may be referred to by a variety of terms, which should be mentioned first. It is also known as a financial statement of performance and an income statement, which are terms used in the nonprofit sector. The important thing to keep in mind regarding most sporting organisations is that they prioritise surpluses and deficits rather than earnings and losses (Anthony & Young 2003). In the situation, it does not change the fact that these statements compare the money produced over a period of time (let's say three or twelve months) to the costs required to get the revenue. While it is simple to put together and reasonably simple to comprehend profit and loss statements, there are some difficult topics that need to be covered.

The first thing to note is that, despite the fact that profit and loss statements are primarily concerned with earned revenue and incurred costs, they do properly reflect the entire cash flows in and out of the company. They will thus include a large number of transactions that do not involve the transfer of cash. In other words, money can be made, but it may not be available right now. Yet the profit and loss statement still has to include it as a revenue item. For instance, a huge national sport organisation may have paid $50,000 to a sport consulting company for the completion of a strategic planning exercise. The invoice will still be included as revenue in the profit and loss statement if it is unpaid at the end of the accounting period. An equal increase (or debit) of $50,000 will be made to the accounts receivable asset account to reflect the adjustment or offset in the accounts. The adjustment would have been made as a $50,000 increase (or decrease) to the cash in bank asset account if the invoice had been paid right away.

Operating and non-operating components are often separated into revenue, or income as it is commonly known. Operational items are all those revenues, such as member dues and retail sales, that go into maintaining the club or organisation on a daily basis. Money that is unusual or even out of the ordinary falls under the category of non-operating things. Non-operating revenue might take the form of a big contribution, a special government grant, or the sale of an asset. While sports organisations' income have grown significantly in recent years, as was mentioned in the first section of this chapter, the primary revenue sources for amateur clubs are membership dues, gate receipts, government grants, fundraising efforts, and sponsors. Costs must also be handled with caution. Instead of only paying expenditures, the profit and loss statement should include all incurred costs. An expenditure is anything you pay for using cash or credit. Paying for anything that won't be utilised until the next year, for instance, shouldn't be included in the list of expenses for the current fiscal year. That is a plus (i.e. a prepaid expense). For instance, paying for rent or insurance in advance requires taking money out of the club or organisation but does not count as a cost for the current term.

Depreciation

Another expenditure concern that has to be addressed is depreciation. Depreciation is a measure of the degradation of working assets, to reiterate. Computers rapidly lose value in an office context for two reasons. First of all, they are often utilised, and secondly, they soon become outdated. Hence, depreciation is considered a cost and belongs in the profit and loss statement. There are several methods for calculating depreciation, with the straight line technique being the easiest. For instance, if a car costs $30,000, has a predicted lifespan of five years, and has no residual value, the depreciation expenditure for the next five years will be $6,000 annually. Some financial managers of athletic clubs make the error of classifying the whole cost of the car as an expenditure in year 1, which is obviously false. This transaction should be listed as an asset and then depreciated (or amortised) throughout its anticipated lifespan. Profit and loss statements also show interest collected and paid. Interest received will be counted as income, whilst interest paid would be treated as an expenditure.

Comparing operations to net earnings

It's crucial to understand the difference between operational profit (or surplus) and net profit when analysing profit and loss accounts (or surplus). Abnormal income and costs and exceptional revenue and expenses are the distinctions between these two words. If a transaction occurs often but in one particular instance is much more than usual, it will be labelled as abnormal. An atypical item in the context of a sports team can be an office equipment depreciation that occurs more quickly than usual or an additional government grant. If a transaction is important and not commonplace, it will be categorised as exceptional. Fines for violating the rules governing the wage cap are an example used by a sports team. (This regularly occurs in the National Rugby League and the Australian Football League) or the sale of an asset (this occurs in the English Premier League where players can be traded under certain conditions). Operational profit is limited to transactions that are directly tied to daily operations that routinely occur over the course of the standard accounting cycle and excludes unusual and exceptional items. Operating profit is the result of subtracting operating expenditures from operating income. Net profit is a different concept altogether and will account for all unusual and remarkable things. The athletic club could have to pay tax on its earnings if it's a component of a business that makes money.

Money Flow

The cash flow statement may now be discussed. Profit and loss statements do not clearly depict the flow of money into and out of an athletic club or organisation, as should be obvious. The three primary categories in cash flow statements, which show all cash transactions, are meant to close this gap. Operating activities, investment activities, and financing activities are the titles for these categories. Gaining an understanding of the net inflow and outflow of cash will help us determine how well a club or organisation can satisfy its cash payment responsibilities. This is a significant problem since, if money isn't available to pay payments when they're due, there's a chance that creditors may file a lawsuit to get their money. Bankruptcy and insolvency might follow from this. All the daily operations necessary to keep the organisation functioning are covered by the transactions included in the operational activity section. On the one hand, they include membership fees and government subsidies; on the other, they include wages and salary (cash out), as well as payments for goods (cash out). While a short-term net cash outflow may not be so critical, good financial management will try to guarantee that the cash coming in from operational activities will exceed the cash going out.

Transactions involving the buying and selling of assets are considered to be investments. Although buying assets will result in a cash outflow, selling assets will result in a cash inflow. The buying and selling of stock, shares, and debentures will all come under the category of investment, as would the buying and selling of other types of property and office equipment. In order to avoid depleting essential assets, a balance must be achieved between the need to quickly raise funds and the loss of resources that create revenue for the company. Contrarily, the acquisition of assets instantly consumes cash, thus it's critical to keep an eye on how much is being spent in this way. The pursuit of equity and borrowing of money, on the one hand, and the withdrawal of funds and repayment of borrowings, on the other, include financing operations. Loans, bonds, mortgages, debentures, and other borrowings might result in a rise in cash on hand, but the repayment of loans and the redemption of debentures can result in a decrease in cash on hand. An accurate and succinct picture of how cash is spent internally and where it travels externally is provided by a cash flow statement. Also, it indicates the degree of liquidity and how easily cash reserves can sustain cash payments. A persistent net cash outflow on operational operations is reason for worry as it may necessitate the sale of assets or the use

of borrowings to cover the cash shortfall. Also, as was already said, this may result in a decline in the club's or association's net value, endangering the latter's long-term existence.

Budgeting Methods

The process of financial management must include budgeting. Doing some straightforward financial assessments of sports teams, organisations, and leagues is one thing. Making ensuring resources are accessible for distribution to the various components of their operations is a different matter. No matter how wealthy a sport organisation is, its resource base will always be constrained. Decisions must be made regarding how much money will be spent on each operational activity as well as where the resources will be distributed (facility maintenance, player salaries, coaching staff, equipment upgrades). Also, since budgets are limited, the quantity of available money will always be a limiting issue.

Actually, budgets are financial plans that allocate money to strategically significant operations and activities. With a budget, you can make sure that expenditures and expenses are under control and don't exceed expected income. A good budget limits expenditure while also painting a clear picture of the expected sources of income. While budgets may take many various forms, they always share the objective to manage spending patterns and guarantee that all expenditures are supported by enough funds.

Advantages of budgeting

For sports clubs and organisations, having a strong budgeting system is essential. As was previously said, the sport industry has become more complicated, making smart money management more important than ever. A well-planned budget also forms the cornerstone of effective management and long-term profitability. There are several advantages to budgeting.

Various budgets

Budgets, as said, show the expenditure limits for various activities throughout certain time periods. There are two types of budgets: the operating budget, often known as the recurring budget, and the capital expenditure budget (which is sometimes called an investment budget). A capital budget refers to expenditure on buildings, facilities, equipment, and other physical assets as opposed to an operational budget, which refers to spending on the day-to-day operations of the sports club, organisation, or league.

Expense budgeting

An operational budget is a plan that details how much money will be made over the next several months and at what levels. As there will always be unanticipated events that modify the financial conditions in which a club or organisation conducts its activities, the statistics are simply estimations.

As a consequence, owing to shifting economic and social factors, the financial assumptions that supported the budget estimates may not come to pass. For instance, a sponsor could wish to renegotiate their contract, membership revenue might decrease due to subpar play on the field, and coaching and support staff expenses can skyrocket as a result of an increasing need for qualified experts. A club or association's operational budget seeks to precisely forecast the expected quantity of money that it will have to work with, as well as the anticipated costs connected with generating that revenue. It is vital to make sure that income and costs will balance and, at the absolute least, aim towards the creation of a healthy surplus for every athletic club and organisation.

Budgeting Changes

A budget may be set up as a programme budget as well. This entails providing a certain amount of money to each programme or activity. In light of the aforementioned discussion of sport finances, it is clear that maintaining the financial stability of sport organisations is crucial. With the corporateization and commercialization of sport, having an effective system of financial planning, record keeping, monitoring, and assessment becomes more important. Finding out the many methods that money may be generated to support a sports club, organisation, event, or league is a good place to start. It is also crucial for sport managers to be able to create comprehensive budgets that provide transparent information that makes it obvious not just how much it will cost to set up and run a particular activity, programme, or event, but also where the funding will come from. The ability to comprehend financial documents, apply them to assess the financial health of a club association, event, or league, and then manage expenditures and revenues to achieve a consistent surplus or profit are equally crucial for sport management. Understanding the various methods of calculating surpluses and profits, and in particular, the distinction between operational and net profit, is crucial.

Sport promotion

In general, marketing refers to the process of organising and executing actions intended to satisfy client demands or desires, with a focus on a product's creation, price, promotion, and distribution. Marketing is to establish an exchange in which a consumer or client gives up money in return for a product or service they perceive to be of equal or better value. Sport marketing focuses on meeting the demands of sport customers, or individuals who utilise sports products or services through participating in sporting events, watching or listening to sporting events, purchasing sporting goods, collecting sporting memorabilia, or utilising sporting equipment. Sport marketing has two components: marketing of sports, and marketing through sports. The first aspect is the direct marketing of athletic goods and services to customers, including clubs for leisure activities, professional sporting events, and venues for sporting events.

The promotion of additional, non-sport items and services via sport is the second dimension. Examples include a professional athlete endorsing a food or clothing line, a business sponsoring a sporting event, or even a beverage company negotiating to have exclusive rights to sell their goods at a sporting occasion. A sport organisation has to have meaning for sport customers in order to be successful. In order for this to work, a customer must be aware of the sport organisation, its brand, and the goods or services it provides, as well as having positively interacted with them. Branding is the process of eliciting such a reaction, and a sport brand is considered to be positioned after it has established itself firmly in the market and in customers' thoughts. An enduring connection between a sport brand and its consumers is the result of good branding and the acquisition of strong market positioning. In order to build a connection between a sport brand and its customers, sport marketing is best understood as the process of deciding how a sport brand will be positioned and how its goods or services will be delivered. This might be accomplished by promoting a sport brand directly or indirectly.

The Basis for Sport Marketing

The Sport Marketing Framework provides a method for addressing the demands of sport customers, putting the sport marketing concept into effect. The Framework lays out a step-by-step procedure for organising and putting the fundamentals of sport marketing into practise.

In order to find sport marketing possibilities, the first stage of the sport marketing framework entails analysing the external marketplace, taking into account circumstances inside the sport

business especially, and looking at rival actions. By determining its objectives and constraints, a sport organization's internal capabilities are also studied at this stage. Lastly, information regarding market conditions must be gathered with a focus on current customers and other prospective customers in order to find marketing possibilities. Develop a sport marketing plan is Stage 2 of the Framework, which may be started when all of this data has been gathered and examined. At stage 2, the sport marketing program's direction is decided, taking into account what was discovered in stage 1. At this point, it's critical to outline the strategy's goals and performance indicators in order to keep it on track and eventually determine if it was a success. Once the direction is decided, the strategy's specific tactics can be specified. These tactics revolve around how to differentiate or 'differentiate' the sport organization's brand and products in the market, choosing which market segments to target with the strategy (segmentation), and choosing the marketing mix (the product offering, pricing strategies, promotional strategies, and distribution systems) that will be used. At Stage 3 of the Framework, the sport marketing mix is precisely determined, along with how it will function together to realise the objective outlined. The fourth stage, "implement and manage the strategy," entails monitoring the results and making adjustments as necessary to keep the plan on track.

Recognize Possibilities for Sport Marketing

This process demonstrates the need for information gathering and study prior to initiating sport marketing initiatives. Knowing the market's potential, what the competition is doing, what can be offered, and what customers genuinely want is crucial. Three factors must be considered in order to identify sport marketing opportunities: analysis of the organisation, analysis of the market, and analysis of the customer base.

Investigate both the internal and exterior environments

Assessing the sport organization's internal and external settings is the first step in discovering sport marketing potential. The settings in which a sport organisation that is engaging in the marketing process is situated are referred to as the internal environment. The market, encompassing the general national and international environment, the sports industry, and the sport organization's rivals, is referred to as the "external environment."

These parts of internal and external analysis are discussed in more depth in Chapter 5 and are only briefly described here since they are overlapping with those carried out for any strategic planning. SWOT, which stands for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats Two sections make up the SWOT analysis. An organization's internal analysis is represented in the first section, which may be summed up by its strengths and flaws. A company's strengths are the things it does well, while its weaknesses are the things it struggles to do effectively. The external elements, also known as opportunities and threats, are the focus of the second section of the SWOT analysis. Environmental circumstances may provide opportunities that may be utilised to the organisations' benefit. The SWOT analysis shows prospective places where an opportunity may exist and shapes what a sport business is capable of doing in their marketing strategy. By identifying opportunities or dangers related to other companies operating in the same market, a competitor study focuses on the external environment. A competitor analysis should look at different types of rivals, including direct rivals who make a comparable good or service, secondary rivals who offer alternatives that address the same needs but in a different way, and indirect rivals who offer a variety of goods and services that could meet customers' needs. A competitor analysis should take into account a broad variety of factors, including the plans, strengths, weaknesses, and resources of the competition as well as their expected future course of action.

A five forces analysis, which focuses on the five factors influencing competition in the sport sector, may be done in addition to a competitor analysis. It is used to determine if the market is appealing for doing business in and whether there is room for the development of new or current items.

Analyze the business

Understanding the purpose, objectives, and goals of the sport organisation creating the plan as well as the demands of its stakeholders is the second Stage 1 component. Finding (or, if required, creating) the sport organization's mission statement, vision statement, and goals can help you identify the first three of these components. Stakeholders are any individuals or organisations with an interest in a particular sport organisation, such as its staff, players, members, league, association, or governing body, the government, the local community, the facility owners, advertisers, broadcasters, or fans. The expectations of the most influential stakeholders may have a significant impact on a marketing strategy. Hence, before a strategic direction can be determined, a thorough examination of the aims and objectives of each stakeholder must be carried out.

Market and consumer research should be conducted and analysed

Market research is conducted and examined as the last stage of Stage 1. Market research is the process of learning more about a market and the people that make up that market. It is the process of learning about the market and what customers want, paying attention to their wants and needs, and figuring out how to provide those needs. It is also used to assess if customer responses to a marketing strategy were as anticipated. Market research often falls into one of two categories: quantitative or qualitative. Quantitative research collects a wide range of superficial statistical data. The most typical way to acquire quantitative data is by using surveys or questionnaires. Non-numerical data are gathered via qualitative research (such as words from an interview of a person). In-depth qualitative data is often collected from a select group of a limited number of individuals. Focus groups, suggestion boxes, and complaint analysis are examples of common qualitative research methods in sports. This data is essential for determining the sorts of goods and services that should be provided to consumers of sports.

Develop a sports marketing strategy in stage two

Two elements make up the second step of the sport marketing framework: Develop a sport marketing plan after developing a strategic market orientation. The direction of the sport marketing strategy may be decided upon when the information-gathering step is complete, and this direction can then be formalised in the form of goals and performance measurements. They serve as a roadmap for the Sport Marketing Framework's subsequent phases. Secondly, a positioning might be used to decide on the real sport marketing plan. A strategy that sets the sporting organization's brand and product offerings apart from rivals and divides the market into target demographics.

Create a comprehensive marketing plan

A marketing aim is a target that the marketing strategy can really accomplish. It may be stated in the form of a statement that describes what will happen as a consequence of marketing efforts. Sport organisations may seek to focus on any of the following four categories of marketing goals: increased levels of participation or engagement, on-field performance, message promotion about the sport or its advantages, and profit. It is necessary to include a performance metric for every goal that is defined. The phrase here refers to a method for

calculating, estimating, or determining objectively if the goal has been attained. Finding a technique to quantify an aim or assign a numerical value to it is often required.

Create a sport marketing plan

The second half of Stage 2 may be completed by creating the real sport marketing plan when the goals and performance indicators for sport marketing have been established. There are four phases involved in creating a sport marketing plan. Market segmentation is the focus of steps one and two, the decision on a positioning strategy for the market is made in step three, and the marketing mix is decided in step four. The technique of classifying groups of customers based on their shared requirements or desires is known as market segmentation. A market is the whole population of prospective buyers of a product, which includes corporations, organisations, the public sector, the media, and private citizens. Market segmentation is the process of dividing this large group into more manageable segments based on characteristics shared by the customers, such as age, gender, interests in certain sports, or frequency of attendance. It is feasible to tailor the product and marketing strategy to match the demands of the targeted market group or segments after they have been identified. There are two phases in the market segmentation process. The market must first be segmented into smaller groups based on a shared trait or qualities. Market research may be used to accomplish this. A market is often segmented into subgroups based on six main factors: demographic, socioeconomic, lifestyle (psychographic), geography, product behaviour, and product benefits. The target segments must be identified once the market has been segmented into smaller groupings. To make the work worthwhile, the piece or segments must be significant and distinct from the rest. Focused segmentation, multiple segmentation, and undifferentiated segmentation are the three methods of segmentation. Focused segmentation happens when a single segment is selected and a single marketing mix is tailored for it. Selecting more than one section, then creating a different marketing mix for each segment, is known as multiple segmentation. Lastly, undifferentiated segmentation offers no options at all and considers the whole market to be a viable and acceptable target.

When judgements about market segmentation have been made, the following stage is to choose a market positioning strategy for each category that has been defined. Market positioning is how a sports organisation wants customers to perceive their brand and their product line in relation to rivals. For instance, does a sports organisation want to be seen as providing basic, affordable items or luxury, high-quality ones? Do they see it as traditional and dependable or novel and flexible? There are several positioning options from which to choose, depending on the target market. A type of difference must be reflected in the positioning approach. In other words, the brand and product offerings of the sport organisation must be differentiated in some manner from those of competitors, and this differentiation must be communicated to each target category via the positioning strategy. It might be based on the elements of the product offers, the quality of the goods or services provided, the cost of the goods or services given, or even the mode of delivery. There should be numerous chances to take advantage of market prospects that closely fit with the internal strengths of the sport organisation if Stage 1 has been thoroughly completed. Market positioning and distinctiveness should, like all strategic choices, represent a balance between available external opportunities and internal competitive advantages. Positioning and branding are closely related concepts. A brand is similar to an identification mark (typically a name or a logo) that aids customers in recognising a product or a company. A brand is connected to customers' perceptions of the sports organisation. It is crucial to have branding, segmentation, and positioning strategies tightly integrated since positioning and branding are intertwined.

Plan the Marketing Mix for Sports

The marketing mix, sometimes known as the "four Ps," is a collection of tactics that addresses product, pricing, promotions, and location (distribution). Since they must be mixed and coordinated in order to implement the market positioning strategy, they are generally referred to as a "mix." It is required to include two more components of the marketing mix, namely sponsorship and services, in addition to the conventional four Ps. Both are already included in the marketing mix; sponsorship is treated as part of "promotions," while services are taken into account as part of "product." Nonetheless, since both are crucial to sport marketing, they are accorded more priority here. A sport organisation may deliver a whole bundle of advantages to sport customers by supplying products, services, and/or ideas. This is referred to as a sport product. Sporting goods are tangible objects that can be handled. Examples include athletic footwear, tennis rackets, collectibles, golf balls, and skateboards. These products all have actual existence as tangible things. Sports products often exhibit a high level of dependability, or consistency in quality from one product to the next. They are not perishable, therefore they may be kept after being manufactured. Sports services will be examined separately in a later section. A sports product may include a combination of products and services. One key idea in sport marketing is to build goods with a combination of physical and intangible components to help them stand out from rivals.

CHAPTER 12

SPORT PRODUCT INNOVATION

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Sport marketers may take into account the potential for new product creation via an innovative method. A new product's development may be costly and dangerous. Several new sports items are released into the market each year, but only a tiny percentage of them are profitable. The sport organisation has wasted time, money, and maybe even part of its reputation if a new product is a flop. What does it really mean to build a new product, though? A new product need not be a whole new one. An increased performance of an existing product, new features added to an existing product, a new method to utilise an existing product, integrating existing goods, or a new appearance or design for a product are all examples of new products in the context of sport marketing. Whichever shape the new or altered product takes, it is the result of an effective innovation process.

Innovation now encompasses a wide range of concepts, from straightforward invention to intricate production. For us, from the standpoint of a sport product, innovation is the conversion of a novel concept into a recognisable deliverable via the use of technology, a physical good, or a process-based service. An innovation, as opposed to an invention or a discovery, really occurs in the real world. It may take the form of a creative solution to an existing consumer issue, an enhancement to the consumer experience, or even a brand-new product that the customer has never heard of before. Although inspiration and innovation are sometimes used interchangeably, there is a great deal of uncertainty around their development. Product innovations come in a variety of shapes and sizes in sports. First, mobile technology is altering how fans and players interact with sports. Smart gadgets, for instance, enable users to watch and participate in sports anytime, anywhere. Participants, and top athletes in particular, have the ability to gather, store, and analyse a large quantity of training and performance data that provide crucial hints for future progress. Second, improvements in sports products have had a significant influence on the systems that help athletes perform well, including sports medicine, rehabilitation, drugs, nutrition, and supplements. Of course, new developments that improve broadcasting coverage and quality, media channels, regulation, rule enforcement, and officiating as well as general spectator safety and comfort may also be advantageous to sport managers and marketers.

Sport marketers would be well to get familiar with the procedures around innovation in order to take advantage of these significant chances that arise from the use of innovations. Sport marketers do not, however, have to wait for the creation of new technology. Alternatively, they might actively explore novel product breakthroughs by putting to use the resources and ideas already at hand in fresh ways. For instance, several sports have created modified versions of their competitions in an effort to draw in new fans, including versions particularly created for kids and those created for maximum entertainment. Innovation pertains to product outputs that are more appealing to a specific audience for our aims. An innovation may be radical, in which

case a product is fully redesigned or even replaced by something customers never imagined, or incremental, in which case it modifies the current product in little but significant ways.

The creation and gathering of fresh product ideas and potential constitute the initial phase in the invention of a product. Sport marketers may benefit from identifying a number of processes that are generally included in every innovation result, even though the product innovation process might either begin spontaneously or develop virtually unnoticeably over a lengthy period of incremental improvements. While starting with a problem that needs to be addressed is a common and clearly practical strategy, innovation does not always need anything to go wrong to spark it. Most product designers and marketers create new goods and services as a result of considering potential new markets. Opportunities are the innovation's fuel. For this reason, the demand for fresh value drives product innovation. In order to create new value, the first step in the process of sport product innovation is to nurture a large, diversified, and rich platform of prospective ideas. It is crucial that the concepts stay free of limitations imposed by custom, available means, and preconceived notions about what sport consumers desire. The second phase of product innovation is sorting through all of the ideas that have been gathered and preserving just those that are compatible with the marketing goals of the sports organisation. It is also beneficial to think about how the new product concepts connect to current trends and how well they mesh with already-available items. Financial realities shouldn't be a problem at this point. Yet towards the conclusion of this stage, new product possibilities need to be prioritised in accordance with marketing goals. In other words, the extensive list of concepts from step one has to be condensed into a manageable number. The capacity of product champions to swiftly transform their concepts into tested prototypes, voting and weighing systems, preset priority areas, expert input, panels, and workshops are just a few of the many techniques that may be used. Innovations in products and services should thus be evaluated as soon as feasible and as cheaply as possible. Step three of the procedure entails a more thorough evaluation of the concepts that were kept after step 2. In order to assess their marketability, the top ranked solutions should be chosen and tested. It is the time to undertake more market research, concept testing, and cost and financial estimations to see if the idea is feasible. Giving prospective buyers a description of the new product and asking them whether they would be inclined to purchase it is known as concept testing. It can also include giving clients a chance to test out a prototype of the new product. Creating a "quick prototype" is now a potent choice.

Rapid prototyping is a technique for swiftly evaluating an idea to determine whether it may work before major resources are spent on manufacturing it for the market. It has recently gained popularity and been included into marketing and business circles. As designers have adopted rapid prototyping, the approach represents the flexible and iterative techniques they employ in testing their fledgling ideas. An unfinished but fully working mock-up result of a prototype might be as simple as a drawing or flowchart. The beginning holds the key rather than the conclusion. Since they take too long to develop or demand too much investment before it is clear if it will be profitable or not, the majority of inventions never reach the market. Fast prototyping makes an effort to get beyond the development lag that most new product ideas experience. The innovation process may be drastically sped up by swiftly turning a concept into something real that can be evaluated, ideally by the same types of sport users and customers that could end up purchasing it. The decision to give up the idea is often the outcome. This is frequently referred to as "quick failure" or "cheap failure," however it really represents a successful result in which resources have been saved from being wasted in light of preliminary tests. Experimentation is still a key component of rapid prototyping, which produces better designs quicker. It's critical to realise that the fast prototyping approach does not aim to provide fully operational goods or services. Yet, they do need to elicit in consumers

a feeling that will provide them first-hand knowledge of what using the new product is like. For instance, a marketer may come up with a novel way for fans of sports to buy tickets for events using a mobile application. The marketer might just create some cards or offline screens that depict the steps a user would take to utilise the programme rather than investing months and thousands of dollars in development. The marketer may rapidly determine if their customers have a taste for the real product by engaging with people to test the concept. A prototype might be low quality, such as a set of drawings on paper, or high fidelity, such as a functioning but restricted working application. It's crucial that consumers have access to the sort of experience that the finished product aims to evoke. Better prototypes more accurately replicate the experience of the finished product. Yet even a subpar prototype may be used to generate enough input for a later, improved version. In the absence of any concrete experiences on which to base their expectations, the majority of customers find it challenging to envisage their reactions to new improvements. Since they greatly increase the efficiency of market testing, prototypes have emerged as a crucial element in the sport product development toolbox.

It's time to decide how to go forward now that the feasibility and market testing findings for the new product are ready. The wisest course of action could be to forego moving forward and instead choose the next highest-ranked new product opportunity to research. The final product composition should be decided upon if the feasibility and testing findings are encouraging. In order to do this, the primary product advantages, genuine product characteristics, and enhanced product composition must be specified. To develop the ideal positioning strategy, it will also be necessary to identify the other components of the marketing mix. A sports product is finally prepared for commercial release if it has successfully navigated all of these phases. In order to enable the deployment of all the elements of the marketing mix, an implementation strategy will need to be developed.

Branding

One of the most important techniques used by sport marketers to enhance their goods by identifying them with certain concepts is branding. Brand equity is the worth that an item has above and beyond what it would otherwise have. Building the brand is the main focus of branding, which goes well beyond selecting a catchy name or having a stylish logo created. Once prospective customers are aware of a sport brand, it's critical to assist them in connecting certain concepts that represent the positioning strategy that the company is trying to achieve. Sport marketers do this by manipulating the brand image, which includes all of the symbols and concepts that affect how consumers perceive a brand, including its name, logo, product features, product quality/performance, packaging, price, advertising, promotion, customer service, and distribution methods. Consumer loyalty is branding's ultimate aim. High levels of product quality, ease of distribution, frequent consumer interaction, and customer loyalty programmes all help to increase brand loyalty. Licensing is a concept that is connected to branding. When a sports group grants permission for a price for another organisation to use their name or emblem, this is known as licencing. The business that purchases the licence to use the brand (referred to as the licensee) will then create an item, service, or promotion and provide a portion of the proceeds to the actual brand owner (called the licensor). In the world of sports, licencing is a popular commercial approach that annually produces billions of dollars in sales abroad. It is especially well-liked with garments and merchandise (including toys, collecting cards, games, school supplies, movies, DVDs, and periodicals). Leagues and sports clubs lack the funding necessary to produce all of these items on their own. Alternatively, they can arrange to have another business produce the goods for them in exchange for a piece of the earnings.

Price

A sport product's pricing not only affects its financial impact, but it also has a significant impact on how customers see it. What a customer forgoes in return for using or possessing a sporting good is reflected in the price of that good. While price is often thought of in terms of money, it may also encompass other things that a buyer must forego in order to purchase a product, such as time (for example, standing in line) or social expenses (e.g. being in an aerobics class with others instead of a one-on-one instruction). Considering price choices in terms of value is an effective strategy to do so. In sport marketing, a product's value is determined by how its cost compares to the advantages buyers think they will get in return. A sport product's worth is determined by how its cost compares to the advantages a buyer thinks they will get from it.

Secondly, since various price methods will produce different results, it is crucial to ascertain the target, which should be expressed in terms of pricing objectives. They may vary from those aimed to increasing profit to those created to provide the product or service to as many various sport consumers as feasible. The sensitivity of customers to price fluctuations must also be determined. When a product's price is high, consumers may choose not to purchase it, or when the price is dropped, they may purchase more of the product. They will alter their purchasing patterns more as prices change the more sensitive they are. Lastly, to determine how many sales are required to recoup the expenses of manufacturing the product, a break-even analysis should be carried out. Fourth, additional factors that might influence price should be taken into account, such as rivals' pricing tactics, potential legal or regulatory restrictions, and the effects of other marketing mix factors.

Lastly, a pricing plan that supports the overall market positioning approach should be chosen. Sport businesses may use a variety of pricing tactics, such as those intended to maximise profits, such as those that include following rivals, establishing a low starting price, flat-rating costs, utilising market demand as a guide, and pricing in accordance with the target market. The sixth and last step is choosing a pricing point. It's crucial to understand that pricing has to be regularly reviewed and should always be in line with a strategy for market positioning.

Promotion

The goal of promotion is to interact with customers, educate them about available products, and attempt to convince them to make a purchase. In the end, promotion plays a crucial role in developing and creating brand image. Sport marketing's method of informing, persuading, and reminding prospective customers about their product offers is known as sport promotion. The promotions mix, which consists of the four primary promotional activities, is often utilised in tandem to develop an integrated promotional plan. Public relations, personal selling, sales promotion, and advertising make up the promotion mix.

Advertising is a kind of one-way communication in which a sport marketer pays another person to mention their brand or business. Television commercials, magazine and newspaper ads, radio spots, internet pop-ups, posters, billboards, and adverts on public transportation are a few typical examples. Personal selling is direct connection between a customer and a salesperson, such as over the phone, in person, or even via telemarketing. In the sporting world, endorsements and sponsorships are two typical examples of personal selling. Sales promotions are transient initiatives designed to spur a rise in sales. Customers get a perk (or reward) for using the sport product. Examples that are often used include "two-for-one" deals, contests, and giveaways of prizes or free trials or samples. Public relations campaigns aim to enhance the reputation of a sporting group, its brand, and its product offers in the neighbourhood. It

generally includes media exposure in the form of a news story and is not funded by the sporting organisation.

Place

Location describes the site where a sporting good or service is provided or the means of its distribution. The phrases "place" and "distribution" are thus equivalent. Both describe the journey a sporting product or service takes from the manufacturer to the end user. The idea of a sport distribution channel, which entails a number of businesses or people that a sport product must travel through, may be used to describe the distribution process. There are avenues for both direct and indirect distribution. A manufacturer selling the goods directly to the customer is known as a direct distribution channel. Sports services like live matches and coaching sessions are two examples of online sales of sports goods. Indirect distribution channels are lengthier when more entities or individuals (referred to as intermediates) are engaged along the route. Products used in sports, such as athletic footwear and equipment.

One of the most significant sources of income for sporting organisations that host events or tournaments is ticket sales. Since it pertains to the "location" component of the sport marketing mix, ticket distribution is a crucial problem for sport marketers. Customers often have more in mind than simply a ticket when they get in touch with a ticket distributor to purchase one for a sporting event. Consumers want comfort, prompt, courteous service, answers to their queries, and fair prices. A customer may become unsatisfied with the athletic event or club if they are not pleased with the service or pricing they get from the ticket seller. Sport organisations must carefully manage their agreements with ticket resellers. Maybe the most significant distribution channel in the sports sector is the athletic facility. Sport facilities have several characteristics that influence how effective they are as a means of distributing sporting goods.

Sport marketers may not always be able to influence the characteristics of athletic facilities and may not have the resources necessary to make significant changes. Sport marketers must thus manage a variety of different features of the venue in an effort to increase the dissemination of sport. Secondly, the choice of seating affects how sport consumers perceive the event and may be utilised to improve both the comfort of their watching experience and the marketing messages they are exposed to. Second, regardless of the size of the stadium, scoreboards and signage are crucial for conveying marketing messages and may improve the spectators' enjoyment of the game. Finally, the mood of a venue and an event may be enhanced by the employment of lighting and sound systems at the right moments to attract sports fans. Fourth, transportation may be promoted as a particular customer service and utilised to help sports customers get to a venue. Finally, media centres may promote broadcasting of sporting events as well as media interest in general. Sixth, having child care services available might help draw sports fans at off-peak times or to unique events. Seventh, selling stuff at sporting venues is an effective marketing strategy because it gives sports fans an easy method to spend more money on things that highlight the brand of the sport product. The provision of food and drinks is among the most profitable services that a sports facility can provide.

Sponsorship

While they are a component of the advertising mix, sponsorships and endorsements are so crucial to sport that they should be given particular consideration. An organisation or individual enters into a business agreement with a sport property (the sporting organisation or person being sponsored, such as an athlete, team, event, association, or competition) to provide financial or in-kind assistance in exchange for the right to associate itself with the sporting property. One form of marketing via sport is sponsorship. Depending on the size of the partners,

the style of sponsorship, and the kind of sporting property being sponsored, the goals of sponsorship might vary substantially. The sponsor's shared goals include enhancing their company's public image, raising consumer awareness, managing their brand's reputation, and fostering commercial ties. Generally speaking, sponsorship promotes customer goodwill. The kind of sport property being sponsored, the level of consumer engagement with the sport property, the time the sponsor gets engaged, and the manner in which the sponsor ends the sponsorship may all affect how much goodwill is produced.

A sport property's image is transferred to the sponsor via sponsorship. This image transfer works best when there is a strong sponsorship affinity, or when the sponsor and the sporting event are a good fit. An overlap of target audiences and brand positioning strategies are the two factors that are most crucial for guaranteeing a successful fit. Because of this, sponsorship is most effective when the two partners are associated with the same demographic and convey messages that are comparable. The majority of sponsors use extra marketing initiatives to leverage their sport sponsorship packages. In order to maximise a sponsorship, a sponsor often has to engage in additional marketing initiatives that highlight the sponsorship. Leveraging sponsorships may sometimes cost many times as much as the sponsorship itself. Also, sponsors need to be wary of ambush marketing, which occurs when a business—not the official sponsor and sometimes a rival—creates marketing materials that seem to be connected to the sporting event. Even though analysing sponsorships might be challenging, it's crucial to establish a thorough assessment method. The greatest method to validate sponsorship as a marketing strategy and to attract and keep sponsors is to be able to show that it benefits firms.

Services

Sport services are intangible because they only exist as an experience, uneven in quality, and perishable since they can only be delivered and experienced once at any given moment. They cannot be seen, touched, or tasted. Sport services are intertwined because they are used concurrently with their creation. Sport organisations provide services where their employees, teams, or athletes provide customers an experience. Fitness centres, regional participation-based tournaments, professional sporting events, and assistance services like sport physiotherapists, for instance, all provide services. According to a widely held belief, when it comes to promoting a service The conventional four Ps should be supplemented by three more. Participants, tangible proof, and procedure are these. Participants are the people who take part in both providing and receiving a service. The tangible or visible components of a service, such a sports facility, are referred to as physical proof. Process is interested in the actions used to provide a service. The key themes of these three new Ps are customer happiness and service quality. If a service is seen by sport consumers as being of high quality with constant levels of delivery, which results in satisfaction, they are more likely to be devoted customers. The degree to which a service satisfies the demands and expectations of clients may be considered a measure of service quality. For instance, if a consumer has greater expectations for the level of service than they feel they actually get, they are likely to think the service is of poorer quality and to be unhappy. Working hard to ensure that five components of service delivery are present is a crucial strategy for concentrating on service quality. Reliability, assurance, empathy, responsiveness, and tangibles are the five categories. The capacity to provide a service in a predictable and consistent manner is referred to as reliability. The degree of confidence and trust a consumer has in the service is referred to as assurance. The capacity to understand clients' requirements and provide a tailored service is referred to as empathy. Customer service that is timely and eager to assist clients is referred to as responsiveness. The term "tangibles" refers to the actual components of the service, such as instruction manuals, tools, personnel

appearance, amenities, and sports venue qualities. Customer satisfaction is likely to be enhanced if these factors of service quality are stressed.

Sport marketing on the internet

Any sort of marketing that makes use of technology, which naturally includes a concentration on the internet and all the gadgets, channels, and media that it encompasses, may be understood as digital sport marketing, which is simple enough to comprehend. At the same time, at a time when almost every marketing action has a digital component, this broad definition no longer aids in differentiating digital marketing from traditional types. Even standard printed fliers use print-on-demand technology, and even low-key athletic events use digital tickets to save costs. Even something as basic as live sporting events cannot escape the digital age. The majority of polls indicate that almost half of sports enthusiasts use their smartphones to get additional material while watching games. Sport marketers must adjust to a new way of seeing their services at the same time as the digital era's technology and capabilities have become ingrained in our expectations for marketing. In other words, sport digital marketing and social media need a new attitude where success entails ongoing adaptation and where the traditional line between sport assets, their marketing agents, and fans is entirely dissolved. Digital and social media technologies are no longer considered to be just "add-ons" to conventional marketing strategies. A digital communication is necessary in the modern society.

The term "digital marketing" is often used to refer to "electronic marketing," which is typically connected to the internet, computers, and other mobile communication platforms. More broadly speaking, digital marketing describes communications that are produced using modern (non-analog) technology platforms, electronic techniques, or both. Technology-advanced platforms or vehicles for information transmission and communication are referred to as digital marketing. These internet channels are all redefining sport marketing and have rightfully elevated to the status of indispensable resources. We describe how social media must take centre stage in a sport organization's digital profile by making the expansion of digital channels a secondary objective of this chapter. Similar to the phrase "marketing," the term "social media" may signify several things depending on the situation. We use the term "social media" broadly to refer to any tool or method of information dissemination that depends on interactions among networked groups of people. It is crucial to adopt this wide perspective since technology has given sport marketers a variety of cutting-edge channels for reaching the audience, allowing them to stop depending only on established "media" outlets. Nowadays, a wide variety of gadgets, including smart phones, PDAs, tablets, and MP3 players, transmit digital material. Even the smooth transition of the data from one digital technology to another and from one digital format to another is possible (for example, from a mobile phone to a computer). Digital media also has the advantage of having real-time data and information availability. Given how pervasive digital media is in customers' lives, sport marketing is particularly essential in this regard.

Digital media, particularly social media, weren't long ago considered the newest technology developments, but it's clear today that they have major, long-lasting effects on sport marketing. Digital media necessitates a new kind of marketing where sport marketers may interact with sport customers in fresh ways. It's more than just technology and tools. Also, it is significant since it opens up new doors for licencing and merchandising, as well as new assets and sources of income for the sport industry (such as digital rights for websites and mobile devices) (such as computer games). Sport marketers may employ cutting-edge technology to engage with their clients and offer them more goods and services that are related to sport, even if the sorts of technologies that are accessible are always evolving and improving. Maybe more crucially, the

social media aspect of the digital revolution enables marketers and sporting organisations to engage with their client and fan bases in ways that have never been possible before. Digital and social media technology is widely used nowadays, making it possible for sport marketers to reach customers in novel ways. Several of these communication techniques are far quicker, more responsive, and more participatory than traditional marketing tactics. For instance, contrast television's one-way programming with the possibility of sending a personalised replay straight to a viewer's smart phone. In addition to being quick and direct, digital media outlets are considerably less costly than conventional sport marketing strategies. The ability for sport organisations to create messages that are tailored to crucial target groups is maybe even more significant.

Social media and sport marketing

You're interested in how your team did. Forget about the news on TV or in the newspaper; even internet news is a little sluggish and laborious. Go straight to Facebook, the centre for sports lovers, for further information and even a discussion about the outcomes. Go straight to Twitter for your live sports ticker. Links to YouTube might provide the video shortly after the major play. With your smart phone, iPad, or any other WiFi or mobile device, you may access all of this while you're on the go. In reality, according to the majority of polls conducted in North America, Western Europe, and Asia/Pacific, between two-thirds and 85% of fans use social media during games, and up to 50% use smartphones to check results or view highlights after the event. The numbers probably increased even more by the time you read this paragraph. The real power of social media, however, lies in its unparalleled capacity to foster close, personal engagements between sport properties and their followers, as we shall discuss in this section. Savvy digital sport marketers understand this, and while data and updates are compelling services for fans, they are not social media's true strength. In the end, we strive for improved connections, experiences, feedback, and advocacy, just as in any marketing. Unquestionably, social media usage has moved from being a fun experiment at the margins of sport marketing to being a necessary expenditure. Few would contest the fact that, in only a few short years, the sport consumer has seen a significant transformation. We anticipate updates from our preferred and most reliable sources of social networking information because we want sport material at our convenience, which is often on the go. In other words, we want to be able to find out "24/7" and know what is happening. The ramifications for digital sport marketing are huge in a world that will soon have two billion smart phone users. Sport customers want immediate access, to start. Second, that access has to be tailored, or at least "customizable," to accommodate each fan's erratic tastes. Furthermore necessary is seamless access. This entails a seamless download as well as a platform that is integrated so that a sports fan only has to interact with one or a small number of venues to get their updates. Because that customers access the internet virtually equally via PCs and mobile devices, integration is essential for successful digital marketing. They also check their calendars, utilise applications, play music and games, upload photographs and comments, listen to voicemail, check their email and social networking messages and sites, and check the weather. Several surveys claim that people in certain demographics pick up their phones more than 100 times each day, albeit this varies by area. It makes sense that gadget makers and software developers are so intent on creating user interfaces that satisfy their requirement for simple functionality. Sport customers have high expectations since they are so knowledgeable about technology and athletics. Rather, innovation, amusement, and insight must go together with the substance. Lastly, the cost of going to athletic events might make them unaffordable, which forces fans to discover other methods to interact with game material and explore novel strategies for promoting the contest. social media comes in.

Sports and social media

For a variety of businesses, social media has replaced traditional marketing channels as the primary platform. YouTube has given the world of sports a never-ending stream of video content showcasing the outstanding, mediocre, and remarkable efforts that take place on the playing field of competition. Also, Facebook provides a novel way for "friends" to gather online and share their experiences, passions, and expertise in sports. The quick application of 140 characters of information has simultaneously made twitter the hottest news wire available for the most impatient sports fan. Social media is a low-cost method of reaching fans and club members and gives sports fans a rare chance to discuss, debate, and analyse recent sporting occurrences. For sport marketing at all levels, from local leagues to major international events, a well-thought-out social media plan that includes the likes of Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube, among other possible channels, has unquestionably become a need. FC Barcelona and Portuguese sensation Christian Ronaldo are among the top 20 Facebook fan sites, demonstrating the significance of social media platforms. In fact, seven of the top 10 most popular sports teams on Facebook are football (soccer) clubs. Ronaldo again has the most following on Twitter with nearly 27 million followers. While consumers prefer to talk about sports on Facebook more often, on game days, Twitter is utilised 1.5 times more than Facebook, demonstrating its unrivalled value as a conduit for quick news and opinion.

The National Basketball Association's (NBA) teams and players utilise social media sites like Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter with the goal of directly and positively engaging sports fans. This strategy entails the NBA providing followers with exclusive access to high-profile newsworthy items before they are reported by the mainstream media. NBA-related sponsors may expose their brands, goods, and other attention-grabbing information to a receptive public. Athletes place a high value on the chance to raise their reputations by discussing their thoughts, expectations, and the intimate, behind-the-scenes information that is not publicly accessible, such as updates on injury rehabilitation or a glimpse into the daily lives of well-known sports figures. Although being a fun and economical way to share information about sports businesses, sponsors' goods, and fans' comments, social media exposure raises several concerns. Secondly, having access to a larger market also allows the audience to anonymously vent their sorrow or rage, sometimes crossing the boundary between taste, propriety, and ethics. For instance, the NBA and its member clubs struggle with how to handle unfavourable press, comments, and hatred directed at certain teams and people when they do not control the routes of communication and the contributors are not under the NBA's control or are concealed by a pseudonym. Second, trying to manage news streams from certain players, coaches, or staff members inside a club may result in unfavourable response. For instance, J.R. Smith of the New York Knicks tweeted an abusive tirade towards a rival player. It goes without saying that since Twitter allows for immediate contact and criticism, by the time the club recognised the harm had been done, it was already too late. Moreover, delaying player Tweets due to club censorship would negate the very benefit the medium gives, annoy the players, and let fans know that all of the posts represent diluted club rhetoric and propaganda. Finally, a corporate sponsor or shareholder might generate bad press, as happened when the owner of the Los Angeles Clippers was caught on camera using racial slurs, severely harming the club's reputation.

Sport organisations like the NBA employ a social media strategy in their marketing and communication plans as a means of regulating social media activities. The allowed material for postings and messages made by athletes, coaches, officials, and anyone else connected to the NBA and its teams is specified in the policy guidelines. In addition, guidelines for how and when athletes may interact with their supporters on social media have been developed and are

being closely enforced. During 45 minutes before and after games, players are not permitted to tweet updates. In the sport sector, social media is rapidly being used as a primary form of communication, therefore brand management related to responsible usage has become more crucial.

Implement and regulate Sport Marketing Techniques

Implementing and managing the sport marketing plan is the last step in the sport marketing framework. Putting the plans into practise is the definition of implementing a sport marketing strategy. Many sports companies learn the hard way that marketing strategies are harder to put into action than they seem. But, there are two crucial things sport marketers can do to assist them execute a marketing plan more successfully. They include using implementation techniques and a control procedure. A sport marketing strategy is more likely to be effective if it is carried out by a clear leader or group of leaders. Also, it's essential that each member of the sport marketing team comprehend the marketing strategy and, to the extent feasible, contribute in accordance with their own expertise and knowledge. This necessitates a team made up of both paid employees and unpaid volunteers who are already a good mix of talents, experience, and attitudes. Whether the marketing plan is successfully implemented will rely on the individual and collective efforts of the employees and volunteers. The last step in putting a marketing plan into action is regularly reviewing and assessing the results. It is crucial to monitor how effectively the strategy is working and to make adjustments if necessary. This input is given structure by a control procedure.

There are five basic phases in the sport marketing control process. Setting performance metrics is the first step. In line with Stage 2 of the Sport Marketing Framework, they ought should already exist. The second phase involves implementing the performance measure by comparing performance before and after the marketing plan has been put into place. The third step involves comparing the outcomes to identify performance gaps, shortfalls, and achievements. The fourth stage is to decide if the variance is favourable or not and whether action is required based on the data observed in the comparison. Making corrective adjustments to the marketing strategy and mix to put it back in line with the marketing goals is the last phase. Although a sport organization's aims should be in line with the execution of a sport marketing strategy, it should also fall within the more general parameters of ethical behaviour. When discussing ethics in sport marketing, people usually mean how ethically and professionally the conventional four Ps of the marketing mix are used. Often, they include problems with dangerous or subpar goods, predatory pricing, dishonest or misleading advertising, and exploitative or collusive distribution. Other significant marketing concerns in the sporting world include making public the personal lives of athletes, taking advantage of ardent fans and young fans who idolise sports stars through athlete endorsements of commercial products, using venues with unsafe facilities, making exaggerated claims about health, fitness, and weight loss products, using performance-enhancing drugs, and overcharging for high-profile games and special sporting events. In essence, the foundation of responsible and ethical sport marketing is the educated, independent customer choice based on the truthful description of the product's attributes and pricing.

Media

Information, education, and entertainment are regarded to be the three main purposes of the media in a society. Regarding the link between sport and the media, it has become more obvious that both media organisations and viewers are particularly interested in professional sport due to its entertainment value. The accomplishments of leagues, teams, and players are covered by a variety of print (such as newspapers and magazines) and broadcast (such as radio, television, and the internet) media across the globe. Some of this media coverage is presented as "news,"

which simply means that media outlets cover sporting events in a manner similar to how they cover politics or global events. Nonetheless, a significant portion of broadcast coverage is given via exclusive agreements, wherein media companies pay to broadcast a particular event or season (s).

It's crucial to bear in mind that the term "media" has a wide range of connotations when trying to comprehend how the sport-media connection should be managed. When discussing the link between sports and the media, or how the media covers a specific sport or player, the term "media" may apply to the whole media sector. Depending on the context, the term "media" may also be used to describe a format, channel, platform, business, network, or station. Print, radio, television, and the internet are all examples of media formats or channels. Additionally, there are specialised publications (like La Gazzetta dello Sport, an Italian sports newspaper published since 1896), radio stations (like SEN, a sport radio station in Melbourne, Australia), television networks or stations (like ESPN, a network, or FUEL TV, a station on the FOX Sports network), and websites (such as www.si.com, the website of Sports Illustrated, owned by company Time Inc.). These sources, which are primarily privately held, hire journalists, writers, and pundits to create material in the hopes of drawing viewers and making a profit. Usually controlled by a media firm, a television network is a group of different channels that viewers may access to catch up on the day's news or watch their favourite sport. The word "platform" has more recently been used to refer to media outlets like Facebook or Twitter, where the level of engagement and user-generated material precludes their classification as media outlets comparable to a single newspaper or television station.

CHAPTER 13

MEDIA AND SPORT RELATIONS

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You learned about the three-sector model of sport—public, nonprofit, and private—in the first chapter of this book. The need of the media for all three sports to exist and thrive in modern society must be acknowledged in order to comprehend the link between sport and the media. It's crucial to recognise, however, that each industry has a distinct reason for wanting to build a connection with the media. It is crucial to examine each sector in turn in order to provide context for the remainder of the chapter and for future chapters within the book. The state's function and the justifications for its involvement were investigated. For instance, the state often tries to justify its choices and any future measures it could take while attempting to regulate or manage athletic activities. The state may want to inform its population that it has controlled a certain sport in order to protect minors, lower the number of injuries, or guarantee that corruption is eradicated. The ability of the state to successfully interact with its constituents directly is highly challenging; this is most challenging for national governments and least challenging, but still challenging, for local governments. Instead, the government looks to the media to serve as a go-between for itself and its people. Governments and government agencies also utilise the media to publicise their initiatives and elevate themselves in society, politics, and the economy. National athletic institutions often get practically all of their funding from governments, and thus effectively serve as government agencies. In order to ensure international athletic success at events like the Olympic Games and world championships, taxes collected from residents are used to fund the recruitment, instruction, coaching, housing, and care of top athletes. Since the Games or events are aired on television and extensively covered by the media, the success or failure of a nation's finest athletes is inevitably a public matter. The state and its agencies are likely to claim that they had a significant impact and that this displays their strategic and management ability if a nation's athletes do well. These assertions are made via the media in an effort to win the support of the populace of a country. The media is likely to openly criticise the performance of the elite institution and, by extension, the government and its agencies, if a country's athletes perform badly and below expectations. In these situations, the state is unwittingly dragged into a media-driven conversation on its performance.

It was noticed that the existence of nonprofit sport organisations at all levels of the sport business and landscape, which affects how they engage with the media, when the function of nonprofit sport organisations was explored. As an example, the following businesses are all nonprofits: the International Olympic Committee (IOC), which oversees the Olympic Games; New Zealand Rugby, the country's rugby union governing body, which oversees both the performance of the All Blacks and community rugby in New Zealand; Netball Queensland, the state's netball governing body in Queensland, Australia; and Hills Ultimate Frisbee, an ultimate frisbee league in Sydney's Western Suburbs, Australia. Each of these nonprofit institutions has a very distinct relationship with the media. For the privilege to broadcast the summer and winter Olympics, media companies pay the International Olympic Committee (IOC) over $3 billion

every four years. The media engages with New Zealand Rugby on a variety of levels, but arguably most importantly when it comes to covering the All Blacks, the most well-known and renowned national side in New Zealand, as well as when it comes to purchasing broadcast rights for international and Super Rugby matches. In order to promote the Queensland Firebirds, a semi-professional side in the ANZ Championship, and to encourage more people to play netball, Netball Victoria is looking for the assistance of the local media (an international netball league comprised of teams from Australia and New Zealand). In order to grow the sport of ultimate frisbee and assure the survival of its leagues and clubs, Hills Ultimate Frisbee primarily wants the assistance of the neighbourhood media. All of these instances show how, when it comes to the sorts of organisations and the links between sports and the media that are established and nurtured, the nonprofit sector is the most diverse of all the sport sectors.

Examined were the functions and pursuits of professional sports groups. Because of the scope of their operations and the fact that the athletes and staff involved with these organisations are full-time professionals, professional organisations like those that compete in the National Football League (NFL) in the USA, Formula 1 worldwide, or the English Premier League are thought to be at the pinnacle of the sport industry. These groups have close ties to the media, to the point that there is an unbreakable connection between the financial stability of major media companies and professional sports leagues and teams. Professional sports companies pay broadcast rights payments to media organisations directly, use the favourable media coverage these agreements provide to land lucrative sponsorship deals, and attempt to get as much media exposure as they can from sources not covered by exclusive rights agreements. Sport organisations have been forced to hire personnel in a range of media, public relations, and communication management responsibilities since media outlets are vying to cover professional sport organisations in order to grow their audience. These professions have become more complicated and specialised as media platforms, especially online and social, have multiplied.

It is crucial to be aware of the kind of media organisation and the type of sport organisation involved if you want to comprehend the management implications of a partnership between them. The sort of sport organisation may greatly influence the kind of sport-media connection that is negotiated or engaged into, as seen by the discussion of the three sectors of sport above. For a sport organisation, the connection could be based on achieving a monetary return on investment, building political legitimacy or market credibility, or publicising activities and events to draw in new members and boost participation. The kind of media organisations involved in the connection will also affect these objectives and results. The expectations, commitments, and advantages of any sport-media connection must be thoroughly reviewed since not all sport-media collaborations are the same.

Production Rights

Due to sport's prominence, prominent national and international broadcasters usually always compete for the rights to popular sporting events (Hoehn & Lancefield 2003). In fact, "premium" sports rights have grown to be such a valuable piece of commercial real estate that losing them may have a negative effect on a business's bottom line or, in extreme situations, bring media companies to their eventual destruction (which in some jurisdictions has led to the regulation of exclusive rights agreements with a single broadcaster). Sports and sports broadcasting rights are incredibly important national and international commodities since they possess unique qualities that are not present in other media goods. The duration of sporting events and competitions is quite short, making them ephemeral products or perishable goods (Tonazzi 2003; Sandy et al. 2004). Think about the differences between television drama shows

and sports programmes. Sport programming nearly always lasts as long as it is live because viewers are drawn to unpredictable spectacles that seem to emerge or evolve as they are watching them. Superb athletic matches and events are filled with enough drama, suspense, and passion to make viewers and pundits alike question whether a screenplay writer could have done a better job. This is especially true when games are won in the last seconds, when brave acts are carried out at great personal cost, and when sport breaks through boundaries and preconceptions related to politics, race, and geography. Contrarily, drama programmes have a long "shelf-life." Fans of popular television drama series rewatch the shows often in huge doses as part of "binge consuming." The narrative, characters, and resolution are known to customers after the first watching, yet second and third viewings are still enjoyable. This is virtually never the case with sports, except for the most ardent fans, maybe in part because there are always fresh games and events being played all over the globe. Even while individual athletic experiences are transient, the institution of sports is lasting, which attracts broadcasters greatly.

It is also exceedingly difficult for sports fans to successfully replace one product for another, which raises the value of sport broadcast rights. In other words, a spectator who wants to watch televised football games is essentially forced to use the service provided by the broadcaster that has acquired the rights. The viewer is unlikely to think that watching tennis or golf on another network is a suitable replacement. A viewer interested in viewing a criminal or legal drama, however, will probably be able to replace a range of items on a variety of networks and stations. In essence, each sport is a somewhat unique commodity, making it more valuable than a good that has many copies or imitations. The quantity of professional sport is limited, in contrast to the abundance of news and drama that is accessible to television networks in particular. Also, since there are fewer premium sport leagues and events, there is more competition to get the rights.

Sport is a highly valued and sought-after commodity for media companies due to the lack of comparable items and viewers' desire to watch games or events "as they happen." When media companies compete for sports rights, they often perceive these rights as a chance to target a particular audience or open up new areas (see the In Practice that relates to pay-per-view in this chapter, which refers specifically to the demographic of the UFC). In the ideal scenarios, premium sports programming may entice viewers to a television network, boost advertising sales, and boost the popularity and viability of non-sport network programming via affiliation and cross-promotion. The size of broadcast rights, the competition to secure them, the capacity of sport organisations to maximise their revenue through sponsorship, and the level of service that media organisations demand from their sport partners are all significantly impacted by the perception of sport as a key driver of direct and indirect revenues for media organisations.

Pay-Per-View Pain Most athletic leagues and events charge a specific fee or price to television networks or stations in exchange for the privilege to broadcast their games, matches, and tournaments. Typically, these broadcasters fall into the free-to-air or paid categories (or cable). Although pay or cable broadcasters recoup their costs via the selling of channel or package subscriptions, free-to-air broadcasters often do so through the sale of advertising. In summary, viewers may choose to watch sports for free in exchange for seeing advertising, pay a monthly or yearly subscription to watch more programming or games, or only watch sports that are shown on pay or cable networks. Yet, other sports and sporting organisations operate under a different paradigm, requiring fans to pay extra to access premium material. This strategy only works for certain sports since regular "standard" programming generates anticipation and interest for irregularly scheduled or staged "ultra-premium" programming throughout the year. Combat sports have made the best use of this pay-per-view model among all sports and organisations.

While not exactly a sport and arguably more akin to a soap opera, The World Wrestling Entertainment (WWE) has been successfully exploiting the pay-per-view model of broadcasting for decades. There are a number of weekly WWE broadcasts on various television networks and stations. While wrestlers fight to advance in the WWE "rankings," these weekly televised shows are utilised to create personalities and plotlines. The 'superstars' of the 'sport' are featured in these weekly broadcasts, which, like other sports, are based on live action in arenas and stadiums in front of a live audience. The most well-known pay-per-view event is "WrestleMania," the thirty-first installment of which took place in 2014. The weekly broadcasts also create tension and plotlines that are resolved in these events. WrestleMania is more expensive than typical pay-per-view events, which are staged virtually every month and cost US$44.95 to watch on average. The Ultimate Fighting Championship (UFC), one of the fastest growing sports in America with a global profile and brand, has embraced the pay-per-view broadcasting/financial model that has been so successful for the WWE and sports like boxing. With offices in London, Toronto, and Beijing in addition to its Las Vegas headquarters, the UFC was founded in 1993 and is now the top mixed martial arts organisation in the world. The UFC itself claims that it is the world's biggest pay-per-view provider and that it stages more than 40 live events annually. Around 150 nations and 30 different languages get UFC broadcasts. Under a seven-year broadcasting partnership with FOX Sports Media Group, the UFC finally entered the mainstream commercial and media sectors in 2011 after gradually raising its reputation and gaining popularity. By this partnership, The Ultimate Fighter, a sports reality programme, and over 30 live combat events are shown on FOX networks FX and FUEL TV. When the contract was signed, FOX chairman David Hill said it was significant because the UFC can draw male viewers between the ages of 18 and 34, a crucial market for television networks and marketers. The FOX networks' programming helps to raise interest in the UFC, which is subsequently commercialised via pay-per-view events. The cost of these pay-per-view events is determined by the quality of the bouts being shown. For UFC 168, the price was increased by US$5 to US$49.95 for regular definition and US$59.95 for high definition, respectively. Sports like UFC and boxing, where fans are willing to pay for "event television," fit the pay-per-view model perfectly. According to a 2013 ESPN report, a middleweight boxing battle between Saul "Canelo" Alvarez and Floyd Mayweather Jr., which was televised on Showtime, brought in a record-breaking US$150 million from 2.2 million pay-per-view purchases. Another Mayweather bout against Oscar De La Hoya in 2007 set the previous mark, earning US$136 million from 2.48 million pay-per-view purchases. This fight smashed that record. The only times pay-per-view events have surpassed two million buys were during these two bouts. Comparatively, UFC drawcard events regularly draw one million pay-per-view purchases, and the UFC's biggest pay-per-view transaction was reportedly 1.6 million.

Sports and the Media: Controlling the Connection

Governments all over the globe have faced a number of difficulties as a result of the interconnectedness of the sports and media sectors, and in particular the overt economic link between sport and television. Among these difficulties have been ensuring that the country's residents have appropriate access to television sports broadcasts and that media outlets and sporting organisations don't participate in practises or actions that are anti-competitive. The state regulates sport broadcasting in an effort to address the issues brought on by the often conflicting interests of viewers, broadcasters, sport organisations, and regulating bodies. Hoehn and Lancefield pointed out that governments have been forced to get involved in media merger proposals, sports-rights contract negotiations, and disputes between TV distribution systems over access to content due to the preeminent position of sports programming in a channel's offering and as a key driver of a TV delivery/distribution platform.

This government action has had a big influence on how sport is aired, how much sport viewers can watch on free-to-air (network) television, how sport organisations may sell broadcast rights, and in certain well-known examples, how sports teams are owned. Governments often struggle to implement regulatory frameworks that sufficiently satisfy their policy goals and let the market to operate as efficiently as possible due to the media industry's constantly evolving complexity and variety. Because of its unique characteristics, including its significant audience appeal, fierce competition between broadcasters, relatively low production costs, and a web of promotion between various media, the sport media landscape is frequently seen as a separate part of the much larger media landscape (modes and relationship to the sport). Government attempts to regulate the interaction between sport and broadcast media in four key areas as a consequence of the significance of sport to both the contemporary media business and consumers. The first goal of government regulation is to stop sports broadcast rights from moving entirely from free-to-air television to paid or subscription television. In order to prevent sports and media companies from acting in an anti-competitive manner while purchasing and selling these broadcast rights, governments have adopted regulatory regulations. Such actions may result in the formation of monopolies, which will inevitably limit supply and increase prices to a point where customers will be taken advantage of. Finally, countries have regulations that forbid some forms of advertising, including cigarette advertising, from being linked to sports programming.

Last but not least, government regulation aims to curtail or avert any unfavourable effects of the vertical integration of the sports and media sectors, such as the acquisition of a sports club or league by a media company. The main focus of government regulation has been to stop the transition of premium sports programming from free-to-air (network) to pay (cable) television. The general public could receive sport through commercial free-to-air broadcasters and, in certain cases, via public broadcasters financed by the state before the advent of subscription and pay-per-view television. Sports have a cultural and social significance that needs to be protected, according to supporters of maintaining the current system, in which consumers have free access to major sporting competitions and events. They also claim that as sports move to pay or cable television, fewer people will have access to them because of the high cost to the consumer. Depending on the national and regional situations, governments' reactions have varied. Since no one corporation or network in the USA can afford to purchase the exclusive rights, and because the league benefits financially by segmenting the rights among free-to-air, pay, and satellite providers, there hasn't been a lot of government regulation needed for big sports like the NFL (for more information on the NFL and its broadcast rights, see the Case Study within this chapter). According to the European Commission, significant societal events like the Olympic Games, the European Football Championship, and the FIFA World Cup should not only be aired on pay television. As a result, regulations have been put in place to prevent this from happening. The national government regulated in favour of the commercial free-to-air networks in smaller countries like Australia, where there were few commercial free-to-air television networks and a strong perceived threat from pay television providers. To safeguard the interests of its people, the government put pay television companies at a competitive disadvantage by ensuring that free-to-air broadcasters basically had first access to the rights to key sports and events. Since that sports is one of the main factors driving the market adoption of pay television, this presented unique difficulties for pay television providers.

A position of increasing significance

Knute Rockne, the head football coach at Notre Dame, irrevocably changed how sports and the media interacted in 1919. Rockne hired journalist Archie Ward as a "press agent" with the

responsibility of serving as an "official correspondent" for Rockne's football team after becoming dissatisfied with the coverage his college football programme was receiving in the neighbourhood newspaper. In the modern sports and media scene, Ward's ability to set the agenda for press coverage seems totally acceptable, but in the early part of the 20th century, it was a novel approach to media management. Ward is regarded as the first sports public relations professional as a result (Stoldt 2013). By hiring personnel in "press offices," professional leagues in the USA quickly adopted the Rockne model of media management and control. Once sport became commercialised in the 1970s and 1980s, the job of the sport media practitioner or manager took a while to emerge, but by the turn of the century, media relations and media management had become established departments inside the biggest athletic leagues and clubs worldwide. By the beginning of the twenty-first century, sport organisations employed personnel in media management, media relations, or sport communications to make it as simple as possible for the media to cover their sport. Specifically, this involved facilitating access to athletes, coaches, and administrators through interviews and press conferences as well as by providing media releases, media guides, and other information to support sport journalists and commentators in their work.

The position of media and communications managers inside sport organisations has altered as a result of the development of the internet, the emergence of social media, and the desire of sport organisations to adopt a more strategic approach to establishing and defining the sports media news agenda. Many professional sports leagues and clubs have notably seen this trend. Prior to now, these groups were focused on enabling as much media attention as they could, in as many different media sources as were willing to cover them. The popularity of social media sites like Facebook and Twitter has made "citizen journalism" far more common; anybody with a smartphone and access to the internet may start their own personal "broadcast" of news. Since 'official' media channels now make up a very tiny fraction of the overall coverage, sport organisations no longer have as much influence as they formerly did. This is made worse by the fact that athletes use social media to raise their visibility and increase their chances of finding sponsors. As a consequence, as sport organisations work to safeguard their reputation, brand, and standing, the function of the sport media manager is becoming more difficult and significant.

National Football League broadcasting privileges

The National Football League (NFL) is one of the most well-known athletic brands in the world and the top professional football league in North America. The National Football Conference (NFC) and the American Football Conference (AFC) both have 32 clubs (AFC). These teams include some of the most expensive in the whole globe. Four NFL teams were among the top ten most valuable sports franchises in the world in 2014, according to Forbes magazine. The Dallas Cowboys were ranked fifth (estimated value: US$2.3 billion), followed by the New England Patriots in eighth place (estimated value: US$1.8 billion), the Washington Redskins in ninth place (US$1.7 billion), and the New York Giants in tenth place (US$1.55 billion). Thirty of the top 50 clubs were from the NFL, while another 19 teams were assessed to be worth at least US$1 billion. The remaining 20 clubs were mostly from Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Basketball Association, and European football (soccer) leagues (NBA). The NFL is without a doubt the wealthiest athletic league in the world, and the most profitable for owners and players in particular. 30 of the 32 clubs in the NFL are included among the world's most valuable 50 teams, and the average value of an NFL franchise is almost US$1.2 billion. The NFL's financial success is supported by the biggest television broadcast rights agreements in the world, which it has with FOX, NBC, CBS, ESPN, and DirecTV. For a record-breaking US$28 billion over nine years, the NFL agreed to record broadcast rights deals with

FOX, NBC, and CBS in late 2011. These agreements went into effect following the 2013 NFL season. As comparison to the US$1.9 billion a year paid by these networks for the prior arrangement, the contract was worth an average of US$3.1 billion annually. At the same time, the NFL and ESPN agreed to a contract worth $1.9 billion annually, a significant increase over the previous deal's US$1.1 billion value. Also, the NFL and DirecTV have a rights deal worth US$1 billion yearly. The NFL receives around US$6 billion a year in total from television broadcast contracts.

The final decades of the 20th century, in particular, saw a huge growth in the NFL's broadcast rights earnings (Vrooman 2012). The NFL inked a series of four-year deals with ABC, CBS, and NBC in the 1970s that were valued US$188 million, US$218 million, and US$646 million, respectively. The NFL signed deals worth US$2,100 million (5 years) and US$1,428 million (3 years) with the same broadcasters in the 1980s, but it wasn't until the 1990s, when cable television providers ESPN and TBS, in addition to free-to-air networks ABC, CBS, NBC, and newcomer FOX, became more significant players, that broadcast rights started to rise exponentially. From 1990 to 1993, broadcast rights revenues totaled US$3,600 million; from 1994 to 1997, they rose to US$4,388 million; and from 1998 to 2005, they reached US$19,600 million. This last agreement included US$600 million from ESPN, US$550 million from ABC and FOX, US$500 million from CBS, and US$400 million from satellite television provider DirecTV. The NFL's annual broadcast rights income climbed 86-fold during a 40-year span, from US$47 million in 1970 to US$4,065 million in 2012. Some significant non-sport reasons contributed to the NFL's ability to obtain such big broadcast rights deals. First, the USA has the greatest economy in the world, with a gross domestic product over twice as large as China's, the second-largest economy in the world, and almost as large as the whole European Union. Second, the USA has exceptionally high household and per-capita incomes (which is connected to the first point). The median household income in the USA was estimated by Gallup to be US$43,585, placing it fifth among all countries (with at least 2,000 responses) after Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden, and Australia. The median per-capita income was US$15,480, placing it sixth among all countries, with four Scandinavian nations ranking first through fifth. In the USA, compared to other nations in the globe, there is a greater capacity for discretionary expenditure, which increases the availability of commercial items associated to and via sport and the media.

Third, the USA is one of the biggest nations in the world in terms of both people and area. With more than 300 million people, the USA ranks third in population size after giants China and India. Due to this, the country has several important population and economic centres spread out throughout it. The NFL has been able to maintain the value of its broadcast rights in an increasingly cutthroat domestic and international professional sport market due to a variety of sport-related variables. The most crucial of these is that the NFL has been able to segment its media offering, which has happened partly due to design and wise management and partly because no one broadcaster can afford to buy the whole NFL rights package. The NFL season consists of a regular season that lasts 17 weeks and includes 16 games for each club. Games are normally played on Sundays, and depending on where the spectator is situated and the time difference, the game that is aired on local television may start at 1:00pm or between 4:00pm and 4:30pm. A number of nationally televised games are also shown on Thursday night, Sunday night, and Monday night in addition to the Sunday regional games. There is no competition for these games, and depending on the day of the week, the game is televised live throughout the Nation on a cable or free-to-air network. For instance, the Green Bay Packers faced the Seattle Seahawks on Thursday night at 8:30 p.m. Eastern Time during the opening week of the 2014 season. One of the free-to-air networks, NBC, carried the coverage of this game. Ten games were played on Sunday at 1:00 p.m. Eastern Time, four of which were aired

by FOX and six by CBS. At 4:25 p.m. on Sunday, two extra games were played, both of which were aired on FOX. Similar to the Thursday night game, only NBC televised the sole game on Sunday night at 8:30 p.m. Eastern Time between the Indianapolis Colts and the Denver Broncos. Two games were played on "Monday Night Football," a popular American television programme, the first featuring the New York Giants and Detroit Lions at 7:10 p.m. ET and the second featuring the San Diego Chargers and St. Louis Cardinals at 10:20 p.m ET. Both of these Monday night games were shown on the cable network ESPN. There is often just one Monday night game played each week of the season. The NFL reserves the right, in consultation with the broadcasters, to switch one of the Sunday afternoon games to Sunday night in the second half of the season, depending on how teams are doing. In addition to its agreements with NBC, CBS, and ESPN, the NFL also has a deal with satellite broadcaster DirecTV. Via its "NFL Sunday Ticket" subscription plan, fans may watch all regional Sunday afternoon games, rather than just those that are televised in their immediate area.

Sports administration

Organizational governance is concerned with how authority is used inside organisations and offers the framework for managing and directing their constituent parts. All organisations, including nations, businesses, communities, organisations, and sports leagues, need governance in order to operate well. An organisational governance structure serves to "create a degree of trust that is essential for the effective functioning of a market economy" in addition to providing a framework within which companies' operations are directed and managed. Instead than focusing on daily operational management decision-making, governance addresses questions of policy and direction for improving organisational performance.

When he said that "if management is about running business, governance is about ensuring that it is done effectively," it brought attention to the significance of governance and its associated impact on organisational success (p. 7). 'The structures and procedures used by an organisation to set its strategic objectives and direction, assess its performance against these goals, and ensure that its board acts in the best interests of the members,' according to the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), is how governance is defined (ASC 2004). Effective monitoring of the procedures used to achieve these aims is a key component of good organisational governance, which should be pursued by the board of directors and management.

Governing of Corporations and Nonprofits

The literature on organisational governance can be broadly categorised into two categories: (1) corporate governance, which deals with the governance of for-profit businesses and corporations with a focus on maintaining and enhancing shareholder value, and (2) non-profit governance, which is concerned with the governance of nonprofit organisations that aim to serve the community or encourage participation in social, cultural, or athletic activities. The literature in this area concentrates on the board's two main responsibilities: first, guaranteeing management conformity; and second, improving organisational performance. Conformance is concerned with the procedures for the board's oversight and monitoring of managers' performance as well as making sure that sufficient accountability mechanisms are in place to safeguard the interests of shareholders. The formulation of strategy and policy to establish the direction and environment in which managers will operate is the main emphasis of improving organisational performance.

Nonprofit organisations must have a different governance structure than corporate firms because of their distinctive qualities. Nonprofit organisations often include more stakeholders in their decision-making structures and procedures than profit-seeking corporations do since

they operate for different purposes. So, the governance system will be different from that seen in the corporate sector in terms of the interactions between decision-makers. While the management techniques used by the companies to complete their responsibilities may be comparable, the governing structures of nonprofit and business organisations vary fundamentally. The bulk of sports organisations that provide possibilities for participation and competition are nonprofit, despite the fact that many sports organisations including major athletic goods manufacturers, athlete management agencies, retail businesses, and stadiums might be categorised as profit-seeking. Large clubs, local leagues or associations, state or provincial governing bodies, and international sports federations are some of these organisations. It offers a distinctive account of the development of corporate governance ideas. Agency theory, stewardship theory, institutional theory, resource dependency theory, network theory, and stakeholder theory are a few of the significant ideas used to examine organisational governance. Each of them will be looked at in turn in this part, and their applicability to comprehending the governance of sporting organisations will be determined. According to agency theory, decisions pertaining to an organization's management should be made with the interests of its shareholders in mind. In order to lessen the likelihood of poor management or other behaviour that jeopardises the interests of shareholders, managers (agents) who have been chosen to lead the firm should be subject to rigorous checks and balances. In order to give some assurance that managers will seek outcomes that maximise shareholder wealth and minimise risk, this has been the dominant theoretical approach to the study of corporate governance. It has focused on exploring the best ways to maximise corporate control of managerial actions, information for shareholders, and labour. This theory serves to explain how governance systems function in the context of firms that operate in the sports sector and include private, institutional, and governmental shareholders. Agency theory has little relevance for the vast majority of nonprofit sports organisations, which include a variety of stakeholders that do not financially participate in the organisation (apart from yearly membership payments).

In contrast to agency theory, stewardship theory asserts that managers are driven by other ideas such as a desire for success, responsibility, recognition, and respect for authority rather than acting as autonomous agents to maximise their own interests above those of shareholders. Stewardship theory contends that managers (agents) will behave in shareholders' best interests and that managers' and shareholders' interests are truly linked. Sporting organisations like Nike, Fox Sports, or a listed professional football club franchise may likewise be considered from this theoretical perspective. The managers' decisions to operate as agents or stewards and the shareholders' perspective will determine whether agency theory or stewardship theory is used (who create either an agent or stewardship relationship through their conscious choice of governance framework). In the study of nonprofit sport organisations, where managers may have a connection to the sport as a former player, coach, or club official and therefore have a deeper sense of commitment to the organisation and are more likely to act as stewards, stewardship theory may be more applicable than agency theory. Theories of agency and stewardship concentrate on the internal control problems in governance. Institutional theory, resource dependency theory, and network theory are three theories that aim to describe how organisations interact with other organisations and get limited resources. According to institutional theory, firms' governance frameworks are a consequence of their abiding by external demands of what is considered a good business practise, such as the regulations for incorporation. Such constraints reflect broader public concerns about the use of effective governance mechanisms. Moreover, institutional isomorphism, which is when companies of a similar kind and size adopt extremely similar governance systems, is likely to occur if they attempt to adhere to these constraints. This is shown by the fact that most national and state or provincial athletic organisations function under very similar governance structures, as is the

case with club-based sporting systems seen in countries like Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. According to the resource dependency hypothesis, we need to understand how organisations interact with their environment in order to comprehend their behaviour. Via interorganizational agreements, which need some sacrifice of flexibility and autonomy in return for gaining influence over other organisations, organisations paradoxically want stability and predictability in their resource transfers. These interorganizational agreements might take the shape of mergers, joint ventures, co-optation (the inclusion of outsiders in an organization's leadership and decision-making processes), expansion, political participation, or limiting the dissemination of information (Pfeffer & Salancik 1978). The governance structure chosen, the level of stakeholder involvement, and the openness of decision-making are all impacted by these agreements.

Network theory is the last theory that tries to explain aspects of governance based on how organisations interact with other organisations. According to network theory, in addition to strictly legal contracts, organisations also engage into socially binding contracts to provide services. Such agreements encourage the growth of informal contact and the transfer of resources between organisations while also fostering some degree of interdependence between them. This is especially true for sports organisations that, for instance, depend on personal connections to get support from well-known players, use many volunteers from different sports organisations, and rely on government funding for stadium expansion or event bidding. The evolution of governance procedures and structures, especially those relating to the board of sports organisations, may be better understood using network theory. These three theories stress the need of looking at governance in terms of the outside influences that organisations must deal with and the plans, structures, and procedures they implement to deal with them. In contrast to agency and stewardship theories, this approach provides a more realistic understanding of how and why companies have a certain governance architecture.

Stakeholder theory offers a different viewpoint for looking at how companies and their stakeholders interact. It makes the case for thinking of a company as a collection of connections and obligations that the governance system has to take into consideration. This has significant ramifications for businesses that are concerned with doing the right thing by their stakeholders, and it has particular relevance for sports organisations that must manage a variety of relationships with sponsors, funding sources, members, affiliated organisations, staff, board members, venues, government agencies, and suppliers. Research and literature on organisational governance have focused more on for-profit businesses than nonprofit ones. The kind and industrial environment of the sport organisation under investigation must be taken into consideration when applying a specific theory to the study of sport organisations. Many aspects of sport organisations' governance structures impede the creation of a comprehensive theory of sport governance. The theories discussed here are valuable because each one may be utilised to provide light on the governance assumptions, procedures, structures, and results for sport organisations.

Physical sports competitions are pursued for the objectives and difficulties they provide. Sports are a component of all cultures, both ancient and modern, yet each culture defines sports differently. The definitions that make clear how sports relate to play, games, and competitions are the most helpful. The German thinker Carl Diem defined play as purposeless activity done for one's own sake, the antithesis of labor. Humans must work, but they also play because they like it. Play is autotelic, meaning that it has its own objectives. It is uncorked and voluntary. Children that refuse to play football (soccer) when ordered to by their parents or instructors are not really participating in a sport. If their primary motive is money, professional athletes aren't either. Practically speaking, reasons are usually contradictory and frequently difficult to

ascertain in the actual world. However, a clear definition is necessary before making any practical judgments about what constitutes play and what does not. There are two different kinds of play. The first is unrestrained and spontaneous. There are several examples. A little youngster picks up a flat stone and sends it bouncing over a pond's surface after seeing it. An adult who has accidentally made a pun laughs at himself. Both actions are at least somewhat unconstrained and none is deliberate.

Play in the second category is controlled. There are guidelines that specify what behaviors are acceptable and what behaviors are not. These regulations turn unstructured play into games, which are referred to as regulated or rule-bound play. Leapfrog, chess, "playing dress up," and basketball are all games, some with very straightforward rules and others with somewhat more complicated ones. In reality, rulebooks for sports like basketball may run into hundreds of pages. Chess and basketball were unquestionably different games from playing house and leapfrog. While the second two games are not competitive, the first two are. It is possible to win a game of basketball, although it is absurd to inquire as to who the winner of a leapfrog match is. So chess and basketball are competitions. Contests are divided into two categories: those that need at least a minimal level of physical talent and those that do not. The first may be illustrated by shuffleboard, and the second by the board games Scrabble and Monopoly. Of course, it must be remembered that even the most basic sports, like weightlifting, call for a little level of mental work, but others, like baseball, call for a significant degree of mental focus. Moreover, it must be acknowledged that shuffleboard doesn't even come close to measuring up to the games that have most stoked spectators' and players' passions for humanity. Sports stars throughout history have shown incredible power, speed, stamina, persistence, and skill.

Classification of Sports

This categorization of sports has been created to enable an essential issue to be answered: Is it sufficiently safe to suggest that a competitor with a certain circulatory problem be allowed to participate in a given competitive sport. You are aware that evaluations of cardiovascular disease are imperfect, subject to change over time, and affected by exercise training. Additionally, the nature of the risk involved has characteristics that might endanger life. These facts have been sought to be included into the categorization scheme. Sports may be categorized based on the kind and level of activity they need, as well as the risk of physical harm from collisions and the effects of syncope. There are two main categories of exercise: dynamic (isotonic) and static (isometric) (3–6). Static exercise includes production of a relatively high intramuscular force with minimal or no change either muscle length or joint movement. Dynamic exercise involves variations in muscle length including joint movement alongside rhythmic contractions which create a relatively modest intramuscular force. These two forms of exercise should be considered to be the two ends of a continuum, with the majority of physical activities including both dynamic and static elements. For instance, water skiing mostly has high static and low dynamic needs, whereas distance running primarily has low static and high dynamic requirements. Rowing primarily does have high static and dynamic demands. Different from the words aerobic and anaerobic exercise, these terms static and dynamic exercise describe activity based on the mechanical action of a muscle groups. The latter describe activity according to the kind of muscle metabolism. High-intensity dynamic exercise spanning more than a few minutes is completed aerobically, while the majority of high-intensity static workout is accomplished anaerobically. But other dynamic workouts, like running or leaping, are mostly done anaerobically. Thus, a lot of sports—including varied ones like cross-country skiing, distance running, soccer, and squash—are classified as high dynamic. Weightlifting, gymnastics, especially field events are examples of sports that feature either a

prolonged static component or a particularly high resistance dynamic element. Because these sports have comparable cardiovascular demands, they are grouped together as high-intensity static training.

Individual Game

So either like sports or you were the one who hid in the dressing room during physical education class. Some sports are solitary contests in which a single athlete participates. Other sports are dual sports, in which a team of two competitors competes against another team of two athletes or against each other. Both of these are different from team sports, which involve bigger teams of athletes competing against smaller teams of athletes on the opposing team. Sports that don't involve team participation are referred to as individual sports. The athlete is the only one accountable for bringing home the victory; they are on their own. Even while individual sports might be very competitive, the athlete also faces rivalry inside. In order to acquire the abilities required to advance in an activity, practicing a sport alone calls for a lot of motivation. Self-discipline and mental attention are two additional primary advantages of individual sports, in addition to learning new abilities (Figure 13.1). In charge of achieving their objective, and the more you practice, stronger it will become. It might be difficult to drive yourself to keep getting better when you're just holding yourself accountable, which is a major drawback of individual sports. If people take contests seriously and lose, alone are responsible.
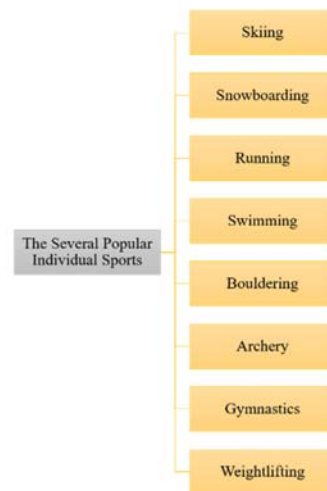

Figure 13.1: Illustrates the some of the popular individual sports.

Partner Sports

It's always great to support your team or a particular player, but it may also be beneficial to have a basic grasp of how the game is played and scored. Let's examine a number of dual sports. Tennis is a popular example of a dual sport in which one player serves a ball with a racquet over a low net whereas the other player tries to return the ball over the net. When a serve is not returned in tennis, points are awarded. Tennis may be played singles-style, where one player plays another, or doubles, when two players play another person. The dual sport of racquetball is another. There isn't a net in this game, unlike tennis. Instead, the server bounces the ball off the other team's wall, forcing the other team to attempt to return the ball by striking it once more on the wall. Points in racquetball may only be given to the server. Racquetball may be played solo or doubles, much like tennis. The last dual sport that we'll talk about is wrestling, which featured two wrestlers battling it out for points. However, the wrestling scoring structure is intricate. When a wrestler successfully pins both his and her opponent's shoulders towards

the mat while displaying control, it is known as a fall or pin. The maximum number of points—six—is given for this. One point is awarded for escaping the opponent, while two points are awarded for reversing control. Whenever the opponent wins by 8–14 points, the fight is referred to be a significant decision. The play is interrupted and the victory is recorded as a technical fall, which is worth five points, if the opponent is leading by 15 points. The total team score is calculated using all of the points earned in each match. Students will have the chance to learn and develop basic and advanced strategies and competencies inside the individual and partner athletics category in addition to fitness concepts and conditioning strategies was using to achieve and maintain optimal physical fitness through the PE 9/Individual but rather Partner Sports Curriculum. Comprehensive individual partner sports activities and cardio-respiratory exercises would be beneficial to the students. The ability to make healthy decisions, cultivate good attitudes in team activities, and engage in movement activities for lifelong fitness will be given to the students. The course material is based on a variety of sports. Students will learn personal and societal responsibility, skill, technique, and norms; Project Adventure, Disc Golf, Backyard Games, Tennis, Table Tennis, Badminton, Running, and Conditioning and Strength Training, and Pickle ball.

CHAPTER 14

CLASSIFICATION OF TEAM SPORTS

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Any activity in which two or more individuals cooperate to compete against one another in pursuit of an overarching objective is a team sport. The most popular team sports inside the world are hockey, football, volleyball, and basketball, in which participants cooperate to move a ball in order to earn points while according to the sport's specified regulations. Team sports foster physical and mental fortitude, as well as cooperation to achieve the goal at hand, and involve thorough game preparation from coaches and team members. This is a difficult task that calls for everyone's cooperation and practice. People all throughout the globe who participate in team sports learn how to be patient, persistent, and sociable. Intermittent high-intensity behaviour patterns are a typical element of team sports, although there is significant variation in game features across sports, between locations and playing styles within a single sport, and from one game to the next. For athletes in team sports, this results in a variety of physiological issues and dietary requirements. Obtaining an ideal body composition, the philosophy of nutritional needs for training, strategies for having to meet fluid and fuel requirements during competition, and the advantages of supplements and ergogenic aids for team sports are indeed the four main areas in which nutrition could indeed optimize performance in team sports. The majority of team sports, particularly basketball, football, hockey, rugby, and volleyball, may be characterized as moderate- to long-duration exercise that alternates between repeated bouts of high-intensity action and short-to-moderate rest or active recovery periods. From a physiological standpoint, team sports are distinguished by the moderate to long distances the players cover during match play (for example, 8–12 km in American football), as well as the varied activity pattern (for instance, more than 800 activity modifications per football match, which include walking, jogging, cruising, running fast, backing, jumping, tackling, and heading). The capacity of players to execute numerous sprints with little rest periods in between is a key factor in determining success in intermittent team sports. The physiological needs for team sports are heavily influenced by this activity pattern. These needs include not just a strong aerobic capacity but also a high glycolytic capability and a well-functioning phosphocreatine breakdown/resynthesize mechanism, as demonstrated by physiological tests performed during match play.

There are certain similar features in team sports' physical needs, despite the fact that they differ across and within sports. Players with a lighter and leaner build often benefit from playing a quick and nimble game and covering large distances during a match. Team sport participants often do not have body fat percentages that are as low as those of endurance athletes like runners and cyclists. Observations in professional team sports, however, have shown new levels of body composition among "midfield" players and a decrease in overall body fat levels among players. Although in this situation it may be motivated more by aesthetic interests than by performance aims, the obligation to wear Lycra bodysuit costumes during certain women's team events has also led to an increase throughout interest among team members in body fat removal. Many athletes who strength train adopt dietary regimens that emphasize protein

consumption and the use of putative muscle-building supplements. The most effective feeding tactics after a session of resistance exercise have been the subject of recent study employing tracer technology. Numerous studies have shown that after resistance training with the consumption of protein that is high quality throughout terms of its concentration of essential amino acids and quickly absorbed, the maximum protein synthesis reaction is generated. Contrary to popular opinion, high quality protein consumption of 20–25 g was sufficient to produce the maximum synthetic response to a training session, which contradicts the notion that substantial protein intake is required for gains from resistance exercise. In fact, intakes over threshold were linked to increased protein oxidation.

Supplements and Sports Foods for Team Sports

Team sport players, like the majority of athletes, are often curious in the possible ergogenic advantage that may be obtained via the use of specialized supplements. These goods are condensed. Given that its alleged ergogenic effect (i.e., increased recovery of the phosphocreatine power system) fits the activity profile of team sports, creatine is the ergogenic substance that has been studied the most in connection to team sports. Numerous studies suggest that both acute and chronic creatine supplementation can help team athletes perform better during practice and play. The use of caffeine has also been found to improve team sport performance through improving passing accuracy, speed, power, and intermittent sprinting ability. However, the literature is full with contradictory findings. Inducing metabolic alkalosis by the consumption of bicarbonate to lessen fatigue during competing or to improve responses to training is another dietary supplement with a potential but as-yet-unknown ergogenic benefit for team sport performance. - Further research must be conducted utilizing methods appropriate for team sports to determine if alanine supplementation, which increases muscle storage of the intracellular buffer phosphocreatine, has any positive effects. There is contradictory research on the benefits of colostrum supplementation for healing and treating sickness, but one study found that taking it for eight weeks helped hockey players perform better in sprint events.

Nature and Rules for Sports

Participants in competitive physical activity who have complicated physical talents and are driven to perform are regulated by institutions, rules, and regulations. Sport refers to a variety of distinct activities that include competition and need for both physical preparation and technical expertise. The phrase "it is an organized physical activity, often competitive, that needs complicated abilities and a high degree of individual dedication and drive" might be a decent way to describe it. Let's examine what this implies: Physical activity that is organized and has a set framework. Every sport has governing organizations that establish regulations and plan competitions. It also requires some kind of physical training. All sports include some kind of competition, whether between individuals or teams. Requires sophisticated talents, which must be taught in order to become a performer. Prior to developing more complicated talents, basic skills need to be taught. High degree of personal dedication and drive is required; great athletes reach their positions by working hard for many years and often making sacrifices. Naturally, this results in incentives, such as victories, a feeling of accomplishment, cash prizes, or wages, which make all the effort worthwhile. Sport has served a range of significant social roles throughout history, including leisure, training for battle or the hunt, and, more recently, as a deterrent to conflict. Many sports, like wrestling, have a long history and have been adopted from other activities. With so many diverse activities available today, defining what a sport is becomes quite challenging. However, there are a handful of traits that all sports have in common.

Rules for football

One of the most popular sports in North America is American football. Even though the sport is practiced all over the world, North American professional leagues (like the NFL) readily draw the top players from across the globe, making their leagues the most intensely competitive. The Super Bowl, which is watched by millions of people worldwide each year, represents the sport's peak.

Object of the Game

In American football, the goal is to outscore your opponents in the allowed time. In order to do this, they must advance the ball down the field in successive phases of play until finally putting it in the "end zone" for a touchdown. You may do this by either passing the ball to a teammate or jogging while carrying it. Each side has four opportunities (downs) to advance the ball ten yards. Once they have gone the additional 10 yards, their downs are reset, and they re-start. The ball will be handed over to the defensive team when 4 downs have gone and they have not gained the necessary 10 yards.

Players & Equipment

In reality, an American football team consists of 45 players even though there are only 11 players out of each side on the field at any one time. The teams are typically divided into three groups: the offensive (typically composed of smaller, stronger, and faster performers, including one with a quarterback who is said to run the offensive plays and pass to teammates), the defensive (comprised of larger, more powerful people who really are intended to stop players from running), as well as the special teams (responsible for the kicking and punting side of the game with a mixture of larger and faster players). Typically, an American football pitch is 60 yards wide & 100 yards long. To mark how many yards each team needs to go until they reach the end zone, lines are painted on the field every ten yards. At either end of the field, end zones were added and measure around 20 yards apiece. Additionally, there are posts at either end of the field, upon which the kicker passes the ball.

Scoring

A player's team is given six points when they score a touchdown. Either carrying the ball into the end zone or receiving it after a throw while there are two ways to score a touchdown. The attacking team gets the chance to kick the ball for an additional point following a touchdown. For a kick to be successful, the ball must go between the upright posts. A successful field goal kick will lead to three points and may be made from any point on the field at any moment (often on the last down). When a defensive team successfully tackles an offensive opponent within their own end zone, they score a safety, which is worth two points.

Winning the Game

The victor of the game will be the side with the most points there at conclusion of the contest. The teams will play an extra quarter until a winner is determined in overtime if the scores are tied.

Rules of American Football

There are four 15-minute quarters in each game. Between the first and second and third and fourth quarters, there are two minute breaks, while the second and third quarters have a fifteen minute break (half time).

Each side gets four opportunities to gain 10 yards or more. To gain yards, they may either toss or run with the ball. The downs and yardage are reset as soon as the team accumulates the necessary yards. A turnover will occur if the yardage is not made after four downs.

Players may run any one of hundreds of different plays on any down. The teams create the plays, which often include players racing about (routes) in what is effectively organized pandemonium. The offensive team's head coach or starting quarterback calls the plays just on field, while the defensive team's defensive captain calls football plays.

Each game begins with a coin toss to determine which team will get the ball first and where they will start on the field.

The kickoff, in which one team punts football ball down field for the opposing team to run back with as far as they can, starts the game.

The offense has two options on fourth down: attempt to gain the lost yardage or punt the ball. If they choose to kick, they may either attempt a field goal or punt. Typically, a player's location on the field will determine how they play. Anywhere that is around 40 yards from the goal posts of the opponent will result inside a field goal attempt. The punt option will probably be used if they are farther behind.

Archery Rules

It is believed that archery, or the use of a strung bow to fire arrows at a target, dates back thousands of years, maybe even to the Stone Age of 20,000 BC. Throughout the centuries, many different peoples have utilized bows and arrows for hunting and combat. Archery was used extensively by everyone from the ancient Egyptians towards the Shang dynasty of China (1766–1027 BC), Attila the Hun's armies to the illustrious civilizations of the Assyrians, Persians, and Pathians. The necessity to learn archery, for both hunters and warriors, ultimately led to practice, which then in turn led towards organized tournaments. The first one, with 3000 players, was held in Finsbury, England, in 1583. Archery was less effective on the battlefield as a result of the invention of weapons, but it was still a popular recreation, and tournaments were regularly conducted in many nations. One of the early Olympic sports for female contestants, archery was initially introduced in 1900 both men and 1904 and women. It was later added in 1908 and 1920, dropped for a few decades, and then reinstated in 1972. Since then, archery has been a staple of the Olympics. It is considered a shot when an arrow falls from a bow and cannot be recovered by the bow from the firing line. Only six arrows may well be fired at the chosen target; if more than six were fired, just the lowest six are tallied; and any arrow fired at a target other than the authorized one is not eligible for scoring.

Object of the Game

Competitive archery, or the act of shooting arrows at targets, has many different forms, but they all attempt to get the shooter's arrows as near to the target's center as possible. The Olympic competition involves shooting at a target from such a distance of 70 meters, and the rounds have included a ranking round in which the athletes are ranked according to their total scores before a structure of head-to-head elimination.

Players & Equipment

There are both solo and team tournaments, albeit obviously only one archer is holding a bow at one. The World Archery Federation (WA) defines a bow as "an instrument consisting of a handle (grip), riser (no shoot-through type), and two flexible limbs culminating in a tip with a string nock" for archers. In addition to an adjustable arrow rest as well as a bow sight, the

bowstring may have as many strands as it needs to accommodate the bow. There are few restrictions on the kinds of arrows that may be used, except from those that can harm targets excessively. However, the maximum diameter of a arrow shaft as well as the diameter of a arrow tips really shouldn't both be more than 9.3mm and 9.4mm, respectively. All arrows utilized by a competitor in a certain round (or "end") should be the same and should include that competitor's name or monogram on the shaft. It is possible to utilize arm guards, chest protection, and other additions that are purely protective or comfort-enhancing, including such tape or gloves providing finger protection. The size of the target itself varies; those used during Olympic archery competitions are 122 cm in diameter; nevertheless, every target has 10 concentric rings, which stand in for the various scoring sectors. White makes up the first and second outermost rings, black makes up the third and fourth, blue makes up the fifth and sixth, red makes up the seventh and eighth, and gold makes up the ninth and tenth innermost rings. There is an additional inner ring known as the "inner 10" or "X ring" in the ten ring that is occasionally used to break ties.

Scoring

In order to score in archery, simply just total up the points depending on where your arrows land on the target. When an arrow hits the inner gold ring, it receives a score of 10, but when it hits the outside white ring, it receives a score of 1. Arrows that completely miss their target do not get any points. Athletes fire 72 arrows in 12 states throughout the Olympic tournament, and their placement is determined by their aggregate cumulative score. They then engage in a head-to-head knockout match in which they must simply outscore their rival. The format of competitions, the quantity of arrows contestants must use, and the range to the target varies.

Winning the Game

As stated, it would depend on the particulars of the competition in which the archer is participating, but in an archery competition, the victor is either the person with the highest cumulative total score after just a predetermined number of arrows, or the one who has defeated every opponent faced in a knockout format. When scores are tied, the archer who has the most 10s (including inside 10s) is deemed the winner. If both numbers are equal, the person with the highest percentage of inner 10s wins. A shoot-off may be used as an alternative, or thereafter, to separate the contestants who have deadlocked.

Rules of Archery

Archers must abide by all official regulations regarding the gear they use to compete in their sport, with both the major focus being on them utilizing no gear or extras that would offer an opponent an unfair advantage.

An end of three arrows may be shot for a maximal of two minutes, and an end of six arrows may be shot for a maximum of four minutes. When the signal to begin is given, athletes may not lift their bow arm. If the bow is pulled after the formal practice has ended, penalties may be imposed, including the loss of points. Under no circumstances is an arrow re-shottable. If the target blows up or collapses, the arrow may not be deemed to have been fired if it falls from the bow or malfunctions. In such cases, further time would be granted.

An arrow will still be scored depending on the mark it leaves on the target face even if it bounces back or hangs off the target. Robin Hood-style arrows that lodge themselves in another's nock will be scored at the same rate as the original arrow. Depending on the seriousness of the infraction, athletes might be disqualified, have points taken away from their score, or have their participation in competitions prohibited.

The court will have discretion over whether to grant time extensions if equipment has to be replaced or repaired due to damage.

Arm Wrestling Rules

Without a doubt, arm wrestling has been practiced for thousands of years and is well-liked all around the globe. Two person's clasp each other's hands while standing at or sitting down at a table in this arm-to-arm strength test. Their elbows are then placed on the table. They then attempt to pin their opponent's arm to the table's top (or touch pad). Becoming a competitive arm wrestler requires not just physical strength but also a lot of technique and psychological toughness. The World Arm Wrestling Federation, which among other things oversees the Arm Wrestling World Championships and whose regulations are followed, is the major arm wrestling organization in the world. Nevertheless, despite not being globally standardized. Number of scholars and federations have fairly similar regulations for arm wrestling, and they often only change in the minor, less significant nuances. Everywhere in the globe, an Arm Wrestling match's real mechanics are largely the same.

Object of the Game

To win an arm wrestling match, you must pin your opponent's hand to the touchpad of the table. Strength and skill are used in tandem to accomplish this. Despite being largely a strength sport, arm wrestling can be extremely psychological, with competitors "psyching themselves up" to reach their best mental state and often attempting to scare or distract their rivals. Competitors inside the World Arm Wrestling Championships compete to earn their nation's team a spot in the competition's team championship in addition to their individual battles [2].

Players & Equipment

Considering physical strength and size are correlated, athletes compete against one another in weight divisions to guarantee that matches and tournaments are fair. Players must also dress accordingly, donning sports shirts with short sleeves or no sleeves and sports leggings with minimal to no advertising. No jeans may be worn, and no arm, elbow, or wrist supports are permitted. The following characteristics and WAF regulations must be met for the tables to be used in official World Arm Wrestling Tournaments. Tables mostly include the following:

1. Each wrestler puts their elbow on the elbow pads before starting the match. They are cushioned to reduce pain and stop injuries.
2. The touch pads are the raised surfaces on each side of the table that each player attempts to press his opponent's hand onto.
3. Hand pegs: Wrestlers use them to hold onto when grappling, giving themselves more leverage.

Depending on whether arm wrestling is going to be performed seated or standing, a different style of arm wrestling table is employed. Tabletops for sit-down competitions should be 28" above the ground. The table top ought to be 40" from the ground for stand-up play. The table top's other measurements, which are 36" long and 26" broad, are all the same. Legs should measure at least 28" inside and 18" from leg to leg. Elbow pads should be constructed of thick, high-quality foam, measure 7" by 7," and be placed 2" from the edge. The inner corner of an elbow pad should be 5" away from the inside corner of a touch pad, which ought to be 10" long by 4" high and on an angle. Each table's edge should have hand pegs halfway up, spaced apart by 13"; similarly, chairs should have a standard 18" square, 18" from the floor. Additionally, a line should be decided to paint or taped throughout the middle of the table to demarcate the two parts of the table.

Scoring

Scoring in individual matches is fairly easy since it follows a basic win/lose pattern over one round. In contrast, there is a team championship at the World Arm-wrestling Championships, where points are granted for each competitor's performance within their category and combined with those of their nation's team. Consequently, the following statements are granted for each weight class: 1st - 10 points, 2nd - 7 points, 3rd - 5 points, 4th - 4 points, 5th - 3 points, 6th - 2 points, 7th - 1 point.

Winning the Game

The participant who successfully pins their opponent's arm onto the touch pad wins an individual bout. Each battle lasts one round in the World Arm Wrestling Championships, but in other events governed by various federations, rules, including restrictions, matches may well be contested on a "best of three," "best of five," or even other basis. The team that receives the most points out of each member's performances in their separate individual events wins the team competition just at World Arm-wrestling Championships. This often holds true for different kinds of arm wrestling events and championships.

Rules of Arm Wrestling

In order for the officials to view the participants and their grip from both sides, each competition is overseen by two referees, on either side.

A match has no set duration, but the referee has the right to end it if he or she believes one or both contestants are not in a condition to continue.

The contestants should go up to the table, settle down, and then take their opponent's hand. The thumb knuckle should really be visible and the grip should really be palm to palm. Other hands of competitors shall hold their corresponding hand pegs.

Both contestants must agree before the match may begin in either the referee's grasp or in a strip.

The match will start after the officials are satisfied with both participants' grip. In order to win, each player must successfully pin their rival's arm to the touchpad.

To drive their opponent's hand towards the touch pad, pressure should be used in a sideways manner. It is not permitted to use back pressure in an effort to move the adversary toward the middle of the table.

When one participant pins their opponent's hand to the touch pad, the match is declared won. If the head referee was satisfied that this is a legitimate pin at this moment, they will cry "Stop!" and quickly raise their arm to indicate the inner. Any time the competitor's natural wrist hits the touch pad, it counts as a legitimate pin.

In arm wrestling, there are several different fouls that may be committed. These include, for example, touching a portion of one's own body while playing, crossing one's shoulder into the region of the opponent, lowering one's shoulder below the height of a touch pad, using vulgar language or abusive gestures, or acting unsportsmanlike, to mention a few.

Athletics Rules

The term "athletics" refers to a group of competitive sports activities where athletes run, throw, stroll, and leap. Prehistoric societies engaged in competition with one another in a variety of running, leaping, and throwing sports, which are the origins of modern athletic competitions.

The ancient Olympics in Greece had several athletic competitions, beginning with only a running race and thankfully growing through time to include other running, jumping, and trying to throw sports. Despite the existence of World Championships, several national and regional championships, including indoors and outdoors, and other athletic competitions, winning there at Olympic Games is still regarded as the pinnacle of performance in the sport of athletics.

Object of the Game

In all athletic disciplines, the goal is to win the competition. Depending on the event, this entails moving more quickly than your rivals while running, walking, throwing, or leaping. The goal of the multiple-event decathlon and heptathlon competitions is to score as many points as possible by giving your best effort in each individual competition.

Players & Equipment

The three main pieces of sporting clothing are the vest, shorts, and running shoes. Some occasions need particular equipment, including the following: Pole Vault: Pole, Shot Put: Shot, Discus Throw: Discus, Hammer Throw: Hammer, Javelin Throw: Javelin, Hurdles: Hurdles

Scoring

The decathlon and heptathlon are the only sporting events that (in the strictest sense) have any kind of scoring. Competitors get points for how well they execute in each of these multi-activity events. The competitor with the most points at the conclusion of the competition receives the gold medal. There have been no points for any other events. Everyone is graded according to how quickly they walked or ran, leapt, or hurled anything.

Winning

This refers to finishing the race in the shortest amount of time feasible for running and walking competitions. When competing in throwing events, you must throw the furthest, and when competing in jumping events, you must leap higher or further than your rivals (depending upon the particular event). In athletics, the winner receives a gold medal, the runner-up receives a silver medal, and the third-place finisher receives a bronze medal. Athletes who place outside the top three do not get prizes.

Rules of Athletics

Competitors are required to follow each discipline's own set of regulations in order to guarantee that the competition is fair.

Aussie Rules Football Rules

Since 1841, Aussie Rules has existed in some capacity. The Australian Football League (AFL), the one and only professional league of it's own type, and its game, which is essentially only played in Australia, are both located there. Many players who are passionate about the game may refer to it as a combination of Australian rules, Aussie rules, football, and footy.

Object of the Game

Kick throw football between a set of four goal posts to win the game. How many points you get will depends on which posts this same ball passes between. The winning team will be the one that scores the most points at the conclusion of the game. The ball may be transferred between teammates in a variety of ways.

Players & Equipment

Aussie rules is often played on oval-shaped fields that range in size from 110 to 155 meters in width and 135 to 185 meters in length. Because they are comparable in size and proportion, many cricket grounds and Aussie Rules fields coexist. The edge of the pitches is demarcated to show where the off-limits area is. There will be four towering poles visible at each end of the pitch. These are the scoring areas, and they are around 6 meters tall. The primary scoring area is between the two front posts, which are separated by 6.4 meters (goal). The two posts in back, which are 6.4 meters apart, serve as the supplementary scoring area (point). The leather ball has an oval shape and is constructed of leather (similar to a rugby ball). The goal square, which is 9 meters wide and extends to the width of the goal posts, center square, and center circle are additional markers on the field. There will be 18 players total on each squad, each of whom will play a different position. On the field, these athletes are free to roam about. Additionally, each side is allowed three 'rolling' replacements who are allowed to come on and off as often as they choose. Once a starter is replaced, these players then enter the game as rolling. Full forward, half forward, center line, half back, and full back are the different positions. There are a total of 7 umpires playing Aussie Rules. The three major umpires are referred to as filed umpires, and they essentially supervise all judgments made on filed, including those involving time keeping, infractions, and following the rules. The two line judges may also step in when the on-field umpires have made a mistake to determine whether the ball has gone out of play or not. The last two officials are goal umpires, and it is their responsibility to announce whether a goal has indeed been successfully scored or not.

Rules of Aussie Rules Football

All decisions are signaled by the umpire, whose judgment is final. Six points are scored when the ball is kicked between the goal posts without being touched by any other player. One point is awarded if the ball is kicked between the goal posts without being touched. There are four 20-minute quarters in a game. Ruck is the game's first act. One player out of each side will attempt to tap the ball onto their team when the umpire tosses it into the air. The game will resume in the same manner as it did at the start when a goal has been scored. The sole method of passing the ball is by handing it. To do this, the ball must first be put in the palm of one's hand before being whacked with the fist-clenched butt of the opposite hand. The ball cannot be thrown or slapped in order to make a successful pass. When a player receives the ball, they may "mark" it. One of three things may happen in this scenario: either the player captures the ball it before bounces, after it has traveled more than 10 meters, or before it has touched throughout the air. Once a player has been tagged, they cannot be tackled. The team holding the ball advances 15 meters down the field if a foul is called due to a tackle or an opponent stepping beyond the mark. In an effort to recover the ball, players might tackle their opponents. It is only legal to tackle a player from the shoulder level and below. A player will lose custody of the ball if they are tackled and won't release it, which will result in the umpire calling holding the ball. Players are allowed to shepherd other players away from the soccer ball in order to obstruct their opponent. Only within 5 meters of the ball is this possible. In a tackle or when sprinting, players are prohibited from shoving their opponents inside the back.

Badminton Rules

The sport of badminton has been practiced since the sixteenth century. The Olympic competitions are the peak of this indoor sport. Asia has a huge following for the sport, with China and India setting the standard by producing a number of the top athletes in the world [1].

Object of the Game

In badminton, the goal is to smash the shuttlecock over through the net and have it land in one of the specified court locations. A rally starts if their opponent is successful in returning the shuttlecock. User get a point if can force their opponent too hit the shuttlecock out the bounds or into the net by winning this rally. A set is won by scoring 21 points or more, and most contests are best-of-three sets. You may score on either serve [2].

Players & Equipment

Badminton has two variations: solo and doubles (mixed doubles is also an option). Each participant is permitted to use a shuttlecock and a stringed racket, which resembles a tennis racket however a smaller head has. The shuttlecock was made composed of a feather-like substance encircling the top and a half-round ball somewhere at bottom. Gravity will always turn the shuttlecock's ball side such that the bottom is the only place you can properly strike it. The shuttlecock can only be struck once until it either lands on the ground or crosses the net. The court is 13.4 meters long and 6.1 meters broad. A 1.55m-wide net spans the center of the court's rectangular shape. Two tram lines go along each of the court's sides. The parameters for singles matches are the inner lines, whereas the parameters for doubles matches are the outer lines.

Scoring

When someone successfully hit the shuttlecock over through the net and it lands in your opponent's court already when them hit it, you have scored a point. When your opponent throws the shuttlecock into to the net or beyond the lines, then may also score a point.

Winning the Game

Professionals must accumulate 21 points before their opponent in order to win a game. They will have won this set if you achieve so. If the scores were tied at 20-20, the winner is the one who scores two points in advance. The next point will determine who wins the set if the score is still knotted at 29-29. You must prevail in two of the three sets played in order to win the game overall.

Rules of Badminton

Either two (singles) or four (doubles) players may participate in a game. A legitimate match must be held inside on a court with the appropriate size. The court is 6.1 by 13.4 meters, and the net is 1.55 meters high and positioned in the centre of the court. The shuttlecock must land within the boundaries of the opponent's court in order to score a point. Your opponent scores a point if the shuttlecock falls outside the court or strikes the net. Players must serve their opponent diagonally over the net. Serving stations switch from one side to the other as points are earned. Because there are no second serves, the point is won by your opponent if your first serve is rejected. A serve must be delivered beneath the server's arm and below the waist. Overarm serves are not permitted. A coin toss will decide who will serve first as well as which side of the court their opponent want to start from before each game. A player is free to roam around the court wherever they choose after the shuttlecock is "live." The shuttlecock may be struck from outside the playing area. A player commits a foul and loses the point if they contact the net with just about any part of their body or one's racket. A player commits a fault if they purposefully divert attention away from their opponent, catch the shuttlecock in the racket and throw it, hit the shuttlecock twice, or keep breaking the rules of badminton. A referee in a high chair who watches the game umpires each match. Additionally, line judges watch to see whether the shuttlecock touches the ground. Referee decisions on fouls and infractions are

final. In the event of an unexpected or unintentional occurrence, the referee may call a let. One player really wasn't prepared, the shuttlecock got trapped in the bet, the server served before his turn, and a decision that was too close to make are examples of these. There are only two breaks in the game, each lasting 90 seconds after the first game than five minutes after the second. If a player consistently violates the rules, the referee has the authority to deduct points from that player, with persistent violations resulting in a forfeit of a set or perhaps the whole match.

Bar Billiards Rules

Bar pool is a variation of pool that is often referred to as Russian pool and is very well-liked in the UK, especially in the south of England as well as the Channel Islands. The game was first played in Russia as "billiard ruses," and it was introduced to the UK in the 1930s by an Englishman by the name of David Gill after he saw it being played in Belgium. The All England Bar Billiards Association, which is made up of several county associations, including Kent, Norfolk, Surrey, Hampshire, Oxford shire, Northampton shire, and Buckinghamshire, is in charge of enforcing the game's rules and managing its administration. The game is performed on a table which resembles a standard pool table but differentiates in that there are no pockets; instead, the table has holes sunk into it. Each year, the island of Jersey hosts the Bar Billiards World Championship, although, despite its name, features virtually only British competitors.

Rules of Bar Billiards

Bar billiards games don't begin until the starting player has been determined by a coin flip. The person who is given the opportunity to play first selects a white or red ball from of the trough there at end of the table, sets it in the D, and then strikes it in an effort to strike another ball, causing one of the balls to fall into a hole therefore scoring a point. A player who makes a scoring shot is granted another opportunity and is allowed to stay at the table until they foul or fail to score a scoring shot. The opposing player then has a turn at the table and chooses a white or red ball that attempt to hit, hoping that one of them will fall into a hole and score points. Until somebody don't make a shot that scored or foul, this player will stay at the table. Until the game time runs through and the bar billiards table stopped operating, the players continue to take rounds there at table in this fashion, accumulating points. At the conclusion of the game, the player with both the highest score is crowned the winner.

CHAPTER 15

RULES OF SPORTS

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Baseball RulesThe game of baseball has had the same forms since its inception in 1744, and they still exist now. North America, Canada, and Japan are the regions where the game is most popular. Baseball is a sport that is played all around the globe, and the World Series is where it all comes together. Ironically, only North American teams are allowed to participate in this tournament.

In baseball, the goal is to score more runs against your rival. In order to complete a run, you must sprint around four bases after hitting the ball as far as you can. Another hitter enters the batting order if a player successfully circles the four bases without being tagged out.

Players & Equipment

A game is played between two teams, each of which has nine players. In each of the game's nine innings, each team rotates between hitting and fielding. Once the final scores have been added up, the team with the most points at the end of all innings is deemed the winner. Each team gets three outs in each inning before exchanging sides. Each inning has two halves: the top, when the opposing team hits, and the bottom (where the home team bats). The two halves of the field are the infield and outfield. A diamond-shaped field with four bases each located 90 feet apart separates the infield from the outfield. In the center of the center field is the pitching mound, where another pitcher stands and throws the ball to the batter. The hitter is positioned at home plate. The names of the last three bases are, in fact, first base, second base, and then third base. The batter must touch all bases before being able to successfully score a run. Either metal, aluminum, or hardwood are utilized to construct the bats. The ball is composed of white cloth with red embroidery and has a diameter of around 3 inches. The fielding team is outfitted with "mist," which are really enormous gloves, to aid them in catching and bringing up the ball. The catcher stands behind the batter to retrieve any balls missed, wearing extra protection inside their glove, knee pads, a body pad, as well as a helmet.

Scoring

To score, a batter must advance around all four bases and then hit the ball with their bat into the designated fielding area (Before the fielding team could catch the ball and throw it there, the batter will arrive at the base). A player receives one point automatically if they hit a home run, which often means the ball left the field of play and was likely to land in the crowd. A player may stop at any base if they fear being tagged out before getting to the next one. Players may get several points from such a single hit if there are currently other players on a given base. When there is a player on every base, "the bases are loaded" refers to the circumstance. When a hitter successfully makes it to first base, the other players on the second and third bases could then trickle home, earning a point for their team each time. However many players reach

home plate before being tagged will decide how many scoring those who get. The maximum point total from one hit is four.

Winning the Game

To win a game, someone must outscore their rival throughout the course of nine innings of play. The team with the most points at the end of nine innings is deemed the winner. When a game is tied, extra innings are played until a winner is decided.

Rules of Baseball

Two nine-player teams play baseball. The roles on the defensive team are a pitcher, catchers, firstly baseman, second baseman, shortstop, third baseman, and three outfielders playing left field, center field, and right field. Each team gets to bat once over the game's nine seasons. If the score has still been tied after 9 innings, another inning would be played unless a winner is decided. In the bottom of the ninth inning, the team batting second does not need to complete their at-bats since they are already in the lead in points. After being chosen, a batting order can indeed be changed. Replacement players are permitted, but they must bat in the same order as the person they are subbing in. If the batter is successful in connecting with the pitcher's pitch, they must attempt to at least go to first base. Players may then move onto as many bases as they desire before being tagged out. The batter must race past each base whilst making some kind of physical contact with it. A batter may get up to three strikes before even being out. A strike occurs when a batter swings at only a ball and misses. If the batter leaves the ball in the prescribed area, it might also be considered a strike (known as the "strike zone"). If four pitches are outside of the strike zone as well as the batter does not swing their bat, they may walk to first base. At any point while on base, the batter may move up a base. A "strike out" happens when a hitter misses the ball three times, a "force out" happens whenever a player can't get to the base before the defense, a "fly out" happens when the ball is hit in the air and is captured by anything without bouncing, and "tag outs" happen anytime a player is penalized (when a defensive player with the ball tags a sprinting batter with the ball).

Rules of Basketball

There can never be more than five players from each side here on field simultaneously. Substitutions may be made as often as desired throughout the game. The ball can only be moved by dribbling (bouncing the ball) or passing the ball. Once a player has two hands on the ball (this does not include grasping the ball), they are not permitted to dribble or move with it; they must pass the ball or shoot it. Between 10 seconds within a week of entering a team's half and also being retrieved by them, the ball must pass the halfway line. If it doesn't, a foul will be called, and the ball will really be turned over. Each team has 24 seconds to take at least one shot there at basket. When a shot is made, it must either make contact with the rim of the basket or go through the goal. If the ball does not get into the basket after the shot is taken, the shot clock automatically reset for another 24 seconds. The team trying to make a basket was known as the offensive, while the team trying to prevent them from making one was known as the defense. The defense must do everything in their ability to stop the offense from scoring by preventing shots from being taken or blocking them from being fired. After each made basket, the ball would then be given to the pursuing team. Once a certain number of fouls have indeed been committed during the duration of the game, a free throw will eventually be awarded. A free throw consists of one offensive team member (the player fouled) shooting from the free-throw line undefended. The location of the foul will determine how many free throws a player would get. Basketball infractions include goaltending, which would be defined as the moment a defensive player blocks the ball simply because it is moving down towards the basket,

travelling, which is described as taking more than one step without bouncing the ball. Double dribble drive, which would be defined as attempting to pick up the ball with two hands whilst also dribbling while stopping, in addition to back court infractions. (After the ball has passed the half-way line, the attacking team could indeed return it there.)

Beach Volleyball Rules

Beach volleyball is just a sport played by two teams comprising two people on an outdoor court made of sand. The object of the game is to throw an inflatable ball over a high net in the middle of the court so that it lands in the opponent's half. Around 1915, beach volleyball was invented in Hawaii, and it only became popular in Europe throughout the 1930s. Over the years, competitions grew routine, and during the 1980s, the sport saw a notable uptick in popularity. Only in 1992 did beach volleyball make its debut in the Olympics. During these games, it was just a demonstration competition; but, four years later, it became a recognized Olympic sport. Since then, it has always been a part of the Olympics. The two most successful countries in volleyball in the Olympics are the United States of America but also Brazil. Overall, the USA has won 10 medals (6 gold, 2 silver, and 2 bronze), whereas Brazil has won 13 medals (3 gold, 7 silver, 3 bronze).

The fundamental goal of beach volleyball would be to hit the ball strategically such that the other team can't return it in a "legal" manner. The first "serve" of the match will be made by one side, which involves hitting the ball over the net. The second round of play will include a "rally," in which the ball is passed back and forth between the two teams while flying over the goal. When one side is unable to recover the ball, the rally is over, and the team that caused the mistake receives a point. A set is decided by the side that scores 21 points (by two clear points) first; two set victories are necessary to win the game as a whole.

Players & Equipment

Court

Beach volleyball is played on a court made of sand that is 26.2 feet square, and each team is comprised of two players. During male matches, another net 7 feet 11 inches high was positioned in the middle of the court. The net is positioned at a significantly reduced height of 7 feet 4 inches for female matches. The distance between each sideline and the post padding for the posts utilized on each side of the court is equal.

Ball

Beach volleyball balls are usually brightly colored (white, yellow, or orange), weigh 9 to 10 ounces, and have a pressure somewhere inside 2.5 to 3.2 lb/sq inches.

Technique

In order to increase their chances of success, professional players should perfect their serves. They must learn how to hit the ball precisely and with enough force that the opposition team cannot returning it. In beach volleyball, attacking comes in second place behind serving. The ball may be "attacked" by players in a number of ways, including by utilizing various hand parts to direct the ball to certain spots on the court (where the opposing team cannot return the ball). The ball's speed and direction were commonly controlled by using the fingers but also knuckles. In order to defend on beach volleyball, you must block the ball while it is moving away from you and toward the ground in their side of the court. Players employ special "block signals" to communicate to their teammates the kind of block they intend to use. To prevent the other team from seeing what they are going to accomplish, they are often created behind

their backs. Different finger motions are used to denote various kinds of blocks. To provide the most effective possible team communication, those signals are designed and prepared in advance.

Clothing

Players have been obliged to don certain clothes while taking part in a Beach Volleyball match since the year 2000. Women may dress in one-piece swimsuits or long-sleeved shirts and shorts. The topic of Beach Volleyball clothing is still quite contentious. While many athletes prefer shorter, lighter attire that exposes less flesh, organizations are reluctant to approve it out of concern that spectators and audiences could find it "too exposing.

Scoring

At beach volleyball, a team scores points when they are successful in hitting the ball in such a manner that the opposition team is unable to legitimately return it. An illegal return includes striking the net, striking the ball more than three times in one rally, or not striking the ball at all. Throughout the first two sets, teams must switch ends and move to the opposite side of the court every seven points. And during third set, they also mandated a side changeover after every five points. When 21 points have been scored in total, such as when the score is 14-7, for example, a timeout is taken.

Winning

In beach volleyball, the winner is the first team that won two sets. A set is declared won when a player scores 21 points, or 15 points in the last set, with a two-point margin of victory. Thus, if the score is 21-20, for instance, the set will continue until each side is ahead by two points (e.g. 24-22).

Rules of Beach Volley Ball

Beach volleyball is a court sport that follows a variety of tight regulations, such as:

A. Players, including blocks, are only permitted to touch the ball a maximum of three times before returning it across the court.
B. In beach volleyball, some techniques and blows are forbidden, such as "hand touches," "tips," and dinks.
C. Beach volleyball players were allowed to cross underneath the net, however doing so will be penalized if it tampers with or disrupts the play of the other team.
D. Players don't have a fixed position, therefore they are free to move to any area of the court they want at any moment, as long as it is on their side.

Beer Pong Rules

Beer Pong, often referred to as Beirut, is a well-liked drinking game that can be found all around the globe. The object of the game is to get the ping pong ball to land in the beer cup on the opposite side of the table by tossing it across the table between two competing teams. Beer pong is well-liked in a variety of settings, including pubs, colleges, institutions, and home parties. It's believed that it originated from games similar to those played in the fraternities of Dartmouth College, an Ivy League institution in Hanover, Hampshire. Consequently, the game first resembled table tennis and actually used bats and a net, however over time, it has gotten simpler and no longer requires the usage of bats or paddles. Beer Pong is a social drinking game that is not governed by any official bodies or organizations; nonetheless, there is a World Series of Beer Pong. It is still a well-liked game that needs a surprising amount of skill and a

little bit of chance, but because it usually includes drinking, those players who have reached the legal drinking age in the game's jurisdiction should play it.

Object of the Game

In order to win Beer Pong, one side must successfully knock out every cup belonging to their rivals. The fact that this game almost usually involves alcohol and college students leads many people to believe that the other goal of the game is to become intoxicated. It is common for some players to purposefully play poorly in order to get more alcohol since the better someone are at the game, minimize the time they end up drinking.

Players & Equipment

Two players from each side participate in a game of Beer Pong, which may also be played one-on-one. Beer Pong just actually requires a good table, some cups, and a ping pong ball in terms of equipment. Most often, plastic disposable cups are used, and that each team arranges their cups (typically numbered 10 or 15) in an equilateral triangle on one of its side of the table, all of which are filled with the same quantity of beer. The ball may be rinsed in a different cup in between tosses. There are no requirements for the sort of beer that must be used, however the ABV often ranges from 3% to 5%. If participants choose to play an alcohol-free version of the game, they may substitute other beverages like spirits or even water.

Scoring

The scoring system used in Beer Pong differs from that used in sports like hockey or soccer. There is, however, some kind of rating system. Due to the fact that both teams begin the game with 10 or 15 cups, it is feasible to determine who is currently in the lead in the game, with both the team with the most cups being in front and attempting to swiftly bring the other side's score to zero.

Winning the Game

When one side successfully removes every cup from their opponent, the game is over. When both sides are down to one cup and eliminate the other team's cup on their last turn, a tie may result. If this happens, the winner is often determined via overtime, when three cups are used and the initial team to remove the cups of the opponent is proclaimed the winner, with further rounds of extra hours being played if required. A shutout occurs when a team fully defeats its opponent and takes away all of their cups while retaining all of their own. If this happens, the victorious team is permitted to issue a dare, and the losing team is obligated to accept it. This often involves doing something humiliating, like running outdoors nude or consuming a lot of booze.

Rules of Beer Pong

The team that will go first needs to be chosen when the teams have indeed been formed. There are various methods to achieve this, but most often it involves a coin toss or a brief round of "Rock, Paper, and Scissors." Before each team, a certain number of cups (10 or 15) are positioned in an equilateral triangle, and each cup has a predetermined quantity of beer (or another alcoholic beverage) in it. Additionally, each team will have a separate cup for individual usage to rinse the ping pong ball. Each member of the side that goes first then lobs a ping pong ball towards to the cups of their rivals. If either or both of the balls successfully fall in a cup belonging to a member of the other team, that player must drink everything within the cup, and the cup is then taken out of the game. The teams alternate turns until one team has removed every cup from the other team. If both sides successfully remove their opponent's last

cup on their last turn, the tournament is tied. In this case, three cups are reset, overtime is started, and the winner is the first to knock out all of the opponent's cups. If there are any further drawings, extra rounds will continue until a winner is determined. Beer Pong shooting may be done underarm or overarm, as well as the ball can be thrown into the cup or tried to be bounced into it. Whenever playing Beer Pong, everyone should exercise caution and use alcohol sensibly.

Billiards Rules

Due to its popularity throughout the British Empire, billiards (in this instance, English billiards) is indeed a game that is played not simply in England but all over the globe. Two players compete in the cue sport of billiards, which uses two cue balls and one object ball (red) (yellow and white). Each participant utilizes a different color cue ball inside an effort to outscore their rival and obtain the predetermined score needed to win the game. There are many different variations of pool available worldwide, but English pool is one of the most prevalent and well-liked. It is a combination of many distinct games, including the "winning and losing carambole game," and it has its roots in England. The game was popular around the globe, particularly in Commonwealth nations, although during the last 30 years, snooker (a simpler game that is more suited for television) has witnessed a sharp increase in both players and TV viewers.

Players & Equipment

One-on-one or two-on-two English billiards may be played, with the singles variation of the game becoming the most popular. The game is played on the table with the exact same measurements as a snooker table (3569 mm x 1778 mm), and in many locations, both games are performed on a single table. Additionally, three balls must be utilized, each measuring 52.5mm in diameter and one each of red, yellow, but also white. Each player has a cue, which they use to hit the balls. The cues may be constructed of wood or fiberglass. Chalk represents the final piece of equipment that is need. To guarantee solid contact between both the cue and the ball throughout the game, each player should chalk the bottom of their cue.

Bobsleighing Rules

When competing in bobsleighing, also known as "bobsledding," teams (of two or four, according to the event) board sleds and race down curving ice courses at high speeds. Pilots pull on rings to control the sleds and enhance their track position as each team depends on gravity to advance as quickly as possible. The "bobbing" action drivers used this to make while trying to start their sleighs at the start of a race is where the word bobsleigh originated. It should not come as a surprise that Switzerland is where bobsleigh first appeared. The high alpine mountains of Switzerland are known for their winter sports, and bobsleighing was first made famous there in the 1860s by locals. This well-known winter sport began as a pastime but through the years developed into a sport of competition, making an appearance in the first Olympic Games in 1924. Participants in bobsleighing first went down the tracks on wooden sleds, but as the sport gained more popularity and notoriety, steel-based sleds gradually took their place. Olympic bobsleigh competitions currently include two-man and four-man events, with competitions for both men and women. Switzerland, Germans, and the United States have all won several medals in the Olympic sport of bobsledding, which is to be expected.

Object of the Game

In the racing sport of bobsleighing, the winning team is the one that crosses the finish line first. Dependent on the kind of event, bobsleigh vehicles will hold two or four competitors. The teams' crews push the cars off from a standing start to begin their progress down the course.

Players & Equipment

A team of two to four people competes in the sport of bobsleigh. The major piece of apparatus is the bobsleigh itself, but there are additional things to take into account.

Vehicles used in bobsleigh: Today's bobsleigh vehicles are far more sophisticated than those of the past. Sleds have undergone extensive aerodynamic design work, and a variety of light metal and steel materials have been used.

Crews: Because bobsleighing is a gravity-based sport, each team has to be propelled into action by crew members, who physically push the bobsleigh into the course to start the motion. Every member of the bobsleigh squad, whether they are the pilot, the brakeman, or the pusher, has a distinct job to do.

Every bobsleigh car is equipped with two metal rings on each side that aid the driver in steering the sled. The pilot pushes down on the left ring to turn the vehicle's momentum to left, and vice versa.

Scoring

The goal of a bobsleigh team is to cross the finish line within their course as quickly as possible. They achieve this by:

The pilot controls then bobsleigh's steering, which must be done delicately and carefully at high speeds too keep the vehicle on course.

The brakeman must apply pressure to a set of pads there at proper locations on the track in enable for the car to turn safely and at its fastest possible speed.

Bossaball Rules

Bossaball is a recent sport that originated in Spain in 2004. Since then, the sport has gained recognition on a global scale, with very successful Bossaball teams in nations like Brazil, Germany, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Singapore, Kuwait, Colombia, and Saudi Arabia. Even though there aren't many international events, respectable nations send teams abroad to attempt to promote the sport.

Object of the Game

Players must smash a ball over a net to get points in this game, which is a little variant of volleyball. To get the ball through the net and into your opponent's end zone, anyone may utilize any component of your body (your head, feet, or hands). The activities are played on a large inflatable with trampolines on each side for extra bounce. The winning side is the one with the most points at the conclusion of the match.

Players & Equipment

Teams typically have between three and five players. There is no limit on the gender makeup of the teams; they may have both men and women. Players will rotate after each point, with one player assigned to the trampoline area of the arena at all times. A Bossaball court and, of course, a Bossaball are all that are required (very similar to a volleyball, in fact a volleyball will be suffice). Although the court may be whatever size, it is typically 50 yards long and 30 yards wide. Each court must include a 3 meter high net running through the center of it. A trampoline area, an inflatable scoring part, and an inflatable out-of-bounds portion must be placed on either side of the court.

Scoring

When someone successfully hit the ball over the net into their opponent's end and they are unable to recover it, then get a point. The trampoline area of the court is worth 3 points, while the rest of the court's inbounds areas are worth 1 point. The game resumes as usual if the ball reaches the Bossa (the ring surrounding the trampoline).

Rules of Bossaball

Teams may include a mix of male and female players, and there are 3-5 members per team. Anybody component may be used to create serves as long as they are "creative, whenever the ball is already on your portion of the court, players may strike the ball with your hands three times, twice with your feet and once with your head before such a teammate must hit the ball. Games have no set time limit and are only eligible for won by a side scoring 25 points and winning two straight games. A team may hit the ball up to five times before those who must attempt to get it into their opponent's half. Typically, teams play best-of-three or best-of-five sets, rotating places clockwise after each point so that a new player occupies the trampoline part each time.

Cricket Rules

Cricket has been a well-liked sport ever since it was first played in the early 16th century. The Cricket World Cup is the peak of international competition. The T20 World Cup, Test Series, and One Day Series are other significant occasions. There are several, fiercely contested domestic tournaments held in every nation.

Object of the Game

To score more runs against your opponent is indeed the goal of cricket. There are three game types (Test, One Day, and Twenty 20), and each one specifies a deadline for finishing the game. Players must strike the ball with a wooden cricket bat in order to achieve a run (usually English willow or Kashmir). The opposite team bowls and fields while the first team bats. The objective is to limit the opposition side to scoring as few runs within the allotted time or bowl them out for as little runs as possible. The sides will trade roles whenever one team has forfeited all of its wickets or the stipulated time has passed.

Players & Equipment

Each squad has eleven players. These eleven players will play a variety of positions within the squad, including wicketkeeper, fielder, bowler, and batsman. Each player may well have a specialty role that they may switch to if they so want. Cricket pitches come in a wide variety of sizes, but the game is often played on a grassy oval with a 200-meter diameter. The boundary edge, or line dividing what is in play from what is out of play, runs around the perimeter of the field. The wicket will be situated in the middle of the field. At either end of the wicket, there should be two sets of three stumps, and they need to be 22 yards apart. The crease is located at either end of the wicket, and a line is drawn approximately two yards from each set of stumps across the wicket.

While the batsmen attempt to strike the ball from the opposite end, the bowler would bowl the bowling ball through one end. Leg guards, gloves, thigh guards, upper thigh guards, a box, a helmet, as well as a chest guard are just a few of the protective gear that batsmen may use. The uniform for each player will be white, with spiked footwear (The one exception is that players may wear colored apparel during shorter games). The cork cricket ball will come in either red (for test matches) or white (one day games).

Scoring

When a batsman strikes the ball with their bat as well as the two other batters at the wicket are able to make it to the other end, it is a run. Before being dismissed, the batsmen are allowed to run as many occasions as those who please. 4 runs are awarded if the ball passes the boundary rope along with at least one bounce after departing the bat. The batting side get 6 runs if the ball clears the boundary rope without rebounding. A wide delivery (a ball that is too far from the stumps), a no ball (where the bowler crosses the front line just on wicket), a bye (in which no one touches this same ball however the two batsmen run after all), as well as a leg bye (in which the ball strikes the batsmen's leg or skin and a run has been taken) are other ways for the bowler to make runs.

Winning the Game

One side will take the field first, while another will bat first. The bowling team will attempt to restrict them by fielding each ball while the batting team will attempt to score as many scores as it can in the allocated time. The team's then switch, and the side batting second will attempt to surpass the runs recorded by their opponents in the first innings. If they achieve, they win; if they fail, they lose.

Rules of Cricket

There are 11 players on each side, and a bowler must complete 6 legal deliveries to score an over. There must be two umpires every game, one at each end of a wicket. The umpires must then determine if the batsman is out after an appeal, count the numbers of balls throughout the over, and determine whether the bowler made a legal delivery. A batsman may be dismissed by being bowled (the ball striking their stumps), caught, or run out (fielder catches the ball without it bouncing), Hit wicket, stumped (the wicket keeper smacks the stumps with their gloves when the batsman is outside of his crease with the ball in hand), Leg Before Wicket (the ball touches the batsmen's pads hindering its line into the stumps) (the batsmen hits their own wicket), Timed out refers to a player who does not arrive at the crease within 30 seconds of the preceding batters leaving the field. Handled ball, struck ball twice, and obstruction refer to batsmen who intentionally handle the cricket ball (the batsmen purposely prevents the fielder from getting the ball), Test cricket takes place over 5 days when each side gets two innings (or two opportunities to bat) (or two chances to bat), The teams' individual scores are then added together, and the team that has the most runs at the end of each inning wins. 50 overs are used in one-day cricket matches. Before switching and doing the prior discipline, each side gets 50 overs to bat and bowl. During international games, there would be an additional third and fourth umpire. The side with the most runs towards the conclusion of the game wins. The fielding side must have a designated wicket keeper who is the sole individual permitted to wear pads and gloves just on field. These are in place to review any judgments that the on-field umpires are unable to make. To make the catch, the wicketkeeper is positioned while behind bowler at the opposing end.

Tug of War Rules

One of the oldest games known to man is tug of war, and there is evidence that it was performed in many ancient cultures, including ancient China, Egypt, and Greece. It is still a well-liked sport that tests the strengths of two teams against one another and is played in some capacity in virtually every nation in the globe. It is also referred as rope pulling, tugging war, and war of tug. Many of these nations have their own national legislatures, and there is also an international organization called the Tug of War International Federation, which has more than 50 member nations. Both men and women participate in the sport, which previously appeared

in the Olympic Games from 1900 to 1920 but has not since, despite efforts to reinstate it. Around the globe, tug of war is played in a variety of ways, including Sokatira in Spain's Basque Country, Tsunahiki in Japanese, Tarik Tambang in Indonesia, and Jul Parigi in Korea. Eight persons make up each team in a tug-of-war match. Tug of War has several weight categories, and the aggregate mass of the eight participants cannot exceed that set by the category they are put in. The rope being used should have a circle of about 11 cm, and it should be marked inside the middle with two markings that are 4 meters apart from the center line as well as a center line. The center line of the rope should really be directly above a line drawn on the ground at the beginning of the pull. The winning team is the one that successfully crosses the center line with the mark on the rope that is closest to their opponent. A foul will be called if the rope is not pulled underarm and no individual's elbow extends below the knee. Most matches are best-of-three pulls, with the winner taking two of the three pulls.

Questionnaire

1. How many ways classified the sports?

2. What types of supplement are used in sports for players?

3. What types of rules in different sports?

4. What are equipment are used in archery shooting?

5. What are scoring pattern of arm wrestling?

6. What rule for player in athletics sports?

7. What was the length of court of badminton ground?

8. How many players are played in baseball game?

9. What are equipment are used in beach volleyball sport?

10. What is length of table which used in billiards game?

11. How many players are competes in bobsleighing sports?

12. How many formats in international cricket?

References Books for Further Reading

1. The Game, by Ken Dryden.

2. Moneyball: The Art of Winning an Unfair Game, by Michael Lewis.

3. Imperfect: An Improbable Life, by Jim Abbot.

4. When Pride Still Mattered: The Life of Vince Lombardi, by David Maraniss.

5. Wooden: A Coach's Life, by Seth Davis.