



**UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE  
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND QUALITY OF LIFE  
DEPARTMENT OF SPORT MANAGEMENT**

**THE SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL DIMENSION OF THE EUROPEAN UNION  
SPORT-RELATED POLICY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON NATIONAL POLICIES:  
THE CASE OF GREECE**

**by  
Stavroula Sakka, MSc**

A Dissertation submitted to the Department of Sports Organisation and Management  
of the University of Peloponnese in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Sparta, 2017

Copyright© Σταυρούλα Σακκά. Stavroula Sakka, 2017  
Με επιφύλαξη κάθε δικαιώματος. All rights reserved.

Απαγορεύεται η αντιγραφή, αποθήκευση και διανομή της παρούσας εργασίας, εξ ολοκλήρου ή τμήματος αυτής, για εμπορικό σκοπό. Επιτρέπεται η ανατύπωση, αποθήκευση και διανομή για σκοπό μη κερδοσκοπικό, εκπαιδευτικής ή ερευνητικής φύσης, υπό την προϋπόθεση να αναφέρεται η πηγή προέλευσης και να διατηρείται το παρόν μήνυμα. Ερωτήματα που αφορούν τη χρήση της εργασίας για κερδοσκοπικό σκοπό πρέπει να απευθύνονται προς τον συγγραφέα. Οι απόψεις και τα συμπεράσματα που περιέχονται σε αυτό το έγγραφο εκφράζουν τον συγγραφέα και δεν πρέπει να ερμηνευθεί ότι αντιπροσωπεύουν τις επίσημες θέσεις του Πανεπιστημίου Πελοποννήσου του Τμήματος Οργάνωσης και Διαχείρισης Αθλητισμού.

Copying, storage and distribution of this work, in whole or part thereof, for any commercial purpose is strictly forbidden. Reproduction, storage and distribution for non-profit purposes, including educational or research purposes, is allowed provided the source is indicated and the present statement remains attached. Any questions concerning the potential use of the study for profit should be addressed to the author. The views and conclusions contained in this study reflect solely the views of the author and should not be interpreted as representing the official position of the University of Peloponnese, Department of Sport Management.

## **ABSTRACT**

Stavroula Sakka: The social and educational dimension of the European Union sport-related policy and its influence on national policies: The case of Greece.  
(Supervised by Dr. Efthalia Chatzigianni, Tenured Assistant Professor)

This thesis is an attempt to analyse the implications of the European Integration on the sport policy developments related to its social and educational dimension. In particular, the objective of this thesis is to identify how and at what level the European Union (EU) initiatives, recommended in the White Paper on Sport, are implemented at national level. The aim is to identify EU pressures, the mechanisms and the degree of domestic change, in the light of the new EU competence in sport after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. This will be achieved by using the concept of Europeanisation as a theoretical framework for studying the EU influence at the national level. Europeanisation is examined as a horizontal process of ‘policy learning’ applied on the policy field of sport. The point of departure for this research project is the EU developments in the field of sport policy since 1985. The research is made upon the case of Greek sport policy, where Greece is a Mediterranean country with little influence on EU affairs. This framework explores the role of the EU institutions related to sport policy-making and implementation, including an overview of the current policy rationales reflected in the agenda-setting for sport and the sport stakeholders’ involvement. Before shifting attention to the domestic impact, the framework of Greek sport policy and the main social areas of sport policy action are presented. The methodology of this case study research includes a qualitative analysis of soft-law EU instruments, EU and domestic sport-related records and in-depth interviews with sport policy-makers. These provided valuable information for the ‘Europeanisation effect’ under the period of investigation 2007-2013. With regard to the results of this study, the degree of change in the Greek sport policy due to EU pressure for convergence is average and can be characterised as ‘absorption’. Some Europeanisation is evident, arising from the provision of funding, the policy transfer through Member States’ cooperation, structured dialogue and networking and the setting of broad EU policy aims and objectives. The preferences and actions of domestic sport policy-maker remain highly significant in determining ultimate outcomes (Chapman, 2005). This is because the EU-level sport policy is still ‘indirect’ or else ‘supportive’ and national governments still maintain their sovereignty in the field of sport.

*Keywords: Europeanisation, sport policy, White Paper on Sport, Greece.*

## **ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ**

Σταυρούλα Σακκά: Η κοινωνική και εκπαιδευτική διάσταση της σχετικής με τον αθλητισμό πολιτικής της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης και η επίδραση της στις εθνικές πολιτικές: Η περίπτωση της Ελλάδας.

(Με την επίβλεψη της κα. Ευθαλίας Χατζηγιάννη, Μόνιμης Επίκουρης Καθηγήτριας)

Η παρούσα εργασία προσπαθεί να αναλύσει τις επιπτώσεις της Ευρωπαϊκής Ολοκλήρωσης στην χάραξη της αθλητικής πολιτικής που σχετίζεται με την κοινωνική και εκπαιδευτική πτυχή του αθλητισμού και να διαπιστώσει πώς και σε ποιο επίπεδο οι πρωτοβουλίες της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης (Ε.Ε.), όπως αυτές προτείνονται στη Λευκή Βίβλο για τον Αθλητισμό, εφαρμόζονται σε εθνικό επίπεδο. Ο στόχος είναι να προσδιοριστούν οι πιέσεις της Ε.Ε., οι μηχανισμοί και ο βαθμός της αλλαγής σε εθνικό επίπεδο, υπό το πρίσμα της νέας αρμοδιότητας της Ε.Ε. στον τομέα του αθλητισμού μετά την επικύρωση της Συνθήκης της Λισαβόνας. Αυτό θα επιτευχθεί με τη χρήση του Εξευρωπαϊσμού ως οριζόντια διαδικασία «πολιτικής μάθησης» και θα αποτελέσει το θεωρητικό πλαίσιο για τη μελέτη της επιδρασης της Ε.Ε. στην περίπτωση της Ελλάδας. Παρουσιάζεται μια ιστορική αναδρομή στις Ευρωπαϊκές πολιτικές εξελίξεις στον τομέα του αθλητισμού από το 1985. Διερευνάται ο ρόλος των θεσμικών οργάνων της Ε.Ε. που σχετίζονται με την χάραξη της αθλητικής πολιτικής, ενώ παρατίθεται μια επιστημονική αιτιολογία για την διαμόρφωση της πολιτικής ατζέντας για τον αθλητισμό και τη συμμετοχή των ενδιαφερόμενων φορέων του αθλητισμού σε ευρωπαϊκό επίπεδο. Παρουσιάζεται το θεσμικό πλαίσιο της ελληνικής αθλητικής πολιτικής με ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον στον κοινωνικό και εκπαιδευτικό τομέα. Σχετικά με τη μεθοδολογία, η έρευνα αφορά στην περίοδο εφαρμογής των πρωτοβουλιών της Λευκής Βίβλου για τον Αθλητισμό 2007-2013. Πρόκειται για μια μελέτη περίπτωσης όπου γίνεται ποιοτική ανάλυση των εργαλείων ήπιας πολιτικής και νομοθέτησης της Ε.Ε., των πρωτογενών και δευτερογενών πηγών πληροφόρησης όπως είναι τα ευρωπαϊκά και εθνικά έγγραφα και οι συνεντεύξεις με πρόσωπα-κλειδιά χάραξης της αθλητικής πολιτικής. Ενώ κάποιος βαθμός εξευρωπαϊσμού είναι εμφανής στην περίπτωση της Ελλάδας, που αφορά στις ευκαιρίες χρηματοδότησης του αθλητισμού, τη μεταφορά γνώσης και διάδοσης πολιτικών πρακτικών μέσω της συνεργασίας των Κρατών Μελών, το δομημένο διάλογο, τη δικτύωση και την υιοθέτηση των γενικών στόχων πολιτικής της Ε.Ε. για τον αθλητισμό, παρατηρείται ότι οι προτιμήσεις, οι αξίες και οι δράσεις των εθνικών προσώπων της αθλητικής πολιτικής αποτελούν καθοριστικό παράγοντα για την έκβαση του Εξευρωπαϊσμού στην Ελλάδα.

*Λέξεις-κλειδιά: Εξευρωπαϊσμός, αθλητική πολιτική, Λευκή Βίβλος για τον Αθλητισμό, Ελλάδα.*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

During this long period of studying and writing, apart from the exciting scientific perspective, I faced many research as well as serious personal challenges that sometimes decelerated my research interest and courage. However, some people really believed in me and my academic capabilities and supported me in many ways so I can now feel proud of myself for having accomplished an academic goal.

At this point, I feel that I have many intellectual and personal debts for which I would like to pay due credit. First of all, I am greatly indebted to my supervisor Prof. Efthalia (Elia) Chatzigianni, for her scientific knowledge, expert advice, guidance, patience and friendship which she generously offered over a period stretching way beyond the time dedicated to this research project. Most of all, I finally have the chance to publicly thank her continuous and fervent commitment for her trust and constant encouragement and for believing that ‘I can make it’. Without her, I would never have reached the ‘finish line’. From my side, I would like to wish her all the best in her professional career and family happiness.

Moreover, I was truly fortunate to have two distinguished academic personalities, Dean. M. Tsinisizelis (University of Athens) and Prof. D. Chrysochoou (Panteion University) as members of my Phd dissertation Committee. I would therefore like to take this opportunity to thank them for reviewing my work and providing me with an insight on theoretical and practical issues.

I wish to express my appreciation to my friend Theodore Koukis for improving my writing skills, widening and deepening my research understanding and providing me with guidance, comments and encouragement throughout my period of study. Additionally, I would also like to offer my sincere thanks to all those individuals interviewed, for their time and willingness to participate in the research and to offer valuable information without which the completion of this study would be unfeasible. I would also like to extend my thanks to the Department of Sport Management of the University of Peloponnese in Sparta for the support and encouragement in completing this research and for giving me the opportunity to participate in symposia, seminars and to publish articles in peer-reviewed journals.

Lastly, I owe a great deal to my family. I thank my husband, father and brother for their understanding and support which helped to release the inevitable stress and tension created by challenging research endeavours like this. I finally owe special thanks to my super-mother who dedicated herself and her time to cover my duties when I was absent, busy or preoccupied with my work on this thesis.

*Whoever I have become is a reflection of who my parents are!*

*A work dedicated to my twin angels*

## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

Abstract	i
Περίληψη	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	vi
List of Tables	x
List of Figures	x
List of Abbreviations	xi

### **CHAPTER ONE: Introduction**

1.1. Overview	1
1.2. The Theme: Stating the research interest and the aims of the study	1
1.3. Significance of the Study	2
1.4. Assumptions, Limitations and Time Frame	3
1.5. Setting the Research Framework: Research Questions and Dissertation Outline	4
1.6. The choice and use of Europeanisation	9
1.7. Anticipated implications of findings	10

### **CHAPTER TWO: The Emergence of a Policy for Sport in Europe**

2.1 Overview	12
2.2. Why Sport is so great for the society?	12
2.3. The European Union and Sport: Why bother?	14
2.4. Sport as part of EU Public Policy-making	16
2.4.1. Sport & Culture	17
2.4.2. Sport & Society	19
2.5. Building a European Dimension of Sport	20

### **CHAPTER THREE: Building a Framework for Analysis**

3.1. Overview	23
3.2. Research Strategy: A Case Study Research	23



3.3. Case Selection	26
3.4. Research Methods: Qualitative Approach	27
3.5. Data Collection: Primary and Secondary data	29
3.5.1. Documentation	30
3.5.2. Interviews	34
a. Interview Sample Selection	36
b. Interview Techniques and Interview Schedule Design	39
3.6. Data Analysis	41
3.7. Data Evaluation: Validity and Reliability	46
3.8. Limitations of the study – Considerations	49

## **CHAPTER FOUR: The Theoretical perspective of the EU influence at national level**

4.1 Overview	53
4.2. The European integration influence	53
4.3. Europeanisation related to European Integration in the context of sport policy	54
4.3.1. Intergovernmentalism	57
4.3.2. Neofunctionalism	58
4.3.3. New Institutionalism in relation to Europeanisation	61
4.3.4. The dynamic of ‘Change’ in the European scene	65
4.3.5. Mediating factors for change: Open Method of Coordination	69
4.4. Europeanising national policies	73
4.5. Conclusion	84

## **CHAPTER FIVE: The Political and Structural Framework for building an EU Sport-related Policy**

5.1. Overview	86
5.2. The European Union as a political system in relation to sport decision-making	86
5.3. EU policy agenda for sport	89
5.4. The EU Institutions	91
5.4.1. European Commission: The initiator and executive	92

5.4.2. European Parliament: The supervisor	94
5.4.3. Council of Ministers: Setting policy directions and priorities	95
5.4.4. European Court of Justice: The interpreter of EU law provisions	96
5.5. Sport Interest Groups and EU Lobbying	97
5.6. The Greek national political sport system: Greek sport policy framework and sport actors	102
5.6.1. Review of the formation of the Greek sport policy	102
5.6.2. Governmental Sport Bodies	103
5.6.3. Non-Governmental Sport Bodies	104
5.6.4. The current framework of the National Sport Policy	104
5.7. Conclusion	106

## **CHAPTER SIX: The evolving European Policy on Sport:**

### **Historical background and future opportunities**

6.1. Overview	108
6.2. The foundations for the EU intervention in sport-related policy	108
6.3. The cornerstones in the developing European sport policy	117
6.3.1. The ‘Bosman’ Case: Legal substance to sport	118
6.3.2. The White Paper on Sport: A significant step forward in a period of transition	120
6.3.3. Treaty of Lisbon: A new Competence for Sport	125
6.4. European Funding Opportunities	128
6.5. Towards a common EU Sport Policy	133

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: The EU intervention in the social and educational dimension of sport**

7.1. Overview	135
7.2. Public policy areas of EU involvement	135
7.2.1. Public Health and Physical Activity	136
7.2.2. Fight against Doping	143
7.2.3. Education and Training	145
7.2.4. Volunteering in Sport, active Citizenship and non-profit sport organisations	155

7.2.5. Social Inclusion, Integration and Equal Opportunities	160
7.2.6. Prevention of and fight against Racism and Violence in sport	165
7.2.7. Supporting sustainable development	169
7.3. The European influence on Greek sport policy	171
7.3.1. The Greek Sport Policy Agenda	171
7.3.2. Cooperation with other EU Member States	176
7.3.3. Participation in Structured Dialogue for Sport	179
7.3.4. An overview of the EU impact on the Greek Sport Policy	181

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: The way to the Future for Sport. What lies ahead?**

8.1. Overview	189
8.2. EU added value in Sport	189
8.3. New EU competence for Sport: Erasmus+ Programme	190
8.4. Topics for further EU consideration	196
8.5. Contemporary challenges in sport governance	198

## **CHAPTER NINE: Conclusion** 201

## **REFERENCES** 215

## **APPENDICES**

APPENDIX 1: Methodological Implications	238
APPENDIX 2: Sample of interview questions	241
APPENDIX 3: Sample of formal letters for interview permission	248

## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1: Documentation: Primary and secondary sources of evidence collected

Table 2: List of Interviewees

Table 3: European Integration: Lines of Argumentation

Table 4: Horizontal Europeanisation

Table 5: Allocation of Sport competences in the framework of the various governmental schemes in the period 2007-2013

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1: The organizational structure of the Directorate General responsible for Sport

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

CEC:	Commission of European Communities (same as EC)
CULT:	Committee of Culture and Education of the European Parliament
DG EAC:	Directorate General for Education and Culture
EACEA:	Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency
EC:	European Commission (COM)
ECJ:	European Court of Justice
EEC:	European Economic Community
ENGSO:	European Non Governing sport Organization
EOC:	European Olympic Committee
EP:	European Parliament
EU:	European Union
EYC:	European Council for Education, Youth and Culture
FIFA:	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GAISF:	General Association of International Sports Federations
GSS:	General Secretariat of Sport
GSY:	General Secretariat of Youth
HOC:	Hellenic Olympic Committee
IAAF:	International Association of Athletics Federation
IOA:	International Olympic Academy
IKY:	Foundation of State Scholarships
LLP:	Lifelong Learning Programme
MEDA:	Mediterranean Partners
MEP:	Member of European Parliament
NCCD:	National Council to Combat Doping
NCG:	National Committee of the Games
NCSP:	National Council of Sport Planning
GGG:	Gazette of the Greek Government
NFs:	National Federations
OJEU:	Official Journal of the European Union
OMC:	Open Method of Coordination
SCCV:	Standing Committee to Combat Violence

TFEU:	Treaty of the Functioning of the European Union
UEFA:	United European Football Association
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WADA:	World Anti-Doping Agency
WP:	White Paper on Sport

## **CHAPTER ONE: Introduction**

*“The [European] Union shall contribute to the promotion of sporting issues, while taking into account the specific nature of sport, its structure based on voluntary activity and its social and educational function”.*

*Lisbon Treaty 2009, Article 165*

### **1.1. Overview**

The first objective of this chapter is to identify the scope of the empirical research and the overall objectives of the thesis. In particular, this section provides a preliminary understanding of the overall project (the thesis), identifies the basic arguments and presents the outline of the research design indicating the main research questions. In addition, it is vital to determine the time frame of this research, present the main research hypotheses and acknowledge the points of concern and limitations of the study when research decisions were taken. The last part of this chapter explicates the reasoning for the selection of this topic and the rationale for the using the concept of Europeanisation as a theoretical framework for analysing the EU impact on national sport policy. At this stage, it is important to clarify what are the expected outcomes of this project based on the theoretical assumptions.

### **1.2. The Theme: Stating the research interest and the aims of the study**

This study deals with the concept of sport as a social good and it examines the development of the European sport policy. It further sheds light on the emergence of a sport policy in the EU as part of public policy-making and it examines the potential of the EU influence on the sport policy at national level through mediating factors. The analysis of EU impact on national sport policy will be guided by the following research questions: ‘What is the role of sport in Europe?’, ‘Why EU has an interest in sport?’, ‘Who are the actors involved in sport policy-making?’, ‘What actions does the EU take with regards to the social and educational function of sport?’. The theoretical framework will draw on the theories of European integration and especially the concept of Europeanisation, which is here understood as a ‘learning’ process for Member-States to adapt to EU developments in sport. In other words, the thesis will try to explain the domestic response to Europeanisation which is applied as a form of EU pressure for change.

This study deals with the EU sport policy where sport activity, as a form of leisure, is considered a social good rather than an economic or professional activity. For the purposes of this study, sport is divided in two main classes: ‘Sport for all’ and ‘professional sport’. In the first case, which is also the focus of this thesis, sport is presented as a social and cultural good with educational dimension. Whereas ‘Sport for all’ is vital for public health and social integration, professional sport concerns elite athletes and it involves an economic activity with specific regulations. So far, the economic policy in professional sport brought sporting rules and EU law into conjunction.

Over the last two decades, sport has attracted a great interest in the EU and has been a challenging issue on the EU agenda. Consequently, European sport policy regulation was the result of intense consultations and negotiations among European sport stakeholders and institutions. The main documents that shaped the current European sport policy and governance are the White Paper on Sport (Commission of the European Communities, 2007a) and the Lisbon Treaty of the Functioning of the European Union (European Union, 2007). These developments, together with the identification and promotion of the social and educational value of sport in the European society, have been the core reasons for the production of this dissertation.

### **1.3. Significance of the Study**

European integration has generated new EU competences that have brought changes in several areas of social and cultural life including sport. This new set of competences has increased interest in ‘*what is happening in Brussels*’ as the EU’s involvement and initiatives in sport have created new opportunities for Member States, such as funding, cooperation and networking, that allow the exchange ideas on sport policy improvement. This study offers an improved understanding of the dynamics of EU sport policy-making and of EU initiatives for the development of the social and educational dimension of sport.

The significance of this work lies on the fact that limited attention has been given to the European dimension of sport and to the national adaptation of the EU social and educational-oriented sport policy. Over the past decades, the emergence of the European Union and the development of international policy agendas have seriously undermined and challenged the social dimension of sport policy. However, the specific mechanisms through which international agendas and organisations influence national sport policies remain relatively



unexplored (see also Dale, 1999). This empirical study seeks to investigate the ways in which Member States respond and adapt to EU initiatives in the context of sport policy. In particular, using Greece as a case study and the concept of Europeanisation as a theoretical framework, the specific contribution of this research to the field of sport policy is to focus the discussion on the EU influence on the social and educational dimension of sport at national level.

In brief, the objective of this research is to provide a starting point for further analysis and reflection on the EU influence at national level. It is expected that this study will provide useful information to the European institutions for analysing and evaluating the effectiveness, the level of absorption and the incorporation of the European initiatives as well as the mechanisms of policy-making related to the social and educational function of sport such as networking and structured dialogue.

#### **1.4. Assumptions, Limitations and Time Frame**

Whereas the working hypothesis of this study is that there is a domestic change as a result of Europeanisation in the area of sport policy, the aim of the thesis is to identify the factors that explain domestic response to Europeanisation pressures and to determine whether the process should be characterized as inertia, retrenchment, absorption or transformation (Börzel, 2003; Radaelli, 2003). This study will further demonstrate that the mechanisms leading to EU convergence are interest negotiation, policy learning processes and diffusion of ideas (Radaelli, 2003b).

At this point, it should be recognized that European integration is just one among the several driving forces of domestic change. Europeanisation cannot be examined independently from other parallel processes such as globalisation, modernisation and domestic developments that also create adaptational pressures for change (see also Goetz, 2001, Ladi, 2006, Lavdas, 1997). Xenakis and Tsinisizelis (2006) stress that irrespectably of the phenomena of Europeanisation and/or globalisation, the EU has a strong position in global governance, exerting pressure through the traditional channels of international negotiation, promoting of international rules and norms, and creating supranational coalitions and participating in international networks. Yet, in this particular study, globalisation pressures are not being considered. Instead domestic change will only be examined in relation to the impact of EU on national sport policy-making and governance. that However, it is important to identify the

positions of each of the EU institutions, their specific competences in the field of sport and their cooperation or negotiation with domestic, transnational and international sport stakeholders, so as to be in a position to comment on the impact of their involvement in the policy field in question.

For the purposes of this dissertation, sport policy is examined as part of public policy with social and educational benefits while the economic activity and the regulation of professional sport is not in the interest of this thesis. In fact, the definition of the social aspects of sport is related to the health-promotion, educational, recreational, and cultural role of sport and is matching the term 'Sport for All'. Consequently, sport policy is examined in terms of enhancing public health, fighting doping, enhancing the role of sport in education, promoting volunteering and active citizenship, contributing to social inclusion, integration, and equal opportunities, fighting racism and violence, and supporting sustainable development which are also the main social axes of the White Paper on Sport.

Bearing in mind the constantly changing nature of sport policy-making in the EU, it is essential to set a time frame for this research. The publication of the White Paper on Sport in November 2007 is taken as the beginning of the period covered by this research. This is because most of the EU sport initiatives, which form the core of this research, such as the European Community funding Programmes, were included in the 2007 Action Plan 'Pierre de Coubertin' (Commission of European Communities, 2007b), and were completed in 2013. One may argue that EU sport consultation and involvement culminated with the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty in 2009. In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the driving forces of domestic change in the sport policy field, the analysis of European sport-related policy will extend beyond the brief period which forms the core of this study (2007-2013) and will cover developments both before and after.

### **1.5. Setting the Research Framework: Research Questions and Dissertation Outline**

The methodology of this study is based on qualitative data analysis and on the review of international scientific literature. Given the fact that little work has been undertaken in the analysis of sport policy in the Greek context, the research study may be described as exploratory, and thus the key issue is to address research questions, rather than, for example, a formal process of hypothesis testing. As a qualitative research, it follows a more unstructured approach of inquiry because it allows flexibility in all aspects of the research

process especially in this case where the investigation focuses on a problem, issue or phenomenon (such as the EU influence at national level) without any interest in quantifying it. Given the nature of the thesis and the associated research questions, this theoretically and methodologically-driven empirical research uses a mixture of primary sources (semi-structured interviews, official documents, etc.) and secondary literature (academic literature, press reports, etc.).

Based on the assumption of this study, which is if there is a change in the Greek sport social-related policy as a result of EU influence, the fixed variable is the EU initiatives and the key variable -defined as parameters which vary in quantity, intensity, amount or degree- is the expected change or the degree of influence in the national sport policy as a result of Europeanisation. As Bramham et al. (1993) argues, leisure policy is invariably subject to intervention, and that intervention not only restricts leisure opportunities, but also creates new opportunities. Clearly, formulating a national sport policy involves a set of agencies (institutions), actors, power relationships (networks), resources, decision-making processes, regulations or recommendations, particular interests and outcomes. All these key concepts are useful sources to reflect the elements of Europeanisation.

The following points will guide the objectives of the present study:

- 1) To identify the tools and mechanisms of Europeanisation in sport policy-making.
- 2) To discuss the degree of Europeanisation of Greek sport policy in relation to EU social and educational pressures in the field of sport.
- 3) To discuss the impact of Europeanisation, if any, and on which areas of social and educational-oriented sport policy.
- 4) To identify changes occurring in the values, norms, beliefs and preferences of national sport institutions and actors.
- 5) To identify the EU institutions and the key sport stakeholders involved in the sport policy-making.
- 6) To explain the influence of the Open Method of Coordination, as a mechanism of Europeanisation (Armstrong, 2010) in the national sport policy-making.

To reach the aforementioned objectives, the study will elaborate the following research questions:

- 1) Why the EU has an interest in the social and educational function of sport? What are the

main social problems Europe is facing and how they can be comforted through the social and educational instruments of sport?

2) How does the EU promote the social and educational role of sport? What difference did the White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty make in EU sport policy-making? Which were the EU actions recommended in the White Paper on Sport?

3) What is the context of the EU sport-related policy? Which are the key EU institutions and sport stakeholders in the European policy arena and what is their role in shaping the sport policy-making at European level?

4) What is the policy framework for the EU and Member-States' interaction?

5) How is sport policy structured in Greece? Who are the national key sport policy-makers?

6) Does the EU exert pressure on Member States for policy convergence in the field of sport and, if yes, how? What are the policy tools and the mechanisms?

7) Which European funding Programmes are applied to sport and which are the goals to be accomplished? How are these programmes implemented by Member States and especially in Greece?

8) What is the impact of the EU level sport policy at national level and especially in the case of Greece? Is there a change in Greek sport policy as a result of EU sports-related interventions (pressures)?

The structure of this doctoral thesis is organized in three parts. The first part presents an understanding of the significance of sport and its social dimension and it sets the chosen conceptual framework under which the development of sport policy in Europe will be studied. Furthermore, it presents the framework of analysis clarifying the methodological decisions taken to conduct this research and it reviews existing literature related to the explanation of EU impact at national level. The second part recounts the historical context of the emergence of the European dimension in sport and it discusses on the development of the EU sport-related policy. Special attention is given to the role of EU institutions and other sport stakeholders in the decision-making process for sport in terms of exerting pressure for domestic change. In this part, the landmarks towards the development of an EU level sport policy, the Bosman case, the White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty, are critically analysed. The third part outlines the public policy areas of EU involvement in relation to sport and it examines EU initiatives and recommendations related to the social and educational dimension of sport. The final part presents the national sport structure for decision-making process and it investigates the degree of adaptation to the EU

recommendations in the chosen case of Greece. What follows are some considerations for the future of sport and a conclusion of the overall project at hand.

In particular, the *next chapter*, on *The emergence of a policy for sport in Europe*, comments on the two main notions of this dissertation; Sport and the European Union. First of all, it is necessary to comprehend the significance of sport for the society in order to be able to explain the rationale for the European interest in the field on sport. A definition of sport, the distinction from elite to amateur sport performance and the specificity of sport are issues to be considered. Drawing on EU public policy-making, where sport is a social and cultural good, special attention is given to the social and educational value of sport as a form of 'Sport for All' rather than professional sport.

The *third chapter Building a framework for analysis*, presents the research design of the project, analyses the methodological tools of a qualitative case study, the resources of information (mainly interviews and documentation) and the process for analysing the data and other considerations regarding the reliability, the validity and the limitations of the study.

The *fourth chapter The theoretical perspective of the EU influence at national level*, focuses on the conceptual approach of the research. Reviewing the literature, European intervention in sport policy is examined under the spectrum of the theories of European integration. The chosen theoretical framework to examine the influence of EU at national level in the field of sport is the concept of Europeanisation.

*Chapter five* explores *The political and structural framework for building an EU sport-related policy*. It identifies the European Union's political and legal system that determines the process of sport decision-making. A significant part of the chapter is devoted to the analysis of the emergence of sport-related policy in the EU agenda. Particular attention is given to the key EU institutions and sport stakeholders involved in the policy-making process for sport. In sequence, reference is made to the formation of the sport policy at national level, with particular focus on the case of Greece. Before, examining the degree of Europeanisation in Greek sport policy as a result of the EU influence in the social and educational dimension of sport, it is essential to describe the sport policy structure, legislative framework, the process of decision-making and the domestic stakeholders involved in Greece.

*The evolving European policy on Sport* is depicted in *chapter six*, which explores the *historical background and the future opportunities*. It emphasises the most important factors that influenced the development of the EU sport policy, the Bosman Ruling, the White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty. Mainly, it presents a critical analysis of the background, the content, the future opportunities as well as the consultations among key sport stakeholders that preceded and followed the adoption of these two documents. Finally, reference is made on the EU funding opportunities for Member States, such as the European Community Programmes related to sport, as a tool of Europeanisation to bring domestic change.

The next part consists of the empirical analysis of Europeanisation of sport policy. This is examined within the context of the theoretical framework outlined in chapter four. In detail, *chapter seven* showcases *the EU intervention* in the domestic sport policy fields with a special interest *in the social and educational dimension of sport*. The sport-related public policy areas of EU involvement under investigation are public health, doping, education, volunteering, active citizenship, social inclusion and sustainable development. This section highlights the EU influences in the Greek sport policy agenda and the outcome of structured dialogue and of the cooperation with other Member States. Consequently, this part of the thesis assesses the impact of the EU adaptational pressures on Greece investigating if there is convergence between the EU and national sport policy, at what level it occurs, what are the mechanisms for exerting influence at domestic level and what the adaptation outcome might be.

*Chapter eight* provides an outlook on the future of sport in European Union as well as some thoughts for further consideration. The EU's added value in sport is depicted as well as the new EU competence for sport, which provides further channels of EU involvement and support through the Erasmus+ Programme. At this section of the dissertation, issues for further EU consideration are identified with respect to mainstreaming the social and educational dimension of sport in a common EU policy. Lastly, *Chapter nine* concludes the dissertation with a general overview of the project and the main answers to the research questions.

The general objective of the present work is to structure and guide the empirical observation of the EU policy in the field of sport, the rationale for the policy decisions taken and the influence of EU pressure at national level with the intension to facilitate the extraction of

generalisable conclusions. Particularly, this research contextualises EU sport-related policy in relation to the social and educational dimension of sport as recommended in the White Paper on Sport, it identifies key actors and EU institutions in the discourse surrounding the policy-making process for sport, it analyses the policy developments in the field of sport and it illustrates the changes occurred in the Greek sport context due to Europeanisation pressures.

### **1.6. The choice and use of Europeanisation**

The theoretical framework of this thesis will be based on the concept of Europeanisation. The choice of Europeanisation is based on the adaptability and compatibility of the framework to the current sport policy structure in the EU. The use of a relatively new theoretical approach in the case of sport derives from the need to explore the dynamics of domestic change as a result of the EU impact on Member State sport policy through a coherent theoretical framework provided by Europeanisation. It is a methodologically challenging framework but with a clear structure and approach to the research question, it will be possible to identify and present the EU direction towards sport and analyse the elements affecting the Greek sport policy. The present thesis adds to the knowledge that a degree of EU pressure is exerted on Greece in order to achieve convergence in the area of the social-related sport policy.

European integration and its impact on domestic policy change form the theoretical point of departure for this thesis. In this context, Europeanisation takes place within the EU policy process and it can be either a new construction of rules and procedures or an institutionalisation of shared beliefs and norms. After the new policy process has been agreed upon EU level, it is then incorporated into domestic structures and policies willingly or reluctantly (Radaelli in Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003). For the requirements of this research the European policy for sport is framed by the 2009 Lisbon Treaty and the White Paper on Sport and the study examines how domestic sport policy is adjusted. Europeanisation is not easily tamed and in order to detect the effects of Europeanisation, the analysis will address all possible outcomes (inertia, absorption, transformation or retrenchment). In other words, it is interesting to see how Member States respond to the dynamics of Europeanisation, and not merely if there is a fit or misfit between European and domestic policies (Radaelli in Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003). Additionally, the mechanisms of Europeanisation such as adaptational pressure, exchange of best practices and diffusion of ideas will be thoroughly analysed. Apart from that, mimesis and/or coercion are tools of EU adjustment which the Member States have to relate to when facing the effects of Europeanisation (Radaelli in

Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003; Schmidt, 2002).

The different approaches to Europeanisation are explained in depth in the next chapter and focus is placed on relevant research conducted by several scholars, including Claudio M. Radaelli (2000, 2003), Vivien A. Schmidt (2002; Schmidt and Radaelli, 2004) and Tanja Börzel (1999, 2003, 2005; Börzel and Risse, 2000). In addition, the present study takes due account of critical voices from R. Parrish (2003a, 2003b) and B. Garcia (2006, 2007, 2008) regarding the specific field of sport policy-making in European level.

### **1.7. Anticipated implications of the findings**

Sport is a policy area that has experienced considerable agenda expansion in recent years at European level. This is because many of the rules, policies and programs of the European Union have an interest in sport or generally have an impact on the sports world. In general, the EU intervention in the area of sport has many applications. The EU pressure for change can be exerted through the national participation in EU sport-related initiatives as well as in other policies that can incorporate physical activity in their actions, promoting the social values of sport, such as education, vocational training, youth, health, social inclusion policy etc. The EU contribution can be explained through the mechanisms of Europeanisation such as the exchange of best practices, policy diffusion and participation in other supportive activities at European level, such as consultation, structured dialogue, networking and funding.

The use of EU funding opportunities and the identification of the Open Method of Coordination as a channel for policy transfer and discourse in the European sport community are issues that need further investigation and consideration from the Member States. In this study, it is assumed that although EU has placed a great emphasis on involving sport in Community actions policy, the utilisation of EU funding opportunities for the development of the social value of sport as well as the participation in structured dialogue through networks for sport present great variation among Member States. Additionally, it is expected that the Europeanisation of the Greek sport policy will reflect a horizontal process of 'learning' with absorption of 'soft-law' instruments such as EU values, beliefs and perceptions for the sport key actors while limited change is anticipated in the rules, institutions and policies at the domestic level sport policy.



In conclusion, given that the interest of the thesis is on the origins, evolution and consequences of the intervention of EU institutions in social and educational-related sport policy at national level, the guiding questions of this research are: How and why has Europeanisation occurred, and via what mechanism? What factors explain the domestic response to Europeanisation pressures and how should the process be characterized? It is highly important to mention that Europeanisation is seen as a dynamic process that can take place at different levels depending on the Member States and its willingness to accept EU influence, thus the dissertation will focus on the changes occurring in the Greek sport policy over a specific period of time that is 2007-2013. Summarising, this chapter presented the research topic and the main research concepts. Additionally, it identified the main research questions which will frame this thesis in an attempt to explain the impact of the EU-level sport policy-making on Greek sport policy.

## **CHAPTER TWO: The Emergence of a Policy for Sport in Europe**

### **2.1. Overview**

This chapter aims to provide an understanding of the multidimensional role of sport and examine the nature of the European dimension of sport. Therefore, before examining the EU developments in the field of sport, it is essential to understand the values inherent in sport from a social and educational perspective and explain the reasoning for the increasing EU interest in sport.

### **2.2. Why Sport is so great for a society?**

Involvement in physical activity and sport has positive effects in the physical, emotional and mental development of a human being (Bailey, Malina & Mirwald, 1986; Christodoulos, Douda, Polykratis and Tokmakidis, 2006) conducting in the formation of a multifaceted and harmonious personality (Fox, 1997; Papaioannou, 1997; Whitehead & Corbin, 1997). Apart from personal development and integration, sport contributes to social and economic development and multicultural understanding, offering significant benefits to the society (Hatzigeorgiadis, Morela, Elbe, Kouli & Sanchez, 2013). Additionally, sport is an important factor for improving the quality of life and social well-being and supply to smooth many social problems that threatens the balance of the society.

Sport is not only an economic activity but also a social and cultural phenomenon embracing all European citizens. The European Sports Charter, adopted by the Council of Europe in 1992, defines sport as:

*“all form of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels”* (Council of Europe, 1992, European Sports Charter Art. 2.1).

The following statement in the Olympic Charter reveals the unified and universal role of sport:

*“The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practiced...”, “without*

*discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play”*  
(International Olympic Committee, 2011, p. 15).

According to the European Commission (1998b) the value of sport for the individual, the society and the globe in general is indisputable as it serves five functions: a) An educational function, ensuring balanced personal development and cultivating moral values such as fair play, solidarity and team spirit; b) A public health function, improving people’s health and maintaining quality of life; c) A social function, promoting a more inclusive society, combating negative social phenomena such as intolerance, racism, xenophobia, violence, alcohol and drug abuse and providing employment and voluntary opportunities enhancing social solidarity; d) A cultural function, integrating people from different cultures, enhancing peace and the understanding among nations and protecting the environment which is part of sustainable development; e) A recreational function, as a vital leisure activity providing personal and combined entertainment.

The social and educational values of sport are appreciated from the ancient years till nowadays. The spirit of Olympism emphasizes the moral principles of participating in sports towards the development of a peaceful society (Parry 1998, Council of Europe, 2001, International Olympic Committee, 2011). The educational contribution of sport is also highly evident in the development of school curriculum for physical education (Melograno, 1997). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), recognising the positive effect of sport activities, proclaimed the year 2005 as International Year of Sport and Physical Education (United Nation, 2003, Resolution A/RES/58/5). Additionally, the European Commission declared 2004 European Year of Education through Sport (European Communities, 2003, Decision No 291/2003/EC) encouraging cooperation between educational and sport institutions in order to take better advantage of the sport values especially for young people. Last but not least, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has established the Youth Olympic Games in order to educate and influence young athletes to play an active role in their communities and adopt the Olympic values (International Olympic Committee, 2007).

By bringing European citizens together through sporting competitions and recreational activities, sport fosters active citizenship while it also contributes to the social integration and

the emergence of a truly European identity and European citizenship which are some of the main aims of the EU. The significance of sport to EU citizens and the possible contribution of sport to the establishment of the European identity is also apparent in the data collected by the Eurobarometer on Sport and Physical Activity (European Commission, 2010), which demonstrates that about one third of the EU population is organized in sport clubs and about 65 percent practices sport on a regular basis. The increasing intervention of the EU in sport-related matters reflects this multidimensional nature of sport which “*contributes to the European Union's strategic objectives of solidarity and prosperity in the European society*” (European Commission, 2007, p. 3). Jean Monnet, one of the founders of the European Community, stressed that in order for the European Communities to become a true 'Union', the participant countries have to create a sense of ‘European-ness’ (Gowland, O’Neill & Reid, 1995). Thus sport is considered an essential means for bridging national and cultural divides (European Commission, 1998).

### **2.3. The European Union and Sport: Why bother?**

The value of sport in modern society has been the subject of extended discussions at national and European level as it is an important factor not only for the Member States’ policy but also for the broader policy-making of the European Union. As mentioned in the ‘White Paper on Sport’, sport plays a vital role in the field of public health, education, active citizenship, social inclusion, volunteering, employment and generally in social cohesion, (European Commission, 2007). Nonetheless, sport also contributes to the establishment of world peace in understanding between nations and different cultures and to the growth of the global economy. Yet, “*sport is also confronted with threats and challenges which have emerged in European society, such as commercialisation, exploitation of young players, doping, racism, violence, corruption and money laundering*” (European Commission, 2007, p. 11). The European Commission (2007) has identified the need for involvement in sporting issues in order to provide strategic orientation on the role of sport in Europe and support the ‘good governance’ of sport at national level. The “*rapid [economic] development of sport, especially professional sport, and the important place occupied by sport in society*” (European Commission 1998a, p. 3) are some of the most important reasons for the EU intervention in this complicated area of policy-making.

At this point it is vital to understand the complexity of sport in order to explain the development of the EU policy on sport. It is necessary to differentiate between the three types

of sport, namely amateur, professional and ‘Sport for All’, in order to understand how and why the EU has become involved in sport related matters over the last decades. According to Garcia (2008) a) ‘Sport for All’ defines the physical activity that serves leisure or health benefits, such as personal, mental and social development or integration, b) ‘amateur sport’ is organized in a competition base without economic benefits, as for example fencing or rowing and c) ‘professional sport’ is a business or else a pure sport industry with great economic activity: This is the case of football which can be considered a competing entertainment with large media coverage and public attention. Garcia (2008) calls that type of sport as “*sportainment*”, i.e. a fusion of sport, industry and entertainment. It is clear that the increasing commercial and economic development of sport was one of the reasons that brought sport issues in the agenda of the European Union (Garcia, 2006). However, it is vital to distinguish the economic from the societal role of sport, outlined in the White Paper on Sport. Thus, it should be clarified from the beginning of this thesis that the research interest will concentrate only on the social dimension of sport and its educational and cultural after-effect and not the economic activity of professional sport.

Acknowledging the significant educational and cultural role of sport, the European Union has enhanced its involvement in sport matters, by exploiting all available opportunities to promote the social, educational and cultural dimension of sport within a given institutional framework. Furthermore, the EU ’s actions were generated by various threats and challenges in contemporary European society, such as commercial pressure, exploitation of young players, doping, racism, violence, corruption and money-laundering, which are issues that need to be regulated under the European Union umbrella.

Sport in Europe has become an area of growing political interest as it combines economic activity and socio-cultural significance. The recent advancement of the integration process in the European Union has generated new opportunities for sport. Specifically, until 2009 the European Union had no legal competence in the field of sport and the policy of sport was formed at national level by the Member States. The main EU influence was the promotion of sport-related aspects in competences (rules, policies, programmes) of other policy areas such as health, education and youth, competition, Internal Market, employment, social affairs and others. Nevertheless, the vast majority of sport-related competences and actions remain in the hands of the Member States and sports organisations.

Two important facts have changed sport policy in Europe (Sakka & Chatzigianni, 2012a): The first is the White Paper on Sport (Commission of the European Communities, 2007a) which appointed various dimensions of sport and encouraged the visibility of sport in other EU policies. The second is article 165 of the Lisbon Treaty (European Union, 2007) which provided the EU with a supportive, funding and maintaining role in sport. Additionally, national governments have started acknowledging several opportunities for mutual co-operation in terms of mainstreaming sport and enhancing its social value for European citizens (Sakka & Chatzigianni, 2012b). In other words, sport is now included in the EU agenda (see also Garcia, 2007) and the foundations for an EU sport policy seem to have been set.

The EU declared its political position and strategic direction for sport in the ‘2007 White Paper on Sport’. This initiative aimed at the promotion of sport in EU policy, the integration of sport into existing and planned programs and EU measures, the implementation of action plans relating to sport and the encouragement of structured dialogue and cooperation on sport at EU level. In particular, the accompanying paper of the White Paper on Sport, called Action Plan “Pierre de Coubertin”, recommends actions to promote the societal role of sport, the economic dimension of sport and the organisation of sport.

#### **2.4. Sport as part of EU Public Policy-making**

Public policy is a more general term and it refers to a set of government decisions concerning the selection of goals and the methods of attaining them, within a specified situation or for a problem at hand. These may be expressed in a variety of forms including law, legislation, executive orders, court decisions or decisions of administrators (Ambercombie, Hill & Turner, 1984). It can cover a wide range of policy-making about economic development, environment, culture, agriculture, industry, freedom of information, population, sustainability, social security. However, the most common issues addressed by public policy refer to crime, education, foreign policy, health, social welfare and of course sport. In terms of public policy, sport can be considered under the cultural policy field or social policy field, as the parameters of the current research focus on aspects of cultural and social life related to sport. Analysing the relationship of sport with other policy areas Hooliham (2005) observes that:

*“Despite the increasing involvement of governments in sport, and the high level of academic interest in sports-related public policy issues such as equity,*

*doping, harassment and violence, there is remarkably little analysis of sport policy that utilizes the major models and frameworks for analysis widely adopted in other policy areas”.*

In brief, sport can be perceived as a cultural and social phenomenon, thus it can be applied to public policy. The present study adopts a distinction between the various functions of sport in relation to ‘Sport for All’ and concentrates on health, education, social integration and culture which also consist aspects of EU public policy. The relation of sport with each of these EU policy dimensions will be discussed in the following section below.

#### **2.4.1. Sport & Culture**

Historically, the idea of European integration was built upon economic and commercial interests but lately the idea of culture has been introduced as a key component of the integration process (Field, 1998). The EU started involving citizens in order to develop a sense of belonging or, in other words, a common ‘European identity’ preserving the diversity of national cultures (Commission of European Communities, 1998). One of the European Community's founders, Jean Monnet, stressed the binding force of culture for the European Union, saying *“if I should start it all over again, I would start with culture”* (Papcke, 1992, p. 68). In this context, EU has gradually acknowledged the potential cultural importance of sport as part of the process of EU integration and of the formation of a European identity.

The development of the EU intervention in cultural policy has been a slow process (Terzakis, 2008). The importance of preserving and fostering cultural diversity within the Union was finally given recognition in 1992, with the Treaty of Maastricht (European Union, 1992, Article 128 TFEU) stating that the Community shall *“contribute to the flowering of the cultures of the member states, while respecting their national and regional diversity, and, at the same time, bring their common cultural heritage to the fore”*. This statement was an important step towards the development of a European cultural policy with the intention to promote the European identity and European citizenship and eventually lead to cultural convergence.

Cultural policy has been deeply involved in the economic and social life of Europe performing in aspects of education, arts and sport, where the latter is in the interest of this study. The report of the Committee on a ‘People’s Europe’ (Adonnino, 1985) explicitly

recognised the cultural significance of sport stressing that sport is “*an important forum for communication among peoples*” and that it should be harnessed to the construction of a people’s Europe through the organisation for instance of “*European Community events such as cycle and running races through European countries*”. The South African President Nelson Mandela had stated: “*Sport is probably the most effective means of communication in the modern world. It cuts across all cultural and language barriers to reach out directly to billions of people world-wide*”. The European Commission (EC) states that sport bridges national and cultural divides, it helps social integration and brings people together as players and spectators, promoting European cooperation and cultural understanding (Commission of European Communities, 1998c). Thus, the Commission has decided to intervene in this field because it perceives sport as a means of cultural exchange and as a tool to boost a sense of European identity and European citizenship, enhancing not only a cultural but a wider European integration. Vivian Reding, the ex-EU commissioner for Education and Culture, mentioned that:

*“Across of borders sport is a symbol of universality, as it brings together nationalities, politics and cultures. [...] sport is a great tool to construct European identity. Therefore we should fully make use of this tool to promote pan-European unity. In short, sport can be considered a vehicle for Europeanisation”* (European Year of Education through Sport, 2004).

European cultural policy can be perceived as a model for the formation of a European sport policy (Terzakis, 2008). As Gyss (2008) notes the fields of sport and culture have many things in common: a) They are both recognised as being different from other sectors: The concepts of ‘cultural exception’ and this of ‘specificity of sport’ characterise the peculiarity of these sectors; b) They both have considerable economic importance. A study for the European Commission in 2006 demonstrated that the cultural sector contributed 2.6% to the gross domestic product (GDP) of the EU. According to the White Paper, sport represents 3.7% of the EU’s GDP, but the actual contribution of sport in the European economy is still to be measured; c) Culture as well as sport are integral parts of people’s everyday lives. People are actively engaged in both activities and virtually everybody is involved or has an interest in the other. d) Culture and sport are ideal tools for promoting dialogue and integration and can play a decisive role in building European identity and bringing the European Union and its institutions closer to the citizens. The new European Treaty treats both areas for developing European policy equally. However, the first time sport was



included in a European Treaty was in the 2009 Lisbon Treaty, while culture had already been included in the 1992 Treaty of Maastricht. In this context, it is argued that sport, as a cultural tool, should receive increased attention in the EU public policy.

#### **2.4.2. Sport & Society**

Sport is considered as an important factor for social development (see also DaCosta & Miragaya, 2002; Ingham & Loy, 1993), thus it can be examined in relation to European social policy. Despite the importance of sport in promoting societal values, it was not until 1990 that the political processes and the societal impact related to sport drew the attention of the academic community.

At this point, it is essential to define social policy and how the term is applied to sport. According to some scholars, there are mainly two definitions of social policy; the ‘Anglo-Saxon’ and the ‘continental’ versions. In the Anglo-Saxon model, social policy is closely connected to social services, including, inter alia, health care, social security and education. The major element in this social policy tradition is the efficiency of the system (Kleinman, 2002). In contrast, in continental Europe, social policy is mostly associated with institutions and labour market relations, e.g. the rights of workers and framework agreements negotiated by the social partners (Kleinman, 2002). One way of understanding social policy is in terms of efficiency, whether it entails the provision of services or the output of the economy. Another way of justifying social policy is in terms of solidarity. This term is often used in EU terminology and refers to cooperation, a sense of community and the provision of services (Kleinman 2002; Schmidt, 2002). For the purpose of this study, it is preferred to use the understanding of social policy as it is used in continental Europe. Besides, the complexity and the enormous width of social policy have forced the research to narrow its focus to issues that relate to the social function of sport, such as health, education, social inclusion etc. as they are promoted by EU sport policy-making (see also ‘*European Model of Sport*’, European Commission, 1998). Social policy is more specific; it covers fields which relate more directly to social equality and it is expressed in laws, policies, and practices that affect the social relationships of individuals and their relationship to the society.

Another approach defines ‘social policy’ as actions (guidelines, principles, legislation, funding and activities) that affect the well-being of members of a society through shaping the distribution of and access to goods and resources in that society (Cheyne, O’Brien and

Belgrave, 2005). The goal of social policy is to redistribute resources and reduce inequalities, providing to weak and vulnerable groups in society, so that more people can share in the benefits of economic growth (Skille, 2009). Consequently, social policy is primarily used to define the role of the state in relation to the welfare of its citizens (Hill, 1997). Additionally, social policy is of increased relevance not only with regards to welfare but also in the fields of, inter alia, social security, health, education, social care and protection of the environment and employment. It also applies to areas such as ageing and young people, disability, leisure, equal opportunities, gender, poverty, social inclusion and racism. Considering sport as social policy requires a broad understanding of the concept. For example, the idea of “Sport for All” can be perceived as a social provision to enhance the welfare of the state (Skille, 2009).

Overall, the widening and deepening of the Union's remit in public policy has inevitably various implications for the development and promotion of sport. As the interest of this thesis is the social and educational function of sport, it will be demonstrated below how sport is related to the EU public policy as a tool to achieve prosperity and equality for the European Community.

## **2.5. Building a European Dimension of Sport**

The need for an EU policy on sport derives from the key role sport plays in society not only as an integral part of education, healthy living, cultural life and entertainment but also in terms of promoting social cohesion and integration. "*Sport is a growing social and economic phenomenon which makes an important contribution to the European Union's strategic objectives of solidarity and prosperity*" (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). As EU policy in sport was being developed, the following concerns emerged. The first was the application of the 1957 Treaty of Rome including its provisions on competition policy and free movement of labour (establishing economic integration). The second was the promotion of the social and cultural objectives related to sport in order to maximise the social benefits of sport and increase social cohesion and European solidarity through sport (enhancing social integration) (Brown, 2000, Parrish, 2001). As long as sport constitutes an economic activity<sup>1</sup>, EU legislation on sport falls within the scope of competition law and internal market regulations. Nevertheless, the EU could not neglect the whole range of socially valuable

---

<sup>1</sup> A wide range of issues that are essential to the organisation of sport such as the composition of national teams, the regulations for the status and transfer of players, doping, broadcasting rights of sport events, government subsidies to sport and the financing of sport through gambling, are increasingly governed by Community law (Gyss, 2008).

functions fulfilled by sport.

Consequently, although there were no legally binding Treaty provisions, the Commission responded to socio-cultural pressures by recognising the social, cultural, educational and health qualities of sport through Declarations. Indeed, EU leaders gave a political signal that they wished to recognise the wider integrationalist role of sport by including a Declaration on Sport in the 1997 Amsterdam Treaty. This declaration stresses the social dimension of sport, in particular its role in forging a common European identity and bringing people together. It further calls upon the European institutions to listen to sport organisations when deliberating on matters of importance to the world of sport and recommends that special attention be paid to amateur sport. Recognising its important social, educational and cultural functions, the 2001 Nice Treaty also includes a Declaration on the 'specific characteristics of sport' provides guidance on the application of EU law to the sports sector, respecting the principle of subsidiarity and the autonomy of sporting organizations and acknowledging that sporting organisations and the Member States have the primary responsibility in the conduct of sporting affairs.

The adoption of the 2007 White Paper of Sport and the ratification of the 2009 Lisbon Treaty can serve as a good starting point for sport to be included in the public policy of the European Union. Regarding the social dimension of sport, the Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin recommends EU sport-related initiatives that can be supported by a large number of other EU policy areas including, public health, education, training, youth, equal opportunities, employment, environment, culture, etc. However, the ability of the EU to allocate financial resources to sport and to develop a coherent policy on sport has met with constitutional difficulties given the absence of a Treaty competence for sport (Parrish et. al, 2010). The 2009 Treaty of Lisbon tried to fill this gap by giving the EU a new competence to support, coordinate, supplement and finance the actions of the Member States in the field of sport, promoting sporting issues and developing the European dimension in sport. It is significant that the Lisbon Treaty seems to contribute to the development of a common EU sports policy, shifting the sport policy from EU sports law towards a socio-cultural model of regulation (see also Parrish, 2003a).

The current legislative framework for sport indicates that EU level sport policy has no specific legal base and is therefore currently governed by general provisions of the Treaty on

the internal market, by the jurisprudence of the European Court of Justice (ECJ) and by the decisions of the European Commission. The Treaty of Lisbon went even further in recognising sport as a strand of EU policy. It includes sport among the areas in which the EU can take supporting, coordinating or complementary action and again makes specific reference to its social and educational functions. So, it can be stated that sport, whenever representing an economic activity, falls under the scope of EC rules. Whenever EU deals with the social, educational and cultural aspects of sport, it acts under the various Treaty provisions and Declarations. However, the effect of these EU supportive -rather than policy- actions can have important consequences not only for sport governing bodies but also for national sports policies, which is the inquiry of this study.

Summarising, this chapter identified the values inherent in sport, it explained the nature of the 'European interest for sport' and it related sport as a social, cultural and educational means to EU public policy in the light of the development of a European dimension of sport.

## **CHAPTER THREE: Building a Framework for Analysis**

### **3.1. Overview**

This section shows how the research findings will be analysed and clarifies the ways to safeguard the reliability and validity of the results. The strategy for data analysis also follows the theoretical propositions used for the purpose of the present study, namely the concept of Europeanisation. The approach for data analysis is based on the framework analysis for organizing and interpreting interview data and on documentary analysis for deducing inference from official documents, archives and records in accordance with key issues and themes. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a brief reference to the limitations of this research.

### **3.2. Research Strategy: A Case Study Research**

Case study as an exploratory research strategy has been explored in depth by many academics (Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 1995, 2008; Thomas, 2011; Yin, 1999). Case studies look at individuals or organisations from the multiple perspectives of key actors. These perspectives help build a detailed understanding of the experiences, the outcomes and the intervention of a specific case, where a case can be an individual, phenomenon, situation, enterprise, project, etc. (Yin, 2003). According to Eisenhardt (1989, p. 534), case study research can be defined as “*a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings*”. This particular research strategy is based on the practices of Robert Yin (1981, 1984, 1999, 2003) and uses the case of Greece to examine in depth the effect of Europeanisation of sport policy.

Case study research is the preferred strategy when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context and when the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and the context (Yin, 2003). Stake (1995) argues that the advantage of the case study approach is that it keeps the phenomenon under investigation in its appropriate environmental context, minimising researcher bias and maximising the retention of spatially and temporally significant factors (Stake, 1995). The detailed qualitative accounts often produced in case studies not only help to explore or describe the data in real-life environment, but also help to explain the complexities of real-life situations. Clearly, the function of case

studies in research is to identify phenomena and explain meanings, in order to establish relationships and configurations. In line with this methodological approach, it is argued that understanding the EU impact on Greek sport policy requires analysis of the policy development over time and in the current environment.

There are several categories of case studies<sup>2</sup> (McDonough & McDonough 1997; Stake 1995). Yin (1984, 1994, 2003) categorizes case studies as explanatory, exploratory or descriptive. *Explanatory* is the type of case study that seeks to explain in depth the presumed causal links of an event or setting in real-life interventions. *Exploratory* is the type of case study that explores a new field of research in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes. *Descriptive case study* is used to describe a phenomenon in detail and to investigate it in its natural setting.

In this study, applied research is conducted in order to solve specific, practical questions for policy formulation, administration and understanding of a phenomenon. The first part is based on a descriptive research, where the historical context of EU intervention in sport is presented and analysed. It is an attempt to describe systematically a phenomenon and provide information about the formation of an EU sport policy. The next part presents an explanatory research which tries to clarify why and how there is an interaction between Greece and EU in sport matters and what the impact is. Research questions, such as “how Greek sport policy is influenced by EU?” and “why EU intervenes in sport?” reveal the explanatory approach of the study. One may say that this study explains the ‘operational links’, the relations, the procedures and the clues in terms of the Europeanisation of the Greek sport policy. It could also be called an exploratory research as it explores an area where little is known such as the social and educational dimension of sport in the EU and it investigates the possibilities of undertaking a particular research study such as examining the impact of the phenomenon in the case of Greece. In practice, it confirms the conception that most studies are a combination of the above three categories.

---

<sup>2</sup> McDonough and McDonough (1997) suggest other categories that include interpretive and evaluative case studies. Through interpretive case studies, the researcher aims to interpret the data by developing conceptual categories, supporting or challenging the assumptions made regarding them. In evaluative case studies, the researcher goes further by adding their judgement to the phenomena found in the data. Stake (1995) distinguishes three types of case studies: the intrinsic, the instrumental and the collective. In an intrinsic case study, a researcher examines the case for its own sake. In an instrumental case study, the researcher selects a small group of subjects in order to examine a certain pattern of behaviour. In a collective case study, the researcher coordinates data from several different sources. Unlike intrinsic case studies which set to solve the specific problems of an individual case, instrumental and collective case studies may allow for the generalisation of findings to a bigger population.

According to Densombe (2000) and Finn (2000), ‘a single-case study research’ has many advantages: a) It is especially appropriate for small-scale research and it facilitates the study of complex phenomena within their contexts using a variety of data sources, allowing multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood and b) it gives an opportunity to go into depth with the topic in question, to educe a great amount of data over a period of time and to measure the rate of implementation more significantly than would have been the case with a large quantitative analysis.

These advantages are fully acknowledged and taken on board for carrying out this research. In this study, the use of a case study research gives the researcher the advantage to investigate the phenomenon of the EU impact at national level and to concentrate deeper on the specific characteristics and peculiarities of the Greek sport context. Specifically, it provides an insight of how and at what level of convergence between EU and Greek sport policy is achieved. It also provides information on the configuration of actors involved in the sport policy process at EU and national level and on the degree of involvement of Greek sport authorities in the sport-related actions recommended by EU.

One of the most quoted case study methodologists, Yin (1994) identifies two distinctions for addressing a research design for case studies. The classification is built upon a primary distinction between *holistic* and *embedded*, and a secondary distinction between *single* and *multiple case studies*. The same case study may relate to only one unit (holistic) or may involve more than one unit of analysis (embedded). Single case is used to confirm or challenge a theory, or to represent a unique or extreme case (Yin, 1994). A multiple case study enables the researcher to explore differences within and between cases. The goal is to replicate findings across cases. In political sciences the use of multiple-case studies is known as comparative study (Yin, 1994). This study adopts an embedded analysis (Yin, 1994) and attention has been given to the actions taken from the Greek sport authorities to promote the social and educational function of sport. It also adopts a single-case study, with the intention to explain the impact of the phenomenon in one single case that is Greece.

Despite these advantages, case studies have received criticisms. Case study methodology has always been criticised for its lack of rigour and the tendency for a researcher to have a biased interpretation of the data (Yin, 1984). Another problematic issue with the application of the

case-study method refers to the nature of sport policy-making and the focus on the level of change. As discussed above, sport policy is seen as a process of continuous struggles and negotiations between various actors and change over time, while the case study provides a snap-shot picture of the issue under study.

Grounds for establishing reliability and generality are also subjected to skepticism when a small sampling is deployed. In particular, Yin (1984) discusses three types of arguments against case study research. First, case studies are often accused of lack of rigour. He notes that *“too many times, the case study investigator has been sloppy, and has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions”* (Yin, 1984, p. 21). Second, case studies provide very little basis for scientific generalisation since they use a small number of subjects, e.g. single case study is conducted with only one subject. Third, case studies are often labeled as being too long, difficult to conduct and producing a massive amount of documentation (Yin, 1984). However, this danger can be limited when the data is managed and organised systematically, which is a constant concern of this study.

As mentioned above, single-case study approach is also criticised for the inability to generalise the results (Tellis, 1997; Yin, 1984). Yin (1993) considered case methodology ‘microscopic’ because of the limited sampling cases. One-off cases are seen as opportunistic and unique, rather than representative for the phenomena under question. It would be wrong to conclude from a single case, for example, that all Member states are similarly influenced by EU and equally participate in EU actions. The degree of generalisation can be at theoretical, rather than at quantitative or numerical level.

### **3.3. Case Selection**

The selection of sport as a policy area for investigation lies on a number of reasons. First, the recent developments on sport at European level, especially after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty, provide a new competence for sport. Second, sport policy is a particularly interesting field for the study of Europeanisation because it concerns the member state’s sovereign discretion. Third, there is still limited empirical evidence of European influences on national sport policies especially regarding the social and educational aspects of sport. Therefore, the need for more comprehensive and comparative data to assess the nature and the extent of Europeanisation of national sport policies is extremely pertinent.



A further reason for selecting this field of study is the fact that the social and educational function of sport in the Greek policy making is a challenging, unique and original topic for investigation. Greece is chosen as a sample application for this study on the ground that it is an example of a Member State that interacts, affects and is being influenced by EU context and decision-making system. The reasons for choosing to examine Greek sport policy are various and have to do with academic, professional and personal interests.

From the academic perspective, Greece has a long history and tradition in sport from the birth of Olympic Games, to the establishment of Olympic values and from the participation in sport excellence to the development of sport as part of community life. However, the lack of financial resources for sport, the lack of accessibility in sport for people with disabilities, the low incorporation of sport in health issues, the declining school sport, hooliganism, racism and doping are some phenomena that plague Greek sport and restrict its potentials as a social good. Bearing these assumptions in mind, I conducted this research with the aspiration to add to existing scientific knowledge and offer valuable information and provide useful conclusions for the development of the Greek sport policy within a European framework of interaction. There is a wish to stimulate national sport decision makers, key actors and authorities, to share knowledge about funding opportunities, networks, cooperation with other countries and to present the conditions and opportunities for developing a concrete sport policy with social and educational dimension.

Additionally, I have been driven by my personal interest to investigate Greek sport policy due to the fact that my academic background as well as my profession inspired me to seek a higher degree of involvement in sport from physical education and sport management to sport policy-making and sport governance. Apart from my personal interest and academic background, the accessibility to Sport Authorities and my familiarity with the Greek sport model as a Greek citizen and active person in sport matters were vital elements for conducting this research.

#### **3.4. Research Methods: Qualitative Approach**

Qualitative approach deals effectively with the complexity of reality because it is a more flexible and less structured method, with the advantage of providing large volumes of rich data obtained from limited number of individuals (Walker, 1985). It explains a process or the 'how' and 'why' of a given phenomenon and it provides the necessary exploratory tools to

achieve a clear picture of the process (Symon & Cassel, 1998). Qualitative data involve in-depth descriptions of circumstances, people, interactions, observed behaviours, events, attitudes, thoughts and beliefs and direct quotes from people who have experienced the phenomenon (Patton, 2002).

In this study, it is argued that qualitative analysis is the most suitable research method as it intends to look deeper into process of decision making, to understand the framework of the EU sport policy making, to analyse the context of national sport policy and give comprehensive answers to the main research questions regarding the influence and degree of convergence. In other words, it is regarded as the most appropriate method to provide an in-depth exploration of the EU impact at national level. This kind of information can only be gathered from the interpretations, perceptions and operations of the people involved (Patton, 1990). *“Qualitative research is about developing an understanding of individuals’ views, attitudes and behaviour”* (Moore, 1999, p. 121).

Yin (1994) suggests six sources of evidence in a qualitative case study research: documentation, interviews, archival records, direct observation, participant observation and physical artefacts<sup>3</sup>. It is supported that a good research requires as many sources of data as possible in order to be more valid, reliable and representative. However, the nature of this research as well as the time and resources available determined and restricted the selection of sources. For the purposes of this study, interviews, documentation and archival records were the chosen methods of data collection as they could more easily gather relevant and rich information for analysis and interpretation (Appendix 1: Table 1).

At the same time, the multiple sources of evidence work as a form of triangulation (matching data from secondary to primary sources) in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the research. Patton (1990) states that open-ended interviews direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinion, feelings, and knowledge whereas documentation analysis yields excerpts, quotations or entire passages from organisational and program records, official publications and reports or personal diaries. Participant observation may act as a valuable source of evidence. However, due to the high financial costs it was not feasible to be

---

<sup>3</sup> Patton (1990) suggests another distinction on the principal kinds of data collection in qualitative methods: in depth open-ended interviews, direct observation and written documents.

physically present in European institutions in Brussels. Moreover, attending sport-related EU meetings, forums and consultations required special permission, which I could not acquire.

### **3.5. Data Collection: Primary and Secondary data**

The use of multi-methods not only provides a more in-depth set of data but also allows the researcher to validate findings and thus increase the reliability of the findings (Yin, 2003). It is essential, at this point, to distinguish data in two categories: primary and secondary data (Appendix 1: Table 1). Primary is the type of new data that is gathered for a specific research project (Oppenheim, 1992) whereas secondary is the data that already exists and was collected for other primary purpose but can be used a second time in the current project (Veal, 1997).

Primary as well as secondary sources of evidence are vital for the reliability and validity of a research and actually one completes the other. Although, primary data is difficult to be obtained, a research based on only secondary data is less reliable and may be subject to biases because secondary data has already been analysed and interpreted. On the other hand a primary source may only reflect one individual's perception on an event, which may or may not be truthful, accurate, or complete. Secondary sources can be used for validation or testing of information received from primary sources but, in addition, they can be data in their own right (Peräkylä, 1997). Such data, however, must be read with caution and not necessarily accepted as literal recordings of events. Regarding secondary data, Bryman (1995) mentions that the significance of this sort of data lies on the fact that it can consist new ideas or perceptive associated with the study and suggest new areas for analysis that the researcher might have not considered. Thus, Hyman (1972, cited in Dale et al., 1988) describes secondary data as *“the extraction of knowledge on topics other than those which were the focus of the original surveys”*.

Data collection was carried out in two stages. One was the collection of information regarding sport policy at European level and the actions taken for the promotion of the social and educational aspects of sport and the second stage was gathering information for the Greek sport policy and the application of the EU initiatives in the Greek context. At European level, primary sources of information included an interview with one Member of European Parliament (MEP), official archives and public records of European institutions regarding the EU sport-related actions, speeches, consultations, discussions, and secondary data are

obtained from publications, researches, studies, comments on the web etc. At national level, primary data were collected from interviews with national sport policy-makers, politicians and administrative representatives related to sport, from official governmental documents, archives, principles, guidelines and regulations for sports and results of the national projects granted by EU, while secondary data were extracted from articles, leaflets, website information, literature review and other relevant Greek academic studies.

### **3.5.1. Documentation**

Regarding the documentation, this sort of data has been categorised in primary (or else internal) and secondary (external) documents. Primary documents or else archival records offer information that is coming straight from an inside source such as government records, public records, official policy documents of an organization or an institution, administration records, official reports, written speeches, conceptions, plans, statements, analyses, while secondary documents provide information that is edited by an external source such as articles, journals, publications, studies, evaluations, academic and professional literature etc. Therefore, it could be argued that according to the use of its context for the study purposes, documentation can be a primary or a secondary source. Additionally, in terms of their origin, documentation was further classified in two categories: European and national documents.

For the purposes of this research a wide range of documents were analysed. At European level, primary or else internal sources of documentation, which provide evidence for a specific research argument on EU actions include official EU policy documents (e.g. Official Journal of European Union) such as the ‘White Paper on Sport’, the Action Plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’, the EC Programmes results for granted project, EC Programmes Guidelines, evaluation reports, Eurobarometer, EU Studies, EU publications and leaflets (Office for Official Publications of the European Communities), information from the official European Commission (EC) and European Parliament (EP) websites. They also include minutes of meetings as published by the EU institutions (mostly European Commission, European Parliament and European Council). These sources were combined with external/secondary documentation such as research articles or journals, literature reviews on sport policy<sup>4</sup>, European sport policy studies, related documents of other sport stakeholders such as

---

<sup>4</sup> Research studies in the same policy field or in other non-regulatory EU policy fields applied to other countries’ national policy provide a framework to build this research on, evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of other researches in order to enrich the presented thesis.

European Olympic Committee (EOC) and United Nations, and comments on the Internet. External documentation can serve as a valuable tool to increase the researcher's knowledge and provide background details for a specific area of concern. The Table below (Table 1) demonstrates the most important European and national documents that were reviewed for the purposes of this study.

**Table 1.** Documentation: Primary and secondary sources of evidence collected

<b>PRIMARY DOCUMENTATION</b>	
<b>EUROPEAN LEVEL</b>	<b>NATIONAL LEVEL</b>
<p><b>White Paper on Sport:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Report on the White Paper on Sport</li> <li>- The White Paper on Sport: Frequently Asked Questions</li> <li>- Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin</li> <li>- Action Plan "Pierre de Coubertin": 2010 Implementation Report</li> <li>- Commission Staff Working Document: Impact Assessment White Paper on Sport</li> <li>- Commission Staff Working Document: The EU and Sport: Background and Context Follow-up on the White Paper on Sport: Structured Dialogue with Sport Stakeholders</li> <li>- Opinion of the Committee of the Regions on the White Paper on Sport</li> <li>- EC Conference: on the White Paper on Sport (2007)</li> </ul> <p><b>EU studies:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Study on training of young sportsmen/women in Europe (2008)</li> <li>The Lisbon Treaty and EU Sports Policy (2010)</li> <li>Eurobarometer</li> <li>European Community Programmes Guidelines and Assessment Reports</li> <li>EU Sport Forum Report (2008):</li> <li>Report from Workshop 1: The Societal Role of Sport</li> </ul> <p><b>Lisbon Treaty (2007)</b></p>	<p><b>Gazette of the Greek Government:</b></p> <p>Sport Laws, Presidency Decrees, Legislative Decrees, Charter.</p> <p><b>Press Conferences:</b></p> <p>speeches from Minister of Health, Minister of Education, Minister of Culture, Deputy Minister of Culture responsible for Sport</p> <p><b>Press Releases:</b></p> <p>Ministry of Culture            General Secretariat of Sport            Publications-leaflets of Sport Authorities            National Sport Studies</p> <p>National Guidelines for EC Programmes            Archives from national participation in EU forums, conferences, consultations</p> <p><b>Official Websites:</b></p> <p>General Secretariat of Sport, Ministry of Culture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, General Secretariat of Youth, Foundation of State Scholarships</p>

<b>Declarations on Sport</b>	
<b>Presidency conclusions of EU sports ministers' meetings</b>	
<b>Press Release Council meeting Education, Youth, Culture and Sport (2012)</b>	
<b>Expert Groups meetings</b>	
<b>European Parliament Sports Intergroup agendas and minutes of meetings</b>	
<b>European Union Official Journal: Decisions</b>	
<b>Judgements of the ECJ</b>	
<b>European Commission and European Parliament: Communications, Resolutions, Reports, Consultations</b>	
-The European Model of Sport Consultation Document of DG X	
-Strategic Choices for the Implementation of the New EU Competence in the Field of Sport EU-wide public consultation	
-Report (2010) Commission Staff Working Paper: The Development and Prospects for Community Action in the Field of Sport (1998)	
-Resolution on a European Union Work Plan for Sport for 2011-2014	
-Communication Developing the European Dimension in Sport (2011)	
<b>Official Websites</b>	
European Commission's Sports Unit official website	
European Parliament's official website	

<b>SECONDARY DOCUMENTATION</b>	
<b>EUROPEAN LEVEL</b>	<b>NATIONAL LEVEL</b>
Scholarly journals and books	Scholarly journals and books for national sport policy
Doctoral dissertations on European sport policy-making	Articles in various sport Websites
Articles in various sport Websites	

National documentation provides aspects of the structural framework of sport development in Greece but also helps examine individual actors' claims (interviews data). Primary documentation derive from the Gazzette of the Greek Government (GGG), such as articles, announcements, formal sport policy statements, regulations or principles, as well as from Political Parties' archives for sport initiatives, archives from the National Sport Authority, that is the General Secretariat of Sport (GSS), information from the official Website of the GSS, press release, national parliamentary debates regarding the Greek sport policy-making and results from awarded national projects to EC Programmes. Secondary policy documents consist of national sport studies, reports and evaluations, newspaper articles mainly concerned with policy outcomes and literature review of the national sport context over the years. In other words, secondary data provide one or more descriptions of 'what actually happened!' in the Greek sport governance and gives evidence of any interaction between Greece and EU in the field of sport.

The research process was carried out in four steps. First, the researcher browsed the EU website and collected all relevant information regarding EU action in the field of sport such as the White Paper on Sport, recommendations, proposal, structural dialogue, meetings, official documents, etc. The European Commission as well as the European Parliament has valuable sources of information regarding the approach to EU sport policy. Additionally, all relevant data for the EC Programmes, the amount of funds available, as well as the funds absorbed by local authorities of each Member State, such as Greece are made publicly available on the European Commission's website. In fact, the dissemination of national data though the official Website of the GSS was very poor. Thus, the second step was to organize a field research in the National Governmental Body for Sport (GSS) and collect archival records such as private documents sent by the EU regarding the recommended actions to be taken by Member States and the follow-up, written reports as well as written proofs of the Greek participation in EU studies and surveys, etc. The third step was to study the relevant literature regarding the European and national sport policy from the process to the decision-making and context. The final step of data collection was to conduct interviews with key European and national actors in the sport policy area.

Due to the transnational nature of the research topic, the viewpoint of a number of key individuals and agencies in the sport matters could not be directly accessible. Consequently,

official archives such as the minutes of meetings enable an appreciation of the nature of discussions held by European policy actors. For example, the 'Report from the European Sports Forum', the 'Presidency Conclusions' and the 'EC Conference on White Paper on Sport' provide an insight into the views held by a range of sports administrators for the different Member States.

Evaluations are produced by each country to describe where progress is heading according to EU guidelines and what new initiatives have been taken. Those reports serve as supplementary material to that of the Commission. It is important to acknowledge the possible lack of objectivity in these national reports, as governments wish to convey the best results and future goals to the Commission. Thus, for correlation purposes, the analysis will also be founded on guidelines, joint reports and evaluations from the Commission in order for the study to obtain a more accurate picture of the effects of Europeanisation on the Greek sport policy.

Official source material is highly relevant to this thesis. Often, e.g. reports from the Commission contain clear evidence of how Member States are adapting and in order to validate the research indicators, I included secondary sources of evidence from other academics who had already examined the Europeanisation of sport policy (see Garcia, 2006, 2007, 2008, Parrish 2003a, 2003b).

In this study it was essential that documentation data were collected and studied prior to conducting interviews, so as to acquire a clear idea about the political framework and the sport structure at European and national level. This also helped the preparation of the interview questions and helped to build questions in order to cross-refer the answers with the written data.

### **3.5.2. Interviews**

Primary data from interviews provide respondents' explanations or perceptions of the structural configuration of power and resources at EU and national level and thus serve the need for uncovering the relations, struggles and compromises within the structure (Nassis, 1994). Obtaining primary data from interviews with key actors in the formulation and implementation of sports policy in Greece provides a useful check against which 'official' statements may be evaluated. Interviews mainly focused on the relations between actual



policy outcomes, the goals of individuals and groups, and the struggles occurring within the political structure. In the course of interviewing key sport actors (politicians or governmental servants related to sport) the 'how' and 'why' of decision-making, the reasons for government's activity and/or inactivity in the sports field, as well as the individual's position for participation or exclusion from the policy process, were the main issues to be considered.

Interviews are the most common source of primary data in qualitative research. The focus of in-depth interviews is the experience of individuals seen from their perspective. There are different types of interviews depending on the aims of the study; structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Appendix 1: Table 2) which accordingly provide detailed data for deeper understanding of the study. Face-to-face interviews overcome problems of lying, give the opportunity to rephrase and explain questions, allow the building of rapport to tackle sensitive issues and detect any possible evasiveness (Wilson, 2001). However, a good interview depends on the researcher's skills, the ability to conduct an effective conversation.

In this research, semi-structured interview was the chosen technique as the aim was to capture people's perception and interpretations of a particular situation. It was chosen because the depth of understanding is at the centre of inquiry rather than the direct comparability of responses (Bryman, 1989). Semi-structured interviews, or else focused interviews, have four main characteristics: a) the interviewees are persons who have been involved in a particular experience e.g. key actors involved in sport policy-making at national or EU level, b) the interview refers to situations that have been already analysed, that is the EU influence at national level sport policy, c) topics related to the research hypotheses have been specified in advance, in this case in relation to the theoretical framework of Europeanisation and d) what is important is the respondents' experience of the situations under investigation, as for instance their perception, opinion and belief about the EU impact in the Greek sport policy.

In particular, semi-structured interview combined the advantages of both structured and unstructured type. Firstly, it allowed the interviewee to prepare a list of questions or issues to be addressed in advance, so as to ensure that relevant information could be gathered for the needs of the research. The topic of these questions was mainly identified in the research questions. Secondly, it was a flexible method in terms of the order of questions and the process of the discussion, as it facilitated the interviewee to speak widely and spontaneously

about various aspects of sport policy. By this approach, ideas and thoughts about complex situations emerged easier and in more detail.

#### **a. Interview Sample Selection**

The sampling strategy derived first, from the initial objective of the study to investigate the convergence in the European and national sport context, and second, from the fact that social processes such as those associated with the development of sport policy, have a coherence that cannot be adequately approached by findings from a random sampling. This empirical research involved interviews with sports policy actors at national and European level during the period under investigation. The interviewees were individuals who had certain access to information and knowledge, deriving from their formal position in governmental sport institutions and were familiar with the situation under question representing different levels of the sport structure. As such, informants' positions ranged from European to national level and from politicians to central government servants for sport and civil servants of organizations that implement EC programmes. A selection of individuals from an extensive range of positions and political values not only provided a broader picture of sports policy but also helped cross-check information gathered from different sources and thus, in some respects, served as a means for increasing reliability, as discussed earlier.

An interview with an 'elite' person is a specialised case that focuses on a particular type of interviewee. Elite individuals, such as politicians, are considered to be influential, prominent and well-informed due to their expertise in the area relevant to the research. In this case, valuable information was gained from sport policy makers as they provided an overall view of the structure of sport institution, the process of decision-making and the relationships and influences evoking. In fact, their knowledge on legal, financial and organisational issues as well as their expertise on the policies, the background, the plans and the prospects of the organisation are vital for the understanding of the culture of the sport institution and the sport policy-making.

On the other hand, elite interviewing is a complex and difficult process. For the researcher, it was hard to gain access to 'elite' interviewees because they are busy people operating under demanding time constraints. Additionally, the structure of the interview was in conformity with their wishes and predilections. Although this is true with all in-depth interviewing, elite individuals who are used to being interviewed by the press and other media may well be quite

sophisticated in managing the interview process. Well-practiced at meeting with the public and being in control, an elite person may turn the interview around, thereby taking charge of it. Another difficulty faced was the great demand on the researcher's ability to establish competence and credibility by displaying knowledge of the topic or, lacking such knowledge, by projecting an accurate conceptualisation of the problem through thoughtful questioning. Elites may contribute insight and meaning to the interview through their specific perspectives, while sometimes they have only vague understandings of a setting that is limited by a narrow viewpoint.

Several key actors were selected to be interviewed (Table 2). At European level, an interview was conducted with a Greek member of the European Parliament (MEP), Manolis Mavrommatis who had previously served as Vice President of the Committee on Culture and Education (2007-2009). At national level, due to the shift of power between the two main political parties during the period of investigation 2007-2013, interviews were conducted with key political actors involved in sport from both the Panhellenic Socialist Movement (PASOK) and New Democracy. Ioannis Ioannidis, deputy Minister of Sport and Kostas Koukodimos, Former General Secretary of Sport, were members of the New Democracy Party and held key political positions in sport-related matters from 2007 to 2009. Ioannidis served as Deputy Minister for sport from 2011 until 2013. Sofia Sakorafa was a PASOK MEP until 2010 when she joined the Coalition of Radical Left (SIRIZA). In addition, an interview was conducted with the Director of the Sport and Physical Education Department of the Ministry of Education, Stelios Daskalakis as well as with various government officials of the General Secretariat of Sport, who were responsible for implementing sport policy in Greece, directing the international relations and implementing the European Programmes and communication with the Department of Education and Culture (EAC) of the European Commission. Finally, interviews were conducted with representatives of national authorities responsible for implementing EC sport related programmes, such as the Foundation of State Scholarships (IKY) and the General Secretariat of Youth (GSY).

**Table 2.** List of Interviewees

<b>NAME OF INTERVIEWEE</b>	<b>TITLE / POSITION</b>	<b>ORGANISATION</b>
Manolis Mavrommatis	Former Vice President of the Committee on Culture and Education	Member of the European Parliament (MEP)
Ioannis Ioannidis	Deputy Minister of Sport, ND Political Party	Ministry of Culture
Kostas Koukodimos	Former General Secretary of Sport, ND Political Party	General Secretariat of Sport, Ministry of Culture
Sofia Sakorafa	Assembly woman	PASOK, opposition Political Party
Dimitris Akopis	Head Officer General Secretariat of Sports	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Vassilis Ntakouris	Special Associate General Secretary of Sports	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
George Pigkos	Special Scientist in Physical Education, Department of Quality and Performance	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Vassilis Kakkos	Director of Sport for All	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Andreas Malatos	Director of Sport Promotion (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Ioanna Kariofilli	Head officer of European Programmes in Sport and International Relations (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Rozmari Nikolakopoulou	Former Head Officer in Greek Presidency & Former Director of European Programmes in Sport (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Kalliopi Nedelkou	Former Head Officer of European Programmes in Sport (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)

Georgia Kourtelakou	Director of Sport Development (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
George Kopidakis	Head Officer of Personnel Training (Central government servants)	GSS (General Secretariat of Sport)
Theodore Ntavelos	Depute President	ΔEAB (Committee Against Violence in Sport)
Stathis Koukeas	Member	ESKAN (National Anti-Doping Agency)
Stelios Daskalakis	Director of the Sport and Physical Education Department	Ministry of Education
Athina Papadaki	Director of European Programmes	
Antonia Trichopoulou	Director of the WHO Collaborating National Centre	Ministry of Health
Maria Nikitaki	Officer for Lifelong Learning Programme	IKY (Foundation of State Scholarships)
Dora Mpei	Officer for Youth in Action Programme	General Secretariat of Youth.

An interview guide was developed, setting for each major area of inquiry a series of questions based on the research questions in order to provide criteria for checking relevance of the data to be obtained. The interviews focused on the subjective experiences of each key sport actor. Although the interviews were semi-structured, they were adapted to the affiliation of each interviewee (e.g. employment at European or national, governmental or central level). Additionally, the key issues to be explored with each interviewee were different, according to the position they held and the department they served in the national sport authority (Appendix 2: Sample of interview Questions).

#### **b. Interview Techniques and Interview Schedule Design**

Prior to the interviews, individuals were provided with information about the scope and aims of the study and the reasoning for their interview selection either through formal letter (Appendix 3) or by telephone. A list of topics to be discussed at the interview was sent in advance to the interviewees. Additionally, a convenient time and place, usually their office, both for the interviewee and the researcher were arranged. The majority of the interviewees

agreed to be voice recorded during the interview, which is a technique that facilitates the data collection and data analysis. Voice recording is a safe way to overcome mnemonic problems and also it provided the opportunity to replay the interview, focus deeply on important issues, follow again the pace and the sequence of the interview and finally note any points that elude the researcher's attention during the formal interview.

Respondents are particularly sensitive to the social and political implications of providing the desired information (Brigg, 1986). They seek to reply in socially desirable ways and present a positive image of them when answering questions (Bryman, 1989). Interviews with politicians, especially when the discussion is voice-recorded and can be released to the public, can be a threat to data reliability. In an attempt to overcome this problem respondents were informed that the interview was conducted as part of a 'scientific' research and were reassured that, should they wish, their anonymity would be preserved throughout the inquiry or in any subsequent publications. Additionally, cross-checking of information was thought to be the most appropriate measure to ensure internal consistency of information and to overcome the problem of reliability that might arise through misleading information. During the interview two major points were given particular attention: i) the researcher tried to avoid creating the impression that what was occurring was a cross-examination, checking reality or intelligence in policy methods and, ii) questions that were misunderstood were repeated and clarified. Finally, it should be kept on mind that the interviews took place over a period of three years, from 2009-2012, so it is important to acknowledge the temporality of the data collected.

In deciding the order of issues to be addressed a guide provided by Stone (1984) was followed. The interview, which normally lasted 2 hours, was divided into sections. The first section aimed to explore the context of national sport policy. The second section focused more on the interviewee's experience on the work and the structure of the department. The third section aimed to understand the level of EU influence in the Greek sport context and the fourth section looked at the level of participation and the attitude of Greek sport authorities towards EU initiatives and recommendations.

The interview questions were developed in line with the framework of the literature review. More precisely, they covered the following themes:

- the context of Greek sport policy,

- the objectives of sport policy-making,
- EU influence at national level,
- Greek participation in EU initiatives,
- a personal evaluation of each interviewee of the national involvement in EU matters for sport.

It should be noted that even the most experienced interviewer might occasionally lapse into leading questions under the stress of a difficult in-depth interview (Oppenheim 1992). Thus, although the wording of questions varied, care was taken to ensure that the interviewer's own position on the issue under discussion was not revealed. As Patton (1990) stresses, the basic feature of qualitative interviewing is to permit respondents to reply in their own way without imposing predetermined responses. The issues raised in the interviews covered a range of concerns, from general questions on the context of sport policy making to discussions on specific events and decisions. Questions were formed in a way, which was not too technical or complex. This was done for two main reasons: first, complex questions may cause misinterpretations and second, people are sometimes reluctant to admit ignorance of an issue, which subsequently may undermine the reliability of information. In addition, the questions employed contained only one line of enquiry. Multiple questions are likely to create tension and confusion on the part of the person interviewed. This might result in the interviewee feeling uncomfortable, ignorant, confused, or hostile, which in turn might have a negative impact on the validity of information.

### **3.6. Data Analysis**

Data collection and analysis aim at identifying themes and constructing ideas (Tesch, 1990). It is an interconnected process as there is no precise point at which one ends and the other begins (Patton, 1990). Ideas for analysis and interpretation are likely to arise during the course of gathering data or during the analysis course there might be a need of collecting additional information on a specific theme. However, this poses the risk of distorting the data collection or expanding the focus beyond the subject of research. Data analysis consists of examining, tabulating, or recombining the empirical evidence to address the initial propositions of a study (Yin, 1994).

Analysis of qualitative data has been a problematic issue when conducting a case study. One of the difficulties derives from the nature of qualitative data, which are described as

voluminous, unstructured and not suitably organised around specific categories (Patton, 1990; Stone & Harris, 1984). In particular, qualitative findings based on interview responses which are not systematic or standardised, may contain too many details and may be more variable in content. The challenge for qualitative data analysis is to identify the important information and reduce the large amount of data. Moreover it is necessary to identify specific patterns and to construct a framework for communicating the findings (Patton, 1990). Regarding the process of qualitative data analysis, there are only guidelines and recommendations but no standards, as each researcher has his/her own way on analysing an idea and thus each analytical approach is unique (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 1994). Therefore, this part of the chapter outlines the guidelines followed for the analysis of data gathered in the course of this study.

Data analysis can be divided in two phases: data management and data interpretation. In practice, although they are considered as separate stages, in most cases they occur simultaneously. Needless to say, a primary form of analysis occurs early in the data collection process when deciding what information has a meaning for the research and noting regularities, patterns, possible explanations and propositions. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest a three-stage analysis. First, data from documents or interview transcripts are selected, focused and simplified, in order to make clues (*data reduction*). In the second stage of analysis, information is compressed, organised and described in such a way to facilitate the interpretation and verification of conclusions (*data display*). The final stage involves *interpretation and conclusion*. Interpretation "*involves explaining the findings, answering 'why' questions, attaching significance to particular results, and putting patterns into an analytic framework*" (Patton, 1990, p. 375). In the beginning, the findings seem vague but after interpretation they become increasingly explicit and lead to verified conclusions.

When analysing data, it may be helpful to group the various data elements into relevant themes. As in most case studies the scope is not to explain the cause and effect factor, but rather to clarify and explicate groups of key ideas or patterns, which explain a phenomenon studied under a given theoretical framework. Patton (1990, p. 424) stresses that "*the emphasis of qualitative analysis is on illumination, understanding, and extrapolation rather than on casual determination, prediction, and generalisation*". Studying the EU impact on the social-related sport policy in Greece is not simply a question of aggregating patterns or searching



for multiplicity of evidence, but rather it is an investigation of structures and dynamics revealed by key issues (Huberman & Miles, 2002).

Framework analysis<sup>5</sup> is a qualitative method that is suitable for applied policy research. It provides an excellent tool to assess policies and procedures using participant observation, interviews and internet sources (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994; Balley, et al., 2004). It is a flexible method as it allows the user to either collect all the data and then analyse it or to proceed to data analysis during the collection process. In the analysis stage the gathered data is filtered, charted and sorted in accordance with key issues and themes. This approach involves a five step process (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994):

1. *familiarisation*; understanding and getting an overview of the data collected,
2. *identifying a thematic framework*; recognising emerging themes or issues in the data set,
3. *indexing*; identifying portions or sections of the data that correspond to a particular theme,
4. *charting* and,
5. *mapping and interpretation*; analysing key characteristics as laid out in the charts.

In the *familiarisation* stage, I reviewed the primary sources and then the secondary sources of sport-related documentation at European level. In the next step the national internal and external documentation for sport issues were studied. Finally, I listened to audiotapes and read the relevant notes kept during the interviews with Greek representatives of sport matters at European and national level. The *thematic framework* was drawn based on the research questions and followed the theoretical framework of the process of Europeanisation. *Indexing* was applied to all the textual data that had been gathered (i.e. transcripts of elite interviews and official documents). In particular, interview responses and document quotes were used for each key subject area, forming the description of the data. In this study, as Ritchie and Spencer (1994) recommends, indexing references, quotes and notes were annotated in the margin beside the text. Moreover, I organised the data in *charts* according to the headings and sub-headings drawn from the thematic framework. In the final stage, *mapping and*

---

<sup>5</sup> Researchers present various methods of data analysis: Stake (1995) mentions three modes of case study analysis: it is the organising of 'a matrix of categories' in which data could be categorised, it is the *chronological ordering* of data in order to stress the temporality of the information and it is the general strategy referring to the *theoretical propositions* that framed the research questions and the method of inquiry. Yin (2003) places his concept quite differently, introducing three general strategies for data analysis in case studies: *Relying on theoretical propositions*, in order to decide which data to select and which to ignore, *thinking about rival explanations* in order to test the validity of the research e.g. other phenomena that lead to the results and *developing a case description* in order to organize the structure of the case study analysis reflecting main aspects of the object of research or the general characteristics and relations of the phenomenon in question. Mostly, the present research analysis is based on the theoretical propositions.

*interpretation*, I compared the interviewees' perceptions and experiences with the documentation and searched for connections and explanations, which would lead to specific conclusions.

Data analysis was designed to search for patterns of national policy change and EU involvement. The strategy for data analysis followed the theoretical propositions outlined in the introductory section of the study, namely on the concept of Europeanisation. In particular, the use of the case study method for an analysis of the EU impact at national level has been made on the theoretical proposition that the implementation of EU initiatives is an example of Europeanisation in Greek sport policy. The theoretical framework determines the mechanisms, the pressure exercised by EU, the key sport actors involved, the degree of change and the level of convergence between EU and national sport policy. As a result, the chosen method of data analysis is framework analysis as the aim of the research is to generate conclusions within a limited time period regarding a given policy such as sport, with specific issues outlined a priori in the research questions and in the questions sent to interviewees (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009).

In detail, the analysis of the answers to the research questions involves three stages. The first stage is a brief overview of the EU initiatives for the social and educational function of sport. Although the main research period is 2007-2013 the overview covers events from 1985 onwards. The second stage is an overview of the sport policy in Greece during the same period of time. Needless to say, in both stages, the data are categorised in topics concerning health, education, youth, volunteering, networking issues, etc. This helps ensure consistency with the structure and develop an outline for the documentary analysis. The final stage is examination of the potential interaction, adaptation and generally the convergence of national sport policy to a wide range of EU goals for sport through participation in EU actions.

This study incorporates an analysis of qualitative data derived from interviews with Greek MEPs involved in sport matters, with sport policy-makers of the central government and with civil servants of the National Governing Body of Sport. Regarding the interview transcripts, the analysis began with cross-case analysis (Patton, 1990). It is a method employed for open-ended interviews, where interviewees' responses are grouped together into common questions since the major concern is the variations of interviewees' responses on research questions. This form of analysis looks at topics and themes across all data and focuses on grouping

relevant information (force ‘ideas’) that would be used in the final analysis following the structure of the thematic framework. The purpose of the cross-case analysis is to organise and classify data that would facilitate searching and uncovering themes across interviews. In this case study research, the themes were determined by the research questions (which constituted the research instrument). They then formed a thematic framework, which was used as a template for correlating and generalising the empirical results.

In general, the interview material employed in this study provides information on the actor's perceptions of the interrelations between various activities related to sport policy in Greece. The analysis generates adequate information to answer the core research questions, to facilitate an understanding of the sport policy environment at national and European level and to address issues arising out of the study on Europeanisation (misfit, pressure for change, convergence, adaptation, etc. as factors of progress towards Europeanisation or evidence of the contrary). All data sources provide an insight into how policy stakeholders interpret particular events or decisions.

Document analysis is another method applied in this research when interpreting primary and secondary documents in order to give meaning around a theme under investigation. It is a useful tool because it identifies, classifies and interprets patterns in data, generalises results, often avoids ethical issues and serves as a form of triangulation (Elo & Kynga, 2008; Mogalakwe, 2006). Documentary work involves reading lots of written material, reveals people's perceptions and values, investigates peoples' behaviour in a natural setting and strengthens the validity of data serving. As with other methodological decisions, the choice to gather and analyse documents and archival records is linked to the research questions developed in the conceptual framework for the study.

The process of document analysis has the following stages:

- a) deciding how and what document to select (this has been determined in the data collection phase)
- b) deciding how to organise the information into categories (European and Greek official documentation, primary and secondary documentation)
- c) trying to deduce categories and coding again (EU initiatives, sport stakeholders documents, Member-States reports, etc.)
- d) deciding the second level or order of categories (from European to national, if any from

regional to local)

e) relating these second order categories to wider arguments

f) evaluation and interpretation.

In short, framework analysis was chosen as a suitable method, especially for interview data analysis, as it provides a conceptual system to organise the evidence into categories or concepts of same meaning based on the theoretical framework (Cavanagh, 1997) and it also facilitates interpretation. Moreover, document analysis is an essential tool to analyse the documentary work and cross-check the evidence from both sources.

### **3.7. Data Evaluation: Validity and Reliability**

In every stage of this research it is essential to check constantly the quality of the information reported. Especially, the method used for the collection and interpretation of the data is an issue that needs careful consideration and evaluation. Thus, certain safeguards were observed in order to secure the validity and reliability of the findings.

Validity, as a criterion of data evaluation, means that correct procedures have been applied to find answers to a question. A method may be valid if it is consistent with an adequate theoretical approach. The purpose of validity is to secure that the basis for data collection has been reasonable and fully in line with the research objectives.

On the other hand, reliability of data, in terms of frank and honest responses, pertains to the consistency of the research findings (Klave, 1996). It refers to the quality of a measurement procedure that provides repeatability and accuracy, meaning that the results produced need to be the same under constant conditions in all occasions (Bell, 1999; Kirk & Miller, 1986). In other words, a method produces reliable data when the repetition of the same procedures produces the same answers irrespective of the investigator (Briggs, 1986). However, reliability in social research can rarely be completely achieved because the interaction between the researcher and the social environment cannot be fully controlled (Shipman, 1988). In addition, it should be noted that all events are unique and non-replicable. Obviously, reliability of interview data is in principle impossible to be obtained, since the interviews cannot be repeated exactly. So when evaluating the level of reliability of this study, what was of critical importance was not so much whether other interviewers would have produced the same results, but rather whether the method used for obtaining the data

was reasonable. In addition, reliability of data is enhanced by considering that, what was significant in the interviews was to obtain the individuals' perceptions of what happened and not 'what actually happened'.

The first step towards maintaining the validity of the research was the choice of the research instruments. The selection of the people to be interviewed, the kind of the questions to be asked and the quality and appropriateness of the documents to be collected are some examples that required careful consideration. More specifically, the interviewees were selected after examining their political position and involvement in the decision-making process. The selection, order and structure of the interview questions were based on the conceptual framework of the literature review and were directly related to the subject under investigation. In this research, the role of the supervisor was vital, as she was the first to check the quality and validity of the interview questions. From the perspective of the Europeanisation approach, the choice of studying actors' perceptions and interpretation is crucial for understanding how and why specific sport policies have been pursued.

In order to secure the reliability of the interview findings, a number of instructions were followed. First of all, it was sufficient, before conducting the interviews to make clear to the interviewees the scientific objective of the study and also the fact that the thesis produced would not be a public document. Then, I tried to define and explain clearly the interview questions. Also, I carefully chose the wording of the questions in order to avoid any chance of leading the interviewee to specific answers. Another safeguard was the use of a tape-transcription method which is the most reliable way of transforming words into written text (Seidman, 1991). With this tool, I could regularly refer to the original data and check it for accuracy. For more reliable results, I showed the transcripts to the interviewees so as to verify the findings and make any corrections or clarifications.

In terms of evaluating and interpreting documents, the validity of the documentary sources was tested against the following quality control criteria (Bryman, 2001; Macdonald & Tipton, 1993; Wellington, 2000):

a) *Authenticity*: refers to the actions taken to ensure that the evidence is genuine and from impeccable sources (Scott, 1990) or in other words it deals with the authorship of a document. In most cases, the authenticity of the documents is secured by the careful choice of sources i.e. reports, decisions, communications from European institutions or national rules,

extracted from official EU websites or the Gazzette of the Greek government.

b) *Credibility*: intends to verify if the document is accurate or distorted. The documents used in this study were gathered from the official websites of the European institutions and from government sources, such as the Gazzette of the Greek Government, political parties' reports, and public records collected from the National Sport Authority or from its official website. In order to safeguard the credibility of these documents, questions such as 'who', 'why', 'when' and 'for whom' were of primary concern. In this study, documents provided the European or national government 'view', while the interviews provided the perceptions of the key sport actors and served as a tool to check the quality of the document.

c) *Representativeness*: determines whether the document represents the totality of the relevant papers and whether it covers all possible options in the research. In this study the material collected represents the views of European and national sport policy actors.

d) *Meaning*: determines whether the evidence is clear and comprehensive (Scott, 1990).

Case study is known as a triangulated research strategy. Triangulation refers to the attempt to get a 'true' fix on a situation by combining different ways of looking at it or different findings (Silverman, 2000). In order to safeguard the validity and reliability of data, there are four types of triangulation: Data source triangulation (the use of a variety of data sources), methodological triangulation (the use of multiple methods of study), investigator triangulation (the involvement of more than one investigator) and theory triangulation, highlighting the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Snow & Anderson cited in Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 1991; Yin, 2003).

First, the triangulation of data from multiple sources of information is another effort to partly secure the reliability of data collection. In this case study, document analysis (secondary sources) was the means of triangulating the findings and reducing the subjectivity of the interview responses (primary sources). According to Patton (1990), triangulation implies a cross-checking of information derived at different times and by different sources within qualitative research. In this context, I compared the different answers of the interviewees and cross-checked them against relevant information from secondary data such as official documents, archives, publications, etc. Furthermore, the selection of interviewees, which included individuals from different political backgrounds and positions and also from different levels within the sports structure, was another measure for securing the reliability of interviewees' responses. Thus, interviewees' claims of policy outcomes were cross-checked

with the picture of what had happened as indicated by the records. This is not to imply, however, that interviews are merely an explanatory device. In some cases, interviews may complete the picture or provide more accurate sources of information than secondary data and inform the way certain policy outcomes were actually achieved. In this case, reliability only concerned the 'factual' accuracy of certain key events, since triangulation of people's perceptions could not be obtained.

Second, methodological triangulation was not applicable as neither participant observation nor quantitative analysis were possible in this study. The chosen methodology was based only on qualitative data due to the nature of the research questions which required information regarding perceptions, behaviours and attitudes rather than numerical data.

Third, regarding investigator triangulation, the literature review compares the findings of this study with relevant case studies from other EU Member States. Additionally, I involved other researchers to review the methodology and theory structure while I acquired valuable scientific guidance from my supervisor. Finally, the concept of Europeanisation as a result of the interaction with sociological institutionalism, network policy and open method of coordination was chosen as a theoretical perspective to interpret the phenomenon of the EU influence at national level.

### **3.8. Limitations of the Study - Considerations**

Regardless of the complexity of the subject and the methods of data collection and data analysis, there are always limitations that cannot be overcome in every research. It is therefore important to acknowledge these limitations.

Specifically, interviewing people is an issue that raises questions about the validity and reliability of the information obtained (Klave, 1996). According to Jones (1985), interviews offer no guarantee of obtaining full, accurate, truthful and sincere responses and additionally and it is difficult to keep the interviewee focused on issues which concern the researcher. The situation is more complex when interviewing elite individuals, namely politicians. First, it is difficult to gain access. Second, interviewees hesitate to be voice recorded. Third, it is hard to have them follow a plan structure of the interview as they usually attempt to lead the conversation to their predilections or take charge of the interview. Lastly, their answers are not always specific as they reply in a political sophisticated way. However, these difficulties

were overcome by careful management of the discussion and by displaying interviewing skills and knowledge of the topics under discussion.

Another concern for this study is the role of the researcher in the effort to collect data "*somehow free of the perceptual predisposition*" (Potter, 1996, p. 39). Often researchers are trapped trying to generate homogeneity between accounts. In order to avoid this error, I focused on recording actors' perceptions and interpretations of events and actions, rather than trying to lead the findings to a preferable outcome for the study.

The lack of participant observation of EU institutions' work and the lack of access to EU sport decision-makers are some factors that limited the number of views evaluated in this study. Field research, including attending EU meetings and fora or conducting personal interviews with EC and EP members, was not possible due to limited financial resources and difficulty in gaining access at such high level. The only possibility would have been to attend the formal EU Working Group meetings as a person accompanying the representative of the Greek National Sport Authority (GSS). However, the GSS did not have an interest or resources to attend such meetings so I was never offered this opportunity. As a result, the views of the Commission and EU sport stakeholders were primarily collected through documentation from official Commission and Parliamentary sources and personal interviews with Greek sport key actors at national and European level but not from direct observation at EU level. In general, the small interview sample at European level needs to be acknowledged as a factor limiting the validity and reliability of the data.

This study was also constrained by the lack of relevant Greek literature as well as the restricted access to primary data at domestic level, partially due to the unstable political environment in Greece after the first signs of the economic crisis in 2009. In detail, the change of government, after the national elections in October 2009, resulted in the shift of key actors at high-level position in the national and regional system of sport administration. This change brought a gap in the archives kept as well as in the dissemination of information because, according to a Greek official, "*the outgoing administration left no records*".

In some cases, the lack of cooperation and support from the representatives of national institutions that implement European initiatives in Greece such the European Community Programmes, is another issue that restricted the collection of unpublished information.



Needless to say, due to time limitations, inevitably some programs were not yet completed by the time of submission of this research. Meanwhile, the impact of the active programs will be seen over time and not immediately after completion.

Case study research reduces the researcher's ability to draw general conclusions (Patton, 1990). Consequently, conclusions in this study can only be limited to those situations, time periods, persons, context and purposes for which the data are applicable. In this case, the uniqueness of any national sport policy means that the objectives and operation differ from other Member States. Thus the degree of Europeanisation or the comparison of Greece's convergence to EU sport policy with other States would not provide any valid and accurate conclusion for generalisation.

Another aspect that needs delimitation is the scope of this thesis. Recognising that Europeanisation can take broader meanings, it is important to clarify the conceptual elements before proceeding to the empirical analysis. This study houses on the EU using a systematised understanding of Europeanisation. Additionally, the Europeanisation of sport has many dimensions such as the organisation of sport and the economics of sport but this project is interested only in the social and educational dimension of sport and not in professional sport. In practice, the lack of literature referring to the Europeanisation of sport, including the social and educational function of sport policy-making, renders this research more difficult. Indeed, the lack of comparative data on Europeanisation is a general problem and not unique to the study of the Europeanisation of sport policies. However, the review of the literature on Europeanisation in other policies as well as the establishment of links with other theoretical approaches, namely networking and sociological institutionalism, strengthen the theoretical scope and validity of this work (Eisenhardt, 1989).

In conclusion, this chapter identified the research methods employed in the thesis. It defined the choices made during the research process such as: how the research question will be answered, which methodological and theoretical approaches are utilised and how the project is designed. Additionally, it has made some conceptual clarifications, regarding the choice and the use of the theory, and it has stressed the limitations of the study and further considerations. In brief, the use of the case study, as a qualitative method for an analysis of the EU impact at national level has been made on the theoretical proposition that the domestic implementation of EU initiatives is an example of Europeanisation in Greek sport

policy. Interviews and official European and national documents were the main sources of data, while framework analysis and document analysis were employed for the interpretation of data which will be presented in the following chapters.

The next sections review the core concepts of the theory and set the analytical and institutional context for this case study, applying the concept of Europeanisation in sport policy-making. Thereafter, the study provides an overview of the development, the structure and the key actors as well as the decision-making process in sport both in the European and the Greek sport context. The intention is to link theoretical positions to the methods applied in order to analyse empirical data in the following chapters.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: The Theoretical perspective of the EU influence at national level**

### **4.1 Overview**

This chapter attempts to clarify the reason for using the concept of ‘Europeanisation’ as one of the explanatory variables for the developments, or else the changes, if any, in national sport policy from the social and educational perspective. First of all, it identifies the relevant literature of European integration. Actually, it reviews the grand and middle-range theories of European integration and possible implications for the study of national sport policy. With regards to Europeanisation, this chapter will examine the theoretical concept and will explore the development of recent studies on the conditions, the mechanisms and the degree of change in Greek national sport policy as the outcome of Europeanisation. The phenomenon of Europeanisation applied to sport policy will be examined as a horizontal process of policy transfer, shared beliefs and values, and discourse among Member States and EU in order to identify EU influences and changes in Greek sport policy-making.

### **4.2. The European integration influence**

Many theories have attempted to explain the process and outcome of European integration. Theories are important as they help us understand how the EU works, how it has been developed and what it might be like in the future. Consequently, when examining the phenomenon of domestic change as a result of EU influence, it is important to be familiar with the different approaches of European integration, as they reflect a particular set of assumptions that should be clarified from the beginning of this theoretical analysis.

European integration is the process of EU policy formulation by various actors (Schmidt, 2002). European integration<sup>6</sup> emerges from Member States’ policies, practices and politics which are then transformed up to the EU into a complex process of decision-making (Nielsen, 2008). In sequence, these EU decisions create further changes in Member States’ policies and institutions. In the past, the literature of European studies approached the process of European integration with a great emphasis on the role Member States play at the

---

<sup>6</sup> European integration is “a process whereby political actors in several distinct national settings are persuaded to shift their loyalties, expectations and political activities towards a new centre, whose institutions possess or demand jurisdiction over pre-existing national states. The end result of a process of political integration is a new political community, superimposed over the pre-existing ones” (Haas, 1968)

European Union level adopting a ‘bottom-up perspective’. From Börzel’s (2005, p. 47) point of view, European integration is conceptualised as “*a process of uploading national preferences to the European level*”, whereas Knill and Lehmkuhl (2002, p. 255) question if “*the extent to which domestic conditions affect the outcome of supranational institution-building and policy making*” is only a ‘one-way’ process from national to EU level.

In contrast, over the last twenty years there is a great shift in research regarding the changes appearing in European arena and their effects on national policies, which is the field of interest for this study. The concept of Europeanisation emerged in 1990’s as a framework to study the domestic impact of European integration. The notion of Europeanisation is dealing with changes in domestic institutions and decision-making structures of a particular policy sector, as a result of the implementation of European policies. As the aim of this thesis is to provide a more comprehensive framework for explaining the domestic impact of European policy-making in relation to the social and educational dimension of sport, the concept of Europeanisation will be applied as a theoretical framework for the examination of these influences.

The following chapter will put the concept of Europeanisation into a broader theoretical perspective and will address different theories of European integration such as intergovernmentalism, neo-functionalism and neo-institutionalism. Additionally, it will examine Europeanisation under the lenses of policy networks approach and the Open Method of Coordination. In order for this study to assess the EU influence on the social and educational dimensions of Greek sport policy, this chapter will outline the different approaches, definitions, dimensions and mechanisms of Europeanisation, which are used as the theoretical framework supported by academic scholars such as Radaelli (2000, 2003), Knill and Lenschow (1999, 2002), Börzel and Risse (2000, 2003).

### **4.3. Europeanisation related to European integration in the context of sport policy**

Europeanisation derives from macro- and meso-level European integration theories. Actually, it draws concepts from intergovernmentalism (a ‘state centric’ theory where nation-states are the main political actors) and its emphasis on powerful domestic sources, as well as from neo-functionalism where focus lies on the delegation of power to supranational<sup>7</sup> actors

---

<sup>7</sup> Supranationalism refers to the formal transfer of legal authority and decision-making power from Member States to an

(mainly the Commission) and their influence on EU policy. However, it is acknowledged that Europeanisation has also been influenced by meso-level approaches such as neo-institutionalism, where attention is paid on the development of formal and informal rules and institution-building (Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003) and policy networks where decision-makers and interest groups meet in order to negotiate and achieve common policy targets. The relevance of neo-institutional and policy network approaches when discussing Europeanisation is supported by Featherstone and Kazamias (2001, p. 1) who claim that “*domestic and EU institutional settings are intermeshed, with actors engaged in both vertical and horizontal networks and institutional linkages*”.

European governance<sup>8</sup> has shifted from being a state-centric or supranational to a multi-level model of polity. Over the years, the sovereignty of the Member States has been challenged by the policy formulation influenced by spill-over mechanisms (neo-functionalism) and institutional dynamics (neo-institutionalism) coming down from the EU and generating changes in the Member States (Liebfried in Wallace & Wallace, 2005). However, Europeanisation does not describe the creation of a European political arena and its key players as in classic integration theory (Graziano & Vink, 2007), but focuses on the domestic change occurring and the implementation of EU policies at national level.

The concepts of European integration and Europeanisation are closely linked. Radaelli (2000, p. 6) mentions that “*Europeanization would not exist without European integration*” because European integration examines what the EU is and how it functions, whereas Europeanisation is only dealing with what happens once the EU institutions are formed. In other words, Europeanisation addresses the effects of European integration on national polity, policy and politics, thus Europeanisation can be seen as a result of European integration.

Europeanisation has been studied as a two-way interaction between the national and the European level (Papadimitriou & Phinnemore, 2003), where the top-down (neo-functionalist) and bottom-up (intergovernmentalist) approaches reveal the interconnectivity between the

---

institution or international body. The clearest examples of supranational institutions can be found in the European Union, where the European Commission, the European Parliament, and the European Court of Justice, constitute common political structures with supranational authority—in contrast to the Council of Ministers, which is based on intergovernmental modes of decision-making (Oxford Dictionary of Politics).

<sup>8</sup> The notion Governance has been used in political sciences for analyzing the patterns of rules in European Union. Kohler-Koch (1996) supports that the transformation of governance affects the role of the state, the rules and behaviour, the pattern of interaction and the level of action.

two grand theories of International Relations (Rosamond, 2000; Bulmer & Lesquesne, 2005). This idea frames Europeanisation as “*an ongoing, interactive and mutually constitutive process of change linking national and European levels, where the responses of the Member States to the integration process feed back into the EU institutions and policy processes and vice versa*” (Major, 2005, p. 177). This implies that Member States’ responses to Europeanisation affect further development of EU level decision-making. Blumer and Burch (2000) highlight that Europeanisation is not necessarily a one-way causality but rather an ‘iterative and interactive’ process, which involves ‘projection’ and ‘reception’. In practice, Member States play the role of both ‘contributors’ and ‘products’ of European integration (Rometsch & Wessels, 1996, p. 75). On one hand, Member States ‘project’ (upload) their preferences to supranational level through negotiations and, from the other hand, ‘receive’ (download) directions and/or pressure for national institutional adaptation (Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003). Similarly, Featherstone and Kazamias (2001) add that domestic structures are not the ‘passive recipients’ of EU impact yet they are subject to top-down and bottom-up pressures.

“*European integration comprises the environment on which Europeanisation impacts or from which it emanates*” (Howell, 2004, p. 9). This means that at different times the emphasis on Europeanisation will either be based around mechanisms of change in terms of up-loading from the domestic to the EU level, downloading from the EU to the domestic level or cross-loading through policy transfer among Member States within the European arena. Indeed, the success of the Member State in terms of up-loading will have implications when it comes to downloading or to impacts and change at the domestic environment. The success in up-loading preferences will inevitably create misfits and consequently will have an impact on downloading EU preferences and policies.

Theories of European integration try to explain the various aspects of European Union development. However, no specific theory can be fully adequate to provide a comprehensive explanation of the multidimensional and complex development of the EU. Rather, each theory examines issues from a different angle emphasising specific stages and patterns of development. For the requirements of this study, the interconnection of the main theories of European integration with Europeanisation will be discussed in the context of sport policy. It is claimed that change in the social and educational dimension of national sport policy is a result of EU pressures. This is achieved through cross-loading mechanism or else the

horizontal nature of Europeanisation through learning processes and networking which is the interest of this study and will be examined below.

In general, Europeanisation is a new phenomenon under investigation for many researchers in European studies. It is approached as a process of changing and/or adapting to a more European outfit which affects the Member States' policy-making (Lawton, 1999; Jupille & Caporaso, 1998; Knill & Lenschow, 2000; Dyson, 2000), domestic structure (Ioakimidis, 1996; Spanou, 1998; Schmidt, 2002) and culture or identity (Hedetoft, 1995). The attempt to create a framework of analysis for the phenomenon of Europeanisation (Radaelli, 2000) will be discussed in this chapter.

#### **4.3.1. Intergovernmentalism**

The supporters of Intergovernmentalism attribute to the EU the role of administrator or else mediator who initially receives the messages from the international environment, transfers them to the national governments and then the latter determine the priorities and the goals (agenda-setting) (Chatzigianni, 2007). Bringing the issues of discussion to the European level, Member States negotiate and consolidate their common interests without jeopardizing vital national interests while the EU acts as a 'referee'. Intergovernmentalists suggest that although the sovereignty of the Member States prevails within the EU, it is the states' decision to pool their sovereignty and delegate power to European institutions (Moravcsik, 1998). European cooperation is effectively "*a way of solving problems that they [Member States] have in common*" (Rosamond, 2000, p. 140).

In the early 1990s, Andrew Moravcsik (1998, 1993, 1991), influenced by intergovernmentalism and neofunctionalism, introduced liberal intergovernmentalism as a more comprehensive and contemporary theoretical framework to explain the relation of domestic and international structures and the respective negotiations for power. State interests are likely to be formed by domestic pressures and economic interdependencies which are determined by domestic actors and national politics. Thus, the European integration is dominated by inter-governmental bargains between Member States in the European arena, and intra-governmental bargains between national executives and domestic groups (Börzel, 1997). In other words, this negotiation, or else cooperation, is the result of the demand for integration. Tsinisizelis and Chrysochoou (2006) added that the outcome of integration (policy output) is determined by the bargaining power of the governments (where larger

Member-States exert stronger influence in the creation of rules and the policy output) and the distribution of preferences among them.

Liberal intergovernmentalism is based on the idea of two level games which boosts the lobbying and the influence of national governments at European level. Rosamond (2000) explains that national executives play games in two arenas at the same time; at the domestic level they seek coalitions of support (lobbying) among domestic groups and at the international level, they bargain with the purpose of reinforcing their positions domestically. In this case, the important policy decisions for the EU are taken according to domestic preferences and priorities of the national governments while the effects of the intergovernmentalist negotiation depend on the bargaining power of the states and on national initiatives for institutionalisation. Policy preferences at the national level are influenced by interest groups within society. Thereafter, national governments represent these interests in international forums. Moravcsik (1998) supports that 'institutional delegation' is the element within liberal intergovernmentalism which suggests that supranational institutions are established to facilitate efficient interstate bargaining.

The use of intergovernmental approach to explain or support the concept of Europeanisation would have been useful if the study was interested in analysing bottom-up interaction and the process of uploading national preferences to EU. This study however, investigates the next phase of decision-making process, that is how EU decisions influence national policies and how EU down-loads its preferences to Member States. So intergovernmentalist theory is not adequate for the purposes of this study.

#### **4.3.2. Neofunctionalism**

Neofunctionalism, a sequel of functionalism, is a theory of political integration. While functionalism deals with the consolidation of peace in the European Community, neofunctionalism is concerned with the regional integration and especially the European integration (Tranholm-Mikkelsen, 1991), identifying conflicts and linkages among different policy arenas. It supports that European integration is the outcome of actions of various actors. These actors aim at satisfying their interests in accordance with the function rules of a pluralist policy environment, while greater emphasis is given to socio-economic functional needs of the system (Chatzigianni, 2007).



Ernst Haas, the pioneer of neofunctionalist theory, argued that the European Economic Community is a new political community as a consequence of the process of integration, whereby political actors from different states accept to shift their loyalties and political activities towards new institutions (Haas, 1968). Lindberg (1963) focused more on the elements of decision-making, foreseeing integration as a process whereby domestic political actors seek to make joint decisions or to delegate the decision-making process to new central institutions in order to achieve economic and welfare goals. The role of central institutions is highlighted as a means to embody the common interests and enhance the integration process (Tranholm-Mikkelsen, 1991). In terms of negotiation, while Member States remain important actors in the process and set the terms of the initial agreement, they do not exclusively determine the direction and extent of subsequent change.

In neofunctionalism, change is the outcome of ‘spill over’. This is the case when Member States agree to assign some degree of supranational responsibility for accomplishing a limited task and then discover that satisfying that function has external effects upon other aspects of their interdependent activities, ‘spilling-over’ from economic-social integration into political integration (Haas, 1964). In literature ‘spill-over’ is also named ‘domino effect’, ‘snowball effect’ or ‘task expansion’ mechanism of integration. *“Spillover<sup>9</sup> refers to a situation where co-operation, and further integration, in one field of policy necessitates or creates pressure for co-operation in another policy area”* (Cini, 2003). In particular, it applies to the policy-making process which includes all policy areas starting from functional issues (‘low policy’) to process to vital political issues for national interests (‘high policy’) in order to achieve economic and political integration. The first type, functional spillover, involves the expansion of integrative activities from one sector to another while the second type, political spillover, involves increasing politicisation of sectoral activity.

Supranational institutions play a key role in the neofunctionalist approach to European integration. Through supranational institutions, elites aim to transfer responsibilities to supranational centre of decision-making, in order to solve issues of concern and facilitate the decision-making process among national governments. In this way, expanding collaboration between Member States would eventually lead to political integration. Chrysoschoou,

---

<sup>9</sup> There are different types of spillover. Functional spillover means that co-operation in one policy area requires co-operation in other areas in order to operate effectively. Political spillover occurs when policies are linked to each other for mutual support through a bargaining process. Cultivated spillover is considered unintentional integration, where integration is the

Tsinisizelis, Stavridis and Ifantis (2003) explain that mutual reinforcement, which is the key to the logic of neofunctionalist ‘spillovers’, will gradually lead to convergence of demands on the parts of governments and to potential further integrative action, facilitated by the new central authorities. Consequently, successive spillovers in previously unconnected policy arenas could bring change in both the behavioural and operational attitudes of the ‘relevant elites’ (Chrysochoou et. al., 2003). In this context, the Commission, operating as a collegiate body, has an important role in European policy change, spreading integrative initiatives and offering technical expertise in joint projects at supranational level (Chrysochoou et. al., 2003).

Neo-functionalism suggests that through elite socialisation people involved in supranational policy-making tend to develop European loyalties and preferences (Pentland, 1973). National elites are looking for coalitions in order to exert pressure on national governments. The bureaucratic elites in turn try to convince their national elites of the advantages of supranational co-operation and the shift of loyalty from national towards European institutions. Supranational decision-making process in this case, is expressed not by the power exerted by European institutions over Member States, but is instead perceived as the expression of the good will of Member States to avoid veto and to look for ways to satisfy common interests. As Caporaso and Keeler (1995) summarise, this process leads to a more centralised system of governance where greater delegation of political authority is delivered from Member States to international institutions. This tendency leads to an increase in the formation of supranational interest groups which aim to influence policy decisions at supranational level.

Within the sport context, it is assumed that the intergovernmental approach to Europeanisation emphasises the actions Member States take in the development of sport policy, without taking into account the role of international sport institutions. In contrast, a neofunctional analysis of Europeanisation in sport policy emphasises the cooperation among sport structures in EU and the efforts of the European Commission to acquire a role in this policy area. However, sport is mainly a policy area of national concern especially regarding its social and educational function, thus down-loading EU preferences and practices to Member States cannot be merely explained by exerting pressure on national institutions and

---

effect of delegating authority to supranational institutions.

policies. This study is looking for another theoretical approach to Europeanisation which will take into consideration the EU influence in changing the peoples' perceptions, values and beliefs towards an 'EU outfit' for sport.

Concluding, over the last two decades the interest on the two grand theories, intergovernmentalism and neofunctionalism, has declined as new middle-range integration theories have emerged. In the context of multi-level governance, the middle range theories of new institutionalism and policy network analysis, provide additional explanations on how the European integration process is being shaped. Besides, Moravcsik's argument seems quite enlightening: *"Any general explanation of integration cannot rest on a single theory, neofunctionalism or intergovernmentalism, but must rest on a multicausal framework that orders a series of more narrowly focused theories"* (Moravcsik, 1998, p. 15).

#### **4.3.3. New Institutionalism in relation to Europeanisation**

New institutionalism has its origins in the recent comparative social science literature. It was only in the 1980s that institutions turned up to be the focus of policy research through the influence of new institutionalism. This rather new theoretical approach emphasises the importance of institutions ('institutions matter') in the process of European integration and in the formation of EU<sup>10</sup> policy, as they are extensively involved in the decision-making process. The research interest of this meso-theory lies on the impact of institutions on the integration process rather than on the process as a whole. Rosamond (2000) stresses that institutions provide the necessary framework ('system of rules') for policy-making which consists the platform ('negotiation arena') for external factors' interdependency. Institutions are a compound of political organisations, laws, and rules; they define how a political system operates and play a central role in directing such forces as intergovernmental bargains and sectoral spillover (Geyer, 1996). According to Bulmer (1998) institutions include formal and informal institutions, norms and symbols, policy instruments and procedures. Hall and Taylor (1996) add that new institutionalism comprises formal political processes as well as formal organisational networks.

Rhodes (1997) defines the institutional approach as a central pillar of political studies and it

---

<sup>10</sup> The European Union is the most densely institutionalised international organization in the world, with various intergovernmental and supranational institutions and a rapidly growing body of primary and secondary legislation, the so-called *acquis communautaire* (Pollack, 2004).

can thrive only if located in a multi-theoretic context that draws on a plurality of methods. According to neo-institutionalism, supranational institutions participate equally, as well as autonomous and independent in various levels with other actors through policy networks in the legislative process for European policy formulation, reinforcing the development of the European system of decision-making. The competition among institutions helps the clarification of responsibilities among each of them. The process of negotiation is recognised as multi-level, where supranational, national and subnational institutions and actors participate in the dynamics of change (Bulmer, 1994). Within the study of European integration, new institutionalism has focused on the formal and informal institutions where systemic change is negotiated. It is not interested in the winners and losers of the process (like the intergovernmentalists) but on the way the negotiating process affects the outcome.

Hall and Tator (1996) identify three forms of neo-institutionalism: rational choice, historical and sociological institutionalism. *Rational choice institutionalism* emphasises the way in which actors pursue their individual preferences within the context of institutional rules in order to maximise their benefits. Rational choice institutionalism is closely related to liberal intergovernmentalism. It is interested in the way in which the preferences of actors in the integration process change as a result of adjusting to new institutional rules. An example of an institutional rule that constrains actors' behaviour is the ordinary legislative procedure, which determines how European actors can pursue their preferred policy outcomes. In the case of Europeanisation, if the process is approached from the rational perspective, the outcome will be “*domestic change through a differential empowerment of actors resulting from a redistribution of resources at domestic level*” (Börzel & Risse, 2003, p. 58). However, this is unlikely to occur when Europeanisation is applied to ‘soft-law’<sup>11</sup> policy, such as sport, where there are no supranational actors that have the authority to implement redistribution at domestic level (Nielsen, 2008). Besides, sport policy falls under Member State sovereignty and in theory it would be rather unlikely that Member States voluntarily would delegate power to the Commission. On the contrary, if Member States decided to redistribute resources themselves, this could not be considered as Europeanisation. It should instead be interpreted as the outcome of domestic mediating factors.

---

<sup>11</sup> Soft law relates to rules of conduct that are not legally enforceable but nonetheless have a legal scope in that they guide the conduct of the institutions, the member states and other policy participants (Wellens & Borchardt, 1980). In this mode, Ladi (2005) makes the distinction between ‘soft’ and ‘hard’ mechanisms of Europeanisation.

A *historical institutionalist* approach to social policies would have implied an examination of the effects of institutions on sport policy over time and emphasis would be put on path dependency, meaning that past decisions influence the present. This resembles to some degree the starting point of the analysis and it would be interesting to see if the long tradition of sport policy in some ways stands in the way of processes of Europeanisation due to past decisions.

*Sociological institutionalism* examines the attitudes, incentives and the behaviour of people involved in the decision-making. Actually, it focuses on broader norms and general rules and the way in which these shape the identities and preferences of actors in the integration process. Sociological institutionalists also pay particular attention to the culture of institutions and the socialisation of actors within them, and consider the patterns of communication and persuasion that occur during policy-making and in the pursuit of integration. This approach to new institutionalism emphasises the perception that integration can be affected by cultural and cognitive changes due to the impact on ideas, values and identities. Institutional evolution is understood as a change in cultural expectations due to adaptational pressure on domestic-level processes which is reflected on organisational structure. The fact that actors' goals and preferences can be transformed, it is perceived as 'social learning' (Bache, 2006) which is practically compatible with the 'learning' process of Europeanisation. Consequently, from the sociological perspective of new institutionalisation, Europeanisation process can be viewed as "*domestic change through a socialization and collective learning process, resulting in norm internalization and the development of new identities*" (Börzel & Risse in Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003:59).

New institutionalism was born out of a reaction to the behavioural revolution. In general, *regulative* institutions, or else rational choice institutionalism, use the 'logic of consequentiality' to examine how institutions can influence political actors to maximise benefits. *Normative* institutions, or else historical institutionalism, focus on actors' behaviour out of duty or with the 'logic of appropriateness'. In this given framework, the institutional actors feel to some extent constrained and obligated by the norms and rules of the institution. Finally, sociological institutionalism emphasises how cognitive institutions change the actors' preferences and identities, stressing the idea 'the way we do things' (Scott, 2001). In other words, instead of acting under rules or based on obligation, individuals act because of conceptions. Sociological institutionalism is also combined with *constructivist* approaches for

the study of European integration. It is a form of new institutionalism that is concerned with *“the way in which institutions create meaning for individuals, providing important theoretical building blocks for normative institutionalism within political science”* (Lowndes, 2010, p. 65). Many researches refer to ‘constructivist institutionalism’ (Hay, 2006) or ‘discursive institutionalism’ (Schmidt, 2008) emphasising the role of ideas, discourses and discursive practices and the more dynamic approach to institutional change. In sociological institutionalism culture is reflected in norms, symbols and moral templates (Hall & Taylor, 1996) while institutions seem to shape the preferences of the actors. In social constructivism, institutions, i.e. the European Union, work as a platform for communication and persuasion (Rosamond, 2006) where collective understanding and identities are developed. European citizenship, as an expression of the European identity, is a core concept in the constructivist thinking emphasising that changes in the EU derive from the establishment of norms rather than from external factors.

One of the main claims of sociological institutionalism is *‘isomorphism’* (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The concept of isomorphism is based on the idea that nation-states participation in the EU has had a homogenising effect on their policies (Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003). Within the context of Europeanisation, Radaelli (2000) highlights the role of EU institutions in enhancing policy transfers between member states as agents of isomorphic pressures. Lodge (2000) uses ‘isomorphism’ to explain the ‘Europeanisation’ effect on German competition and public procurement policies, while Dimitrakopoulos and Passas (2004) use this concept to explain how Greek policies have changed due to the Greek participation in the EU. The common element of these studies with Europeanisation is the isomorphic effect of participation in EU matters on Member States.

Bache (2006) agrees that most of the Europeanisation literature is institutionalist in nature (see also Knill & Lehmkuhl, 1999; Börzel, 1999; Radaelli, 2003). Bulmer and Lequesne (2005, p. 51) argue that *“an awareness of the new institutionalism is indispensable for understanding how Europeanisation is theorized”*. Olsen (2002) identifies Europeanisation as the changes taking place in Member States which will lead to institutional change. In the framework of institutional change, this study argues that Europeanisation follows the tradition of sociological institutionalism in order to examine the social and educational aspect of the Greek sport policy.

Summarising, it is believed that new institutionalism theory is compatible with an analysis of policy change and can demonstrate how European institutions influence human behaviour, i.e. key sport actors' decisions, beliefs and values. The Europeanisation of public policy, such as sport, falls under the 'new' regulatory mode of the Open Method of Coordination. This entails exchange of best practice, peer reviews and normative standards which to a large degree can be linked to sociological institutionalism. In other words, new institutionalist theory, especially the sociological approach is closely connected to the Europeanisation of national sport policy; this research deals with how EU policies are channeled through national institutions and therefore, it is reasonable to say that in this thesis new institutionalist theory has been associated with Europeanisation.

As the following theory chapter will clarify, the concept of Europeanisation is both actor and institution dependant and according to Johan P. Olsen (2002) Europeanisation is related to institutional change because it is about developing new institutions of political governance or policies and adapting existing domestic institutions to a larger consistent order. Therefore, the links between sociological institutionalist theory and Europeanisation are both relevant and appropriate for this research.

#### **4.3.4. The dynamic of 'Change' in the European scene**

In the late 1980s, a new idea emerged in political science arguing that European integration has an impact on Member States and it affects the relationship between the central and local level of decision-making, weakening the national government. This perception led to the recognition that EU is a multi-level and interconnected political arena, which involves continuous negotiations among national governments, localities and European institutions leading to collective decision-making (see also Hooghe & Marks, 2001). The process of negotiation is recognised as a multi-level one, where supranational, national and subnational institutions and actors participate in the dynamics of change (Bulmer, 1994). Representing of this new approach, Marks et al. (1996) conceptualise the EU as a single, multi-level polity, whereby there are overlapping competencies among multiple levels of governments and the political actors constantly interact across those levels. *The conceptualisation of the EU as a multi-level system of governance can be a starting point to link the EU's policy on sport to the national and subnational levels (Garcia, 2006, p. 2).*

Influenced by the supranational approach of neofunctionalism (Haas, 1968, 1964; Lindberg,

1963), multi-level governance (MLG) argues that States are not the sole political actors in the European policy making scene. At the same time, expanding the liberal intergovernmentalism theory of Moravcsik (1991, 1993, 1998), which understands the development of the EU as the outcome of a ‘two level game’ (Putnam, 1988) between domestic and intergovernmental politics, MLG suggests that decision-making competencies are spread among many actors at various levels rather than monopolised by national governments (Hooghe & Marks, 2001) or EU institutions. This plethora of different institutional actors demonstrates the compatibility between MLG and new institutionalist theory (Awesti, 2007; see also Pollack, 1996; Bulmer, 1998). In brief, in the context of multi-level governance, the process of EU policy formulation is characterised by power-sharing, interdependency, complementary functions and overlapping competencies (Marks et al. 1996; see also Chrysochoou, 2009; Tsinisizelis, 2001).

The process of European integration is seen by Marks (1993) as a ‘centrifugal process’ in which member states, progressively, lose their decision-making power in two directions: up to supranational institutions, and down to diverse units of subnational government. Therefore, the two levels of governance are not autonomous and self-contained, but they are interrelated. Hooghe and Marks (2001) defined MLG<sup>12</sup> as the dispersion of authority across multiple levels of political governance. Subsequently, the control center of policy-making has changed and Member States’ sovereignty and authority is shared within the Union through the process of decision-making and the operation of supranational, national and subnational institutions (Tsinisizelis, 2001). *“The multi-level nature of politics and policy-making in Europe opens numerous points of access and communication for policy levels to influence each other and a starting point to evaluate the influence of EU policies on national sport policies and vice-versa”* (Garcia, 2006, p. 27), which is the case of Europeanisation.

In an effort to examine Europeanisation of national sport policy, European integration theories emphasise the role of intergovernmental or/and supranational actors in the process of policy change. In this respect, the ‘multi level’ theory of governance complements the theoretical framework of Europeanisation. *“Europeanisation and multi-level governance are*

---

<sup>12</sup> Schmitter (2004) uses the term ‘poly-centric’ as well as the ‘multi-level’ nature of the EU as similar in order to include the functional dimension along with the territorial one emphasising that *“a system of Polycentric Governance (PCG) can be defined as an arrangement for making binding decisions over a multiplicity of actors that delegates authority over functional tasks to a set of dispersed and relatively autonomous agencies that are not controlled – de jure or de facto – by a single collective institution”*.



*concepts that share a concern with explaining the governance change in Europe”* (Bache, 2008, p. 1). The multi-level nature of EU sport policy-making has three main characteristics: First, *‘decision-making competencies are shared by actors at different levels, rather than monopolised by state executives’*. Second, *‘collective decision-making among States involves a significant loss of control for individual state executives’*. Third, *‘political arenas are interconnected rather than nested’*. *Subnational actors operate in both national and supranational arenas, creating transnational associations in the process’* (Marks et al., 1996, p. 346-347).

The concept of ‘change’ is a highly salient topic of discussion in European integration theories. Anderson (1990), who is the most skeptical representative of the intergovernmentalist approach, admits the possibility of modest or substantial changes within national governments. Functionalist and neo-functionalist approaches use the principle of spillover to explain such changes. Institutionalism explains change as the outcome of distribution of power and shifting loyalties within the European Union's institutions. Rules, values, routines, norms, and identities are both instruments of stability and arenas of change. Change is a constant feature of institutions and existing arrangements impact on how institutions emerge and how they are reproduced and changed. Institutional arrangements can prescribe, speed up and delay change. Therefore, in order to understand the dynamics of change, it is important to clarify the role of institutions within standard processes of change.

Conducting an analysis of the effects of the EU on national policies, Anderson (1990) identifies three possible outcomes as a result of change. The first outcome is the maintenance of the status quo, where the central governments retain their existing gatekeeping capacity. This can happen either because national governments are able to suppress any changes coming from Brussels or because those changes do not appear to be relevant for the local levels. The second possible outcome is the erosion of power of the central government, and the consequent emergence of a Europe of the Regions, which is seen by Anderson (1990) as being a non-positive outcome. National groups of representation, free from national institutions, will seek direct relations with the EU institutions, overloading the fragile capacity of the latter. Last, there is a variegated set of outcomes. Some Member States retain their gatekeeping capacity; some others assist to a modest or substantial change, while certain states may experience an increase in their gatekeeping capacity. The Member States may

retain their role as gatekeepers even with various modifications depending on the domestic situation (Anderson, 1990).

In this complex and interdependent environment, multi-level governance builds not only vertical interactions among institutions, but it also embodies horizontal collaborations among actors. These partnerships encourage networks at all levels of governance, demonstrating the multi-level nature of policy networks. As Hooghe (1996, p. 18) explains “*variable combinations of governments on multiple layers of authority - European, national, and sub-national - form policy networks for collaboration*”.

Policy network approach is related to the theory of European governance and is influenced by neo-functionalism. Policy networks are defined as:

*"a set of relatively stable relationships, which are of non-hierarchical and interdependent nature linking a variety of actors, who share common interests with regard to a policy and who exchange resources to pursue these shared interests acknowledging that co-operation is the best way to achieve common goals"* (Börzel, 1998, p. 254).

These supranational networks can develop skills and facilitate the exchange and sharing of information and resources among the involved actors (Chrysohoou, 2009) reflecting a learning mechanism for participants as they can share new experiences and acquire new knowledge. Peterson (1995) mentions that policy network “*is the arena for the mediation of the interests of government and interest groups*”, where both parties negotiate and search for accepted solutions to their common problems. The policy networks are useful tools for analysing change because they pay attention to the interaction of all important agents within a given political system (Marsh & Rhodes, 1992). According to Ladi (2005) “*they investigate processes of learning and transfer which are in the heart of policy change and the way it is influenced by exogenous factors such as globalization and Europeanization*”.

Kohler-Koch and Eising (1999) support that policy-making in EU is based on a system of network governance where the multi-layered structure of the EU stimulates the lobbyists’ activity. Applied to public policy, policy network is used as an analytical tool to explain the actions at EU level and the outcome of ‘lobbying’ at national level. The EU is seen as an entity that “*creates a number of arenas for the interplay of relatively autonomous groups*” (Peters, 1998, p. 19). Andersen and Eliassen (1993) define lobbying as the actions of

gathering and disseminating information in order to become proactive in the policy process. The intension is to influence a policy network in order to accomplish particular interests as for example to gain access to EU funding. The networks consist of governmental actors, interest groups and/or specialists on specific issues (these can be policy networks, epistemic communities or advocacy coalitions). In the case of social and educational dimension of sport, policy networks take the form of Experts Groups, Working Groups, Parties, EU sport Forum, structured dialogue, etc. Mutual interests among these groups of actors challenge intense lobbying in the framework of the negotiation process for policy-making.

#### **4.3.5. Mediating factors for change: The Open Method of Coordination**

One of main cognitive instruments of networks in the policy formulation is the Open Method of Coordination. Defined by the Lisbon European Council in 2000<sup>13</sup>, the OMC is a mechanism of policy co-ordination aiming at achieving changes in national policies through learning processes in order to meet common goals, to increase the knowledge and comparability of each country and to exchange ideas for national policies and structures. In particular, the OMC applies a series of methods in order to generate change such as *diffusion of knowledge and experiences*, *persuasion* through practices of peer review and dialogue, *knowledge work aiming at* the development of a common policy discourse, comparable statistics, benchmarks and common indicators, *reiteration*, and *strategic use of policy linkages* (see Jacobsson 2001, 2002). Thus, the OMC is perceived as similar to policy transfer and diffusion through a process of mutual learning (Hodson & Maher, 2001; Radaelli, 2000). ‘Multi-level’ and ‘network’ governance are both theoretical approaches that are closely related to the Open Method of Coordination (OMC). The OMC recommends practices that influence institutional change from European to national and regional level (multi-level). It involves a wide range of policy-making actors (networks) that intervene in the process. Particularly, the OMC relies on the policy network approach in order to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge, to spread best practices and to foster policy convergence towards EU goals. At the EU level for example, depending on the policy sector, networks can operate in order to add professional value, to promote mutual learning, to support joint interests, or networks are given a formal role in the implementation of EU policies.

The OMC is a mechanism of policy co-ordination aiming at achieving changes in national

---

<sup>13</sup> Lisbon European Council, 23 and 24 March 2000, Presidency Conclusions, 37-40.

policies through learning processes in order to meet common goals, to increase the knowledge and comparability of each country and to exchange ideas for national policies and structures. In particular, the OMC applies a series of methods in order to generate change such as *diffusion of knowledge and experiences*, *persuasion* through practices of peer review and dialogue, *knowledge work aiming at* the development of a common policy discourse, comparable statistics, benchmarks and common indicators, *reiteration*, and *strategic use of policy linkages* (see Jacobsson 2001, 2002). Thus, the OMC is perceived as similar to policy transfer and diffusion through a process of mutual learning (Hodson & Maher, 2001; Radaelli, 2000).

The OMC has a supranational as well as an intergovernmental dimension. When decision-making takes place at supranational level, it involves various actors<sup>14</sup>, whereby the State is an actor among many others. On the other hand, the Open Method of Coordination is also applicable in policy areas which fall within the competence of the Member States such as employment, social inclusion, education, youth and of course sport. The intergovernmental view supports that the Member States evaluate one another (peer pressure), with the Commission's role being limited to surveillance while the European Parliament and the Court of Justice playing virtually no part in the process.

The aim of the OMC is to 'teach' Member States how to develop their own policies. Through the learning process, Member States identify relevant issues, formulate objectives, enrich their knowledge, build a coherent framework, map relevant actors, identify and promote best practices. So, the OMC provides a *soft* frame to *hard* law interventions, meaning that the OMC is useful when Member States want to follow soft law commitment for implementing hard law regulations.

The OMC is an important mechanism especially for 'soft law' policies, as it links national policies with each other, and connects functionally different policies at EU level (Borras & Jacobsson, 2004). Particularly, it brings domestic policy-making co-operation at EU level, combining common action and national autonomy in an unprecedented manner (Borras & Jacobsson, 2004).

---

<sup>14</sup> The method is called 'open' because the process of coordination is open to the participation of the various actors of civil society (Council of the European Union, 2000b: 6, Presidency Note No. 9088) stressing the need for involvement of social partners, representatives of national and regional governments and consultation with NGOs.

There is an intense discussion regarding the OMC as a new mode of EU governance (Radaelli 2003; Borrás & Jacobsson, 2004). The learning process as a mechanism of cooperation “*reflects a qualitatively new approach to European integration, and indicates an important element in the new governance construction*” (Radulova, 2011). As a decentralised mode of governance it can be considered as an attempt to experiment with certain types of governance arrangements (Laffan, 2002; Zeitlin, 2005; Rhodes, 2005) involving various policy actors at national, European and supranational level. According to the European Commission, the method refers to a new form of collective action to foster compatibility, consistency or convergence between Member States’ public policies.

According to sociological institutionalism, the OMC creates opportunities for socialisation of elites through common discourses which can cause an Europeanisation effect (Radaelli 2003b). The increasing socialisation and discourse of actors inevitably leads to political convergence. Consequently, the OMC is a policy instrument for change to national practices. It has been introduced in an increasing number of policy areas where the Community powers are limited and the policy context is dealing with national identity or culture, such as sport and other public policy fields.

Within the sport context, the OMC is conceived as a flexible governance method, in complement to the subsidiarity principle of the White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty Provision for sport. It is used to create a concerted policy focus on goals, in order to indirectly press Member States to improve their national sport policy in relation to the social and educational dimension of sport, by “*strengthening both the horizontal and hierarchical interaction and shaping convergence of decisions and actions*” (Larionova, 2007). Where the EU cannot legislate, it uses instead the OMC as a means of governing sport developments through setting ‘common agreed objectives’ and through peer and normative pressures on Member States, to perform as good as other Member States do. The OMC is an interesting development both because of its intention to achieve convergence across the Member States in key strategic priorities in social policy, but also for the way it aims to direct and shape national and sub-national policy-making in relation to the EU (Ferrera & Sacchi, 2005).

The OMC is also seen as a new instrument of Europeanisation in areas of domestic public policy. In the case of the OMC, the EU norms and the collective understandings are defused

via the frequently organised meetings, exerting adaptational pressure on the domestic-level processes of policy-making (Börzel & Risse, 2003). Scholars often relate Europeanisation to cognitive convergence, which refers to the identification of a shared set of beliefs regarding key problems and the causal mechanisms at work in a policy area (Radaelli, 2003b). Since the OMC is designed as policy learning instrument which will help to spread best practices, the notion of policy learning can play a significant role in the Europeanisation process. What is supported in this research is the link between the mechanisms of OMC and Europeanisation in regards to the impact at domestic level. The potential influence of OMC on the national level of policy-making can be examined from the perspective of Europeanisation and sociological institutionalism. Sociological institutionalism (SCI) argues that even though the EU institutions are empowered in a rather limited way under the new OMC process, they still might change the actors' behaviour.

In brief, the following table (Table 3) provides a snapshot of the content of the main theories of European integration, discussed in this chapter.

Table 3

Source: Haas, E. (1968, p. 16)

<b>EUROPEAN INTEGRATION: lines of argumentation</b>		
<b>CENTRAL FOCUS: Interests</b>		<b>CENTRAL FOCUS: Institutional shape</b>
<b>GRAND THEORY</b>	<p><b><i>Intergovernmentalism</i></b></p> <p>Basic assumption: European integration is based on actions and decision of European nation states. Topics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nature of European interests</li> <li>• Intergovernmental / supranational balance</li> <li>• Pooling or sharing of sovereignty?</li> </ul>	<p><b><i>Neo-functionalism</i></b></p> <p>Basic assumption: Economic integration in one sector will foster integration in other sectors (economic spillover) and will make political integration necessary (political spillover). Topics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Which spillovers will occur? When?</li> </ul>
	<b>MIDDLE-RANGE THEORIES</b>	<p><b><i>State centrism</i></b></p> <p>Basic assumption: The EU still rests on nation states. Hypotheses:</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supranational institutions within the EU function as agents of the collective will of the nation states</li> <li>• Two-level game: national politicians play on two fields: domestic and EU politics</li> </ul> <p><b><i>Policy Networks</i></b></p> <p>Basic assumption: Policy processes and outcomes can be described and analyzed by looking at policy network arenas.</p> <p>Key variables:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stability of network memberships</li> <li>• Insularity of networks</li> <li>• Relative strength of resources</li> </ul>	<p>hierarchical, deliberative and apolitical governance.</p> <p>Characteristics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decision-making at various levels</li> <li>• Collective decision making</li> <li>• Interconnected political arenas</li> </ul> <p><b><i>New Institutionalism</i></b></p> <p>Basic assumption: To catch the functioning of institutions, the following have to be incorporated: formal and informal procedures, practices, relationships, norms. Three types of New Institutionalism:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Historical: distribution of power through institutions in path dependent developments</li> <li>• Rational choice: constraints on political action by institutions</li> <li>• Sociological: cultural explanation of institutions</li> </ul>
--	--	---

#### 4.4. Europeanising national policies

The rapid widening and deepening of the European Union after the late 1980s as well as the failure of the existing theories of European integration to conceptualise the domestic impact of the EU (Dyson & Goetz, 2003; Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004) turned the academic interest towards a new theoretical approach, namely Europeanisation. Indeed, reviewing the literature, Europeanisation seems to be the most adequate theoretical framework to explain the EU influence on national policy in terms of the conditions, the mechanisms, the process and the impact of such an interaction among EU and Member-States. According to Olsen (2002), Europeanisation is about change in domestic institutions of governance and policies

which can be seen as a result of the development of European-level institutions, identities and policies.

At this point it is necessary to mention some common points of argumentation as well as to distinguish the notion of Europeanisation from globalisation or internationalisation. The concept of globalisation refers to the growing network of interdependencies, political, economic, cultural and social, which bind human beings together (Maguire, 2011). In particular, the increasing number of international agencies, the growing global forms of communication (i.e. TV rights for sport), the development of global competitions (i.e. Olympic Games) and national and international sports organisations, the world-wide acceptance of rules governing specific, the development of standard notions of 'rights' and citizenship that are increasingly standardised internationally are all indicative of the occurrence of globalisation in the sports world (Alexopoulos, 2007). Global sport seems to be leading to a homogeneous world-wide or else cosmopolitan sporting culture (Roche, 2004). On the other hand globalisation and Europeanisation are distinct from each other in geographic terms. Europeanisation can be perceived occasionally as a regional manifestation of globalisation. Therefore, Europeanisation can be defined as a growing institutional uniformity across European political systems.

The various theories of European integration offer different definitions and explanations of Europeanisation. Neo-institutionalism and policy network approaches identify formal and informal structures of decision-making within EU and define Europeanisation as:

*“...the emergence and development at the European level of distinct structures of governance, that is, of political, legal and social institutions associated with political problem-solving that formalise interactions among the actors, and of policy networks specialising the creation of authoritative European rules”* (Risse, Cowles and Caporaso, 2001).

Europeanisation presents *“parallel and interconnected processes of change at both national and supranational levels”* (Harmsen & Wilson, 2000, p. 19). This change is not only remarked in policy aspects but also in institutions. Institutional change may reshape identities or even create pressure for new institutional forms. Risse, Cowles and Caporaso (2001) comment that Europeanisation can lead to the development of institutions of governance at the European level. Besides, *“Europeanisation is not simply about formal policy rules but*



*also about less tangible aspects, such as beliefs and values”* (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004, p. 3), which, in this study, is the expected outcome of Europeanisation in sport policy.

A more complete definition of Europeanisation, emphasising informal structures, is given by Radaelli (2000, p. 4) who says that:

*“Europeanisation consists of processes of a) construction, b) diffusion and c) institutionalisation of formal and informal rules, procedures, policy paradigms, styles, ‘ways of doing things’ and shared beliefs and norms which are first defined and consolidated in the EU policy process and then incorporated in the logic of domestic (national and sub-national) discourse, political structures and public policies”.*

Radaelli’s definition demonstrates that the Europeanisation process takes place at EU level, where decisions are formulated in EU institutions and then they are incorporated into national structures and policies through discourses (informal) or rules and procedures (formal). In informal processes, policy change is the outcome of policy transfer (see also Ladi, 2007), diffusion, discourses and it has an impact on identities, culture, political structures and public policies. This definition is particularly useful in the analysis of sport policy, as European institutions have limited, if any, power in the area of sport (certainly in the social dimension of sport), and therefore frequently rely on soft or informal mechanisms in their attempts to prompt change. Such an example is the promotion of a number of EU initiatives to Member States, recommendations and processes of policy making in order to develop a European dimension of sport. In the case of sport, although there is no relevant EU policy, Europeanisation can occur a) in the early stages of the formulation of sport policy (construction), b) when implementing another policy that promotes or supports sport-related initiatives or c) in a less structured way, when there is diffusion and discourses on sport issues between European and national level.

In the case of sport, although there is no relevant EU policy, Europeanisation can occur in the early stages of the formulation of sport policy (construction). Alternatively the implementation of a policy that promotes or supports sport-related initiatives or the development of a more or less structured European and national discourse on sport issues can also produce Europeanisation.

Furthermore, scholars identified a socio-cultural aspect of Europeanisation, which is related to the emergence of a sense of community or European identity among the citizens of the EU member states (Hedetoft, 1995; Roche, 2004; Smith, 2001). Chrysochoou (2001) identified the great importance of Europeanisation in the deepening of a European identity and the creation of a European demos. Venturelli-Christensen (2000) proposed a definition of Europeanisation, which includes an institutional and a socio-cultural aspect, the last one better known as European identity. In her comparative analysis of Danish and Italian customs administration, the author investigated how a European identity could emerge in some sectors of the society as a result of institutional Europeanisation. Kontochristou (2004, p. 222) describes European identity as a special type of collective identity that “*indicates acceptance of the basic values and principles of the EU, as well as a feeling of social coherence and of a common route*”. Spanou (1998) argues that the intense interaction within the EU generates shared values and culture. The cultural significance of sport as a vehicle for the process of EU social integration and for the formation of EU identity (sharing ‘European values’ through sport) has well been identified by the EU institutions (Roche, 2004). In particular, the Declaration on Sport (No. 29) annexed to the Amsterdam Treaty (European Union, 1999) emphasises the social significance of sport, in particular its role in forging identity and bringing people together.

Previous scholarly work has distinguished *strong* from *weak* Europeanisation (Börzel and Risse, 2009). Strong Europeanisation refers to a shift in policy hegemony from Member States to the European Union institutions, and weak Europeanisation refers to some kind of minor change in the Member States' institutions, policy or culture which has been caused by the process of European integration. Sport is a policy area that complies with weak Europeanisation as there is no legislative framework and sport is still a highly national concern. Another distinction of Europeanisation is given by Radaelli (1997): ‘*Direct Europeanisation*’ is common in public policy where regulatory competence has passed from the Member-States to the European Union and ‘*indirect Europeanisation*’ is apparent in areas where Member-States seems to emulate one another in particular policy choices or regulatory frameworks (i.e. isomorphism, Radaelli 2000; Lodge 2000). This paper will argue on the existence of ‘indirect’ and ‘weak’ Europeanisation in sport policy.

Europeanisation can be examined from a vertical or horizontal perspective. Influenced by intergovernmentalism and neofunctionalism, the vertical process is divided in a ‘top-down’

and ‘bottom up’ approach. ‘Top-down’ is the process where ‘hard-law’ instruments of Europeanisation, such as EU decisions, cause domestic change on policy, politics and administrative structures. This change is the result of adaptational pressure exercised to Member States in order to comply with EU policies (Radaelli, in Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003). In practice, Member States apply the agreed EU model to their institutions and policy areas. In ‘bottom-up’ process, national actions influence EU development in order to enhance domestic opportunity structures and promote their own agenda, however this process is not the focus of this research. Still, it is not unusual for Member States not to have the necessary institutional and administrative resources to upload their preferences when EU policies are formulated. As a result, they only absorb the top-down impact of the EU upon their national policy making (Dyson & Goetz, 2003; see also Börzel, 2002). Horizontal process of Europeanisation occurs when ‘soft-law’ instruments influence the decision making even though there is no direct adaptational pressure on the Member States. In this case, a process of change is activated through the diffusion of ideas, perceptions of good policy and best practice (Radaelli in Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003).

Precisely, the idea of ‘policy transfer’ can be better applied in horizontal Europeanisation as it includes “*shared beliefs and norms which are first defined and consolidated in the making of EU decisions and then incorporated in the logic of domestic discourse, identities, political structures and public policies*” (Radaelli 2000, p. 4; Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004, p 4). It is a process where EU transmits knowledge policies, administrative arrangements, institutions etc. to the national level (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2000; Bomberg & Peterson, 2000). This mechanism of Europeanisation features aspects of learning<sup>15</sup> processes and socialization, which are also key features of the OMC where the latter serves as a ‘soft-law’ instrument for policy formulation. Although in OMC there is no legal sanctioning mechanism, pressure can be exerted through different means of recommendations and strategic reports where ideas of convergence or ‘good governance’ can be imitated.

In general, EU requirements are transmitted to the national level as rules, measures or

---

<sup>15</sup> There are two types of learning: simple and social learning (Checkel, 1999). In ‘simple learning’, key actors learn through a process of acquiring new information and altering strategies although at the end they follow given, fixed interests. ‘Simple learning’ is apparent when policy transfer takes places with the use of hard or soft law regulations. In the case of ‘social learning’, political actors obtain new interests and preferences through a process of interaction with broader institutional contexts such as norms or discursive structures (Checkel, 1999). For instance, interactions between national and EU level political actors can have an impact on domestic policy making in terms of changing their belief systems and ideas (Kohler-Koch, 1996).

directives which consists a hard-law approach to Europeanisation or as declarations, recommendations, decisions which consist a soft-law approach to Europeanisation. In the context of sport EU requirements take the form of initiatives. The White Paper on Sport and the accompanying “Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin” are some examples of soft-law instruments that will be discussed in this paper in order to examine the reaction of Greece to EU recommendations or else the degree of domestic change as a result of Europeanisation. For the requirements of this study Europeanisation of the national sport policy-making will be examined under the lenses of social institutionalism as a horizontal process between EU and Member States, where transfer of concepts and policies is apparent among Member States while EU acts as “*a facilitator of inter-state transfer through mechanisms of learning and borrowing such as the open method of coordination*” (Bache, 2005, p. 4).

The horizontal process of Europeanisation, according to Bulmer and Radaelli (2004) is also referred as ‘facilitated coordination’. According to this perspective, the policy process is not subject to European law, decisions are subject to unanimity amongst the governments and the EU is simply an arena for the exchange of ideas. In facilitated coordination, national governments are the key actors and agreements at EU level take the form of declarations or ‘soft law’ requirements. The absence of supranational powers explains the horizontal pattern of Europeanisation where collective learning, exchange of ideas, emulation and transfer of policy are the components of the process. In other words, what is achieved is “*‘horizontal’ exchanges between member governments and the resultant learning of shared policy principles*” (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004, p. 7). This aspect of Europeanisation is presented in the following table (Table 4).

*Table: 4 Horizontal Europeanisation*

<b>MODE OF GOVERNANCE</b>	<b>MECHANISM</b>	<b>ELEMENTS</b>	<b>OUTCOME</b>
Facilitated coordination	Horizontal	Soft law, declarations, networks, discourses	Learning, policy exchange, transfer of policy, socialisation

According to the above, Europeanisation of sport policy is can be regarded as a learning process about a good policy practice where EU offers a “*forum for discussion and a platform*

*for policy transfer*” among Member-States (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004). “Policy-learning” is an essential tool for Member-States as they adapt best practices, converge towards EU requirements and virtually change the domestic policies accordingly. In the case of sport, “learning” opportunities are offered at European level through ad hoc meetings, forums, networks, structured dialogue and cooperation among stakeholders and key decision-makers.

Regarding the process of Europeanisation in a multi-level environment, it is characterised by a ‘two-way’ interaction between the national and the European level (see also Börzel, 2001; Bulmer & Burch, 2001; Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003) where Member States play the role of both ‘contributors’ and ‘products’ of European integration (Rometsch & Wessels, 1996, p. 75). In this interactive decision-making process, Member States upload their preferences to supranational level through negotiations (bottom-up) and download them by adapting EU policies (top-down) (Radaelli 2003a, p. 34). The outcome of Europeanisation can be reflected in the process of policy shaping, policy-making, policy implementation and policy reformulation at the EU and national levels of governance (Rometsch & Wessels, 1996), in institutional adaptations at domestic level (Egeberg, 2001; Knill, 2001) and in the beliefs and values of policy actors that is something not measurable. Europeanisation incorporates the involvement of a greater number of actors in the policy formulation and brings changes in the decision-making powers and the redistribution of resources, emphasising the connection to the theory of policy networks. According to Matthews (1999), *‘Europeanisation is a process of changing inter-dependencies between the regional, national and supranational tiers of governance’*. Consequently, this change can be reflected in the policy-making mechanisms while new relations are being formed among national, sub-national and EU institutions.

Domestic change in response to Europeanisation is subject to certain conditions (Börzel 2003, Olsen, 2002, Bache, 2003). First, according to the *‘goodness of fit’* approach, there must be a degree of *‘misfit’* or incompatibility in processes, policies and institutions, between European and national level (Börzel & Risse, 2000). This ‘inconvenience’ constitutes adaptational pressure, which is the key component for expecting a change. Second, apart from the ‘misfit’ there must be some *‘facilitating factors’* such as actors or institutions in order to respond to the adaptational pressures. Such mediating factors can be the economic crisis, policy legacies and preferences (Schmidt, 2002), multiple veto points, norm entrepreneurs, formal and informal institutions within a political culture (Börzel & Risse,

2000) or organisations and individuals (Featherstone & Radaelli, 2003) all of which can evoke policy change. So, depending on the theoretical approach to Europeanisation, different factors are responsible for the domestic change (Börzel & Risse, 2000). For instance, under the sociological institutional point of view, socialisation, learning and individual's behaviour, values and norms can influence key policy actors' preferences. Moreover, the OMC can transform these ideas into policies and diffuse them to Member States' policy strategies.

Contrary to the idea of '*goodness of fit*' as a condition for change, Scharpf (1999) and Wallace (2005) present two fundamental modes of Europeanisation in order to explain the different levels of EU impact on the domestic policy. '*Prescriptive*' and '*discursive*' Europeanisation are modes, i.e. 'types of interaction' (Scharpf, 1999), or else 'governance techniques' (Fletcher, 2003), which determine patterns of governance in the multi-level European policy content. Prescriptive Europeanisation exercises high coercive pressure on Member States and is characterised by domestic compliance to legally binding European legislation and the EU impact is national re-regulation. In prescriptive modes of interaction the policy change is expected to be higher showing strong evidence of Europeanisation. On the other hand, in discursive Europeanisation there is no EU pressure due to absence of legally-binding regulation, however the policy-making influence derives from EU suggestions, initiatives and recommendations. In this mode the degree of change is expected to be moderate. Discursive Europeanisation could be seen as similar to horizontal Europeanisation and it shares common characteristics with sociological institutionalism and the OMC where EU operates as an arena for the exchange of political ideas and the diffusion of information in transnational networks.

Scholars in European studies have considered Europeanisation as a process of change, which can be identified in many aspects of the policy process as well as in the structures involved. According to Börzel and Risse (2000, p. 6-7) there are three main '*dimensions of domestic change*', namely the national *policy*, *polity* and *politics*. *Policy* refers inter alia to policy style, general problem-solving approach, policy instruments, policy standards, narratives and discourses and subsequent changes in legal and administrative structures and patterns of interest intermediation. *Politics*, includes processes of interest formation, interest aggregation, interest representation and public discourses. Finally *polity* entails political, legal and administrative structures, system-wide institutions pertaining to the member-states' politics, societies and economies as a whole. Haverland (2003) stresses the institutional

structures and processes of national political systems as the subjects of change. According to Featherstone (1998) and Lawton (1999) the influences that the EU can have on the domestic political agenda are more related to the content instead of the form of implementation, which is left to the national governments. That is because the EU does not have the resources to be directly engaged in how policy might be implemented at the national level. Thus, Europeanisation can be seen as a change in the content and/or in the form of policy implementation. The domestic effect of Europeanisation can be conceptualised as a process of change at the domestic level in which the Member States adapt their processes, policies, and institutions to new practices, norms, rules, and procedures that emanate from the emergence of a European system of governance (Olsen 1996, 1997). However, Bache and Jordan (2006) make a very clear point that the concept of Europeanisation must be used with great caution because national policies and structures can be influenced by other factors of change, such as globalization, harmonisation or domestic pressures. For example, the role of domestic actors and the fact that various reforms can occur even without the EU pressure are underestimated (Henry & Jordan, 2006). In this case study, it is evident that over the past decades, the perception of sport policy as an area of exclusive national concern has been challenged by globalisation, Europeanisation and the emergence of international policy agendas (Garcia, 2007).

Regarding the outcome of Europeanisation, the extent and degree of domestic change may vary between inertia, retrenchment, absorption, accommodation and transformation (Börzel 2003, Radaelli 2003). *Inertia* refers to the absence of change due to Member-State resistance to meet European requirement. *Retrenchment* presents not only resistance but also anti-European interest and it may produce a greater ‘misfit’ between the European and the domestic level. *Absorption* refers to situations when Member States incorporate European requirements into their domestic institutions and policies without substantial modifications of existing structures. The degree of change is low. The next level of change (modest) is *accommodation*, where Member States accommodate European pressure by adapting new processes, policies and institutions onto existing ones without changing the core features. Finally, the highest degree of change is *transformation*, where Member States alter or replace existing policies, processes, and institutions by new, to the extent that the core features are fundamentally changed. Nevertheless the main weakness of this distinction is that it only concentrates on the down-loading impact while it ignores the up-loading effect of European integration process on EU policy.

Schmidt (2002) offers a different distinction between the mechanisms of EU adaptation. These are: ‘high degree of coercion’ or ‘low degree of coercion’ which depend on the degree of EU pressure for compliance, on ‘mimesis’<sup>16</sup> and finally ‘regulatory competition’ (Schmidt 2002, p. 897). Similar to this distinction, Dyson and Goetz (2003, p. 15) argue that the top-down effect of Europeanisation could be *coercive* (whereby Member States comply with EU hard law requirements), *mimetic* (benchmarking) or it could simply imply *exchange of ideas and practices* (in the case of soft law through the OMC). This research will attempt to examine if and how the mechanism of mimesis and *exchange of ideas and practices* apply to the social and educational dimension of sport policy. These mechanisms allow national governments to imitate a European ‘*outfit*’ in a new policy initiative at the time and level they can accommodate.

An interesting argument raised by this thesis is that the degree of domestic change can be best approached as the outcome of the vertical mechanisms of Europeanisation. In contrast, in the case of the horizontal mechanism of Europeanisation the term that is chosen as more appropriate is ‘progress’ rather than ‘change’, emphasising the ‘learning’ outcome of Europeanisation. It has to be acknowledged that the outcome of Europeanisation is not a one-off situation but it is always in progress as there is no final end of Europeanisation. In the case of the Greek social- and educational-oriented sport policy, change is apparent through the application of horizontal mechanisms of Europeanisation, namely through processes of learning and policy-transfer between Member States.

Another possible outcome of Europeanisation could be convergence or divergence. Scholars often relate Europeanisation to cognitive convergence, which refers to the identification of a shared set of beliefs regarding key problems and the causal mechanisms at work in a policy area (Radaelli, 2003b). Since the OMC was designed as policy learning instrument which helps spread best practices the notion of policy learning can play a significant role in the Europeanisation process. According to the above, it is argued that Europeanisation of sport policy can be regarded as a learning process about a good policy practice where EU offers a forum for discussion and a platform for policy transfer among Member States (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004).

---

<sup>16</sup> One could say that mimesis is similar to Radaelli’s ‘accommodation’ dimension of change.



Europeanisation can be perceived as discourse which can change the preferences, norms, values, and principles of actors and provide policy solutions to domestic problems (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004; Hay & Rosamond 2002; Kallestrup, 2002). Schmidt and Radaelli (2004), comment that discourse contributes to ‘policy learning’ resulting in institutional development. Börzel and Risse (2000, p. 8) understand the domestic impact of Europeanisation as a process of socialisation explaining that “*domestic actors are socialized into European norms and rules of appropriateness through processes of persuasion and social learning and redefine their interests and identities accordingly*”. Consequently, Member States, through transnational networks, are involved in the formulation and implementation of European policies experiencing new practices of cooperative governance (Kohler-Koch, 1999).

Under the neo-institutionalist perspective of Europeanisation, Knill and Lehmkuhl (1999) have identified three main mechanisms of Europeanisation that explain the domestic impact of EU policies:

1) *Institutional compliance*, where the EU prescribes a particular model which is “imposed” on the Member-States. In this case, European policies might be very prescriptive demanding from Member States to adopt specified measures in order to comply with EU requirements. This mechanism requires a high degree of change. The historical institutionalism influence is apparent in the path-dependency of political decisions.

2) *Changing domestic opportunity structures* which leads to a redistribution of resources between domestic actors. In this case the degree of change is average. This approach is closer to rational institutionalism, as policy actors exploit domestic opportunity structures to promote their agenda and policy preferences against their political opponents (Zartaloudis, 2007).

3) *Framing domestic beliefs and expectations* which alters the beliefs of domestic actors. This mechanism is applicable in areas where the formulation of policy is not yet apparent or is in progress. Although this is the weakest mechanism and does not indicate any direct institutional impact, ‘framing domestic beliefs’ is perceived as the first sign of Europeanisation and constitutes the introductory phase for changing domestic climate in favour of European ideas. This mechanism is associated with the sociological institutionalism

emphasising the importance of domestic actors' values and norms in the policy making.<sup>17</sup>

This categorisation gives greater importance to the level of Europeanisation rather than to the specific policy area<sup>18</sup> when domestic change is examined. So, it is apparent that Europeanisation is not only confined to legally binding EU provisions. In the case of the social and educational dimension of sport, the existence and extent of Europeanisation of national sport policy will be tested under using these mechanisms. In particular, given that the EU does not have an institutionalised policy for the social and educational aspects of sport, *'framing domestic beliefs and expectations'*, is considered to be more suitable for this research as EU decisions take the form of recommendation rather than provide a regulatory framework. Furthermore, the supranational institutions have mainly a supporting role whereas national governments control the policy-making in sport at national level.

#### **4.5. Conclusion**

Although no single theory can provide a complete, adequate and comprehensive framework for studying the multidimensional and uneven development of the EU, the different theories of European integration can help interpret changes occurring in the European arena and evaluate their impact on the national level. In particular, the intergovernmental state centric model recognises the nation states as the determining political actors. In contrast, the neo-functionalist approach identifies the valuable role of subnational and supranational institutions in the policy-making. New institutionalism examines how political actors from various levels of the European scene shift their loyalties and delegate their power towards supranational institutions. The multi-level governance approach identifies the interrelation of the European, national and central political actors towards a dynamic change with the intention to accomplish common political goals. According to the policy network theory, the negotiations among actors and institutions of these three levels lead to collective decision-making and power sharing through processes of policy learning and transfer, such as the Open Method of Coordination. The outcome of this socialisation can be policy change.

---

<sup>17</sup> Börzel and Risse (2000) distinguish the conditions that facilitate adaptation to the ones that relate to the redistribution of resources and opportunities (see Jupille & Caporaso, 2001) and to the factors that deal with the adjustment to new ideas, learning and collective understanding (see Checkel, 1999).

<sup>18</sup> Bulmer and Radaelli (2004) have identified different types of Europeanization based on modes of policy-making in terms of negative and positive integration and co-ordination. The dynamics of Europeanisation can take the form of 'positive integration' when EU obligations prescribe a certain institutional model to which domestic adjustments are made such as in the area of environmental policy, health and safety or 'negative integration' when EU legislation alter pre-existing domestic

However, the question to be answered is ‘what is the impact of the European integration on Member States’? This can be examined by using the concept of Europeanisation.

According to ‘soft’ or ‘hard’ mechanisms of Europeanisation the level of coercion for change varies from institutional compliance, redistribution of resources to altering preferences, norms and values. Besides, the level of change depends on the degree of misfit and the adaptational pressure coming from EU. Finally, the outcome of Europeanisation can be convergence or divergence, it can range from inertia to transformation or it can simply take the form of discourse, policy learning or socialisation.

In this chapter, the concept of Europeanisation was discussed in relation to current theoretical debates of European Integration while it was examined through the lenses of new institutionalism. The thesis follows a sociological institutionalist approach to Europeanisation to explain EU influence on the social and educational dimension of national sport policy. Having chosen the area of sport policy, horizontal mechanisms of Europeanisation provide a more suitable framework for analysis, because the educational and social dimension of sport policy is associated with soft instruments. In addition, as it will be demonstrated in the empirical part of the study, the social and educational dimension of sport mainly operates under the Open Method of Coordination where best practice, peer reviews, policy transfer and mediating factors as for example the EC funding are the facilitating tools for policy change. Finally, in order to identify if there a change in the Greek sport policy due to EU influence, the study intends to analyse the mechanisms, the mediating factors and the possible outcome of Europeanisation (Ladi, 2005).

---

legislation. However, the case of sport is more closely related to co-ordination, as it is a soft-law policy and is mainly subject to national decision making.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: The Political and Structural Framework for building an EU Sport-related Policy**

### **5.1. Overview**

This section presents the political and institutional framework of the EU within which the sport policy-making takes place. First of all, it presents the European Union as a political and legal system for decision-making and policy formulation in relation to sport. Second, it comments on the structural framework and the agenda-setting process in order for sport to become a policy field at EU level. It highlights the main decisions of European institutions in sport-related issues that have shaped the approach of the Union towards the social and educational dimension of sport. Additionally, it identifies and evaluates the role of the institutions of the European Union in sport decision-making and their involvement and interaction with the Member-States, in the framework of European multi-level governance. Apart from the key European agents or institutions involved in policy-making, it recognises the international key sport stakeholders in order to illustrate their respective roles, their intervention and their contribution to EU agenda for sport.

This part of the thesis intends to provide a better insight to the process for the development of a potential common EU sport policy for the Member States according to the collective participation of European institutions and interest groups in the EU agenda-setting and decision-making process in sport (Garcia, 2007). Indeed, as the rationales for intervention at the supranational level have increased, the number of 'stakeholders' has grown at the national, European and international levels. National sport actors are important both in the formulation and in the implementation of EU sport policy. As the interest of this thesis is the EU policy for sport in Greece, a brief overview of the structure of Greek sport policy is presented in order to later examine (chapter seven) the influence of the EU policy on sport at national level as a manifestation of Europeanisation.

### **5.2. European Union as a political system in relation to sport decision-making**

The European Union (EU) could be approached as a supranational intergovernmental union of 27 States which initiates, regulates and generally shapes the European policy. The institutional structure of the European Union is unique because it contains intergovernmental decision-making bodies as well as supranational bodies, which enjoy a significant degree of

independence from the governments of its Member States in a number of policy areas (Kourtikakis, 1997). In other words, the EU operates through a system of supranational independent institutions and intergovernmental negotiated decisions by the Member States, thus it is characterised as a political system, with explicit set of institutions, structures and political groups that interact for collective decision-making (Garcia, 2008).

EU has also been conceptualised as a multi-level system of governance as various national and supranational institutions are involved in policy-making. The EU, as a political system, operates through a network of institutions which occupy legislative, executive and judicial powers (Hix, 1999). The multi-level and multi-institutional nature of the EU gives the opportunity to non-governmental actors to participate in decision-making when issues pass from one institution to another (Garcia, 2008). Greenwood (2003) agrees that the complex EU policy-making machinery is characterised by providing multiple access points for outside actors seeking to influence decisions. In particular, a) the European Commission is in charge of safeguarding the general European interest, representing the supranational level, b) the European Parliament participates in the legislation process and, as directly elected by the citizens, it represents the national interest at supranational level, c) the European Council and the Council of Ministers represent national governments and d) last, the European Court of Justice has the legal authority for applying the EU law at the Community level (Garcia, 2008). These are the most important EU institutions which need to be taken into account when discussing the actions and decisions taken at EU level, when analysing the role of European level actors and when explaining European sport policy-making.

The multi-layered structure of the EU has stimulated a growth in the activities of lobbyists<sup>19</sup>, enabling actors to gain access to a number of key supranational bodies (Matthews, 1999). In the MLG framework, the levels of governance are interconnected, being able to influence one another because policy-making in the EU is seen as a system of '*non hierarchical, mobilising networks of private as well as public actors, who engage in deliberation and problem-solving efforts guided as much by informal as by formal institutions*' (Pollack 2005, p. 36). Peters (2001) described the EU as an entity that "*creates a number of arenas for the interplay of relatively autonomous groups*" (2001, p. 19), providing opportunities for a range of actors to influence decisions, with the most appropriate time of intervention being at the start of the

---

<sup>19</sup> Lobbying is the act of gathering and disseminating information in order to become proactive in the policy process

process, when setting the agendas. The increase in the number of outside parties seeking direct access to Union institutions as well as the structural complexity of decision-making and agenda-setting indicate signs of Europeanisation of policy.

From a different perspective, the EU could be described as a cooperation of states, combining economic as well as security interests of its Member States. The aim of the EU is to secure peace, democracy and prosperity for Member States through the European integration and the objective is to achieve social and economic development for the European Union and to strengthen cooperation among its Member States. During the development of the European Union and the ratification of a number of Treaties, the EU got involved in various policy fields that became community policies, meaning they were under the exclusive control of the European institutions, as for example the Common Trade Policy, Economic and Monetary Policy and the Competition Policy. That means that the Member States transferred all sovereignty rights to the EU institutions and thus they are also known as ‘common policies’.

Besides, there is another set of policies that can be found in the first pillar of the EU structure. In this case, the Member States have not transferred all rights to the EU thus the policies are called joint policies with shared competences. The principle of subsidiarity<sup>20</sup> is predominant in these policies, which means that the EU institutions have only a complementing, supporting and coordinating role towards the Member States’ actions as for example in Employment Policy, Education, Policy, Health Policy, Youth Policy, Cultural Policy, etc. This kind of EU policy will be of major importance in the course of this thesis, since sports has been developed into a joint policy with shared competences after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty.

In the case of sport, EU acts within the competencies provided by the Treaties and under the principle of subsidiarity. Following the establishment of the European Union with the 1992 Treaty of Maastricht, new forms of cooperation between the governments of the Member States were introduced in all policy areas, creating a single European market. In general, both

---

(Andersen and Eliassen, 1995). It is a pre-condition for achieving influence within a policy network.

<sup>20</sup> According to this principle, the EU may only act (i.e. make laws) where action of individual countries is insufficient. Subsidiarity was established in EU law by the Treaty of Maastricht (1992). The present formulation is contained in Article 5(3) of the Treaty of the European Union (consolidated version following the Treaty of Lisbon, 2009): “*Under the principle of subsidiarity, in areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Union shall act only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States, either at central level or at regional and local level, but can rather, by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved at Union level*”.

the Commission and the national governments share the competencies of formal executive power and implementation. National governments receive directions from the EU and implement them at central, regional or local level, while the Commission monitors the coordination and overall implementation.

The EU as a legal system is governed both by primary and secondary legislation. Primary legislation or else ‘hard regulation’ is defined by the Treaties, signed by the Member States and the case law of the ECJ (Garcia, 2008). Secondary legislation is formed by the instruments of community law-making, namely directives, regulations and decisions (Craig & De Búrca, 2003) while recommendations and opinions are considered non-binding instruments of community law (Craig & De Búrca, 2003). The EU ‘soft regulation’ strategy is evident in the use of a common EU policy discourse among the major policy-making actors through of the ‘Open Method of Coordination’ and ‘Action Plans’ relating particularly to public policy such as sport. Other ‘soft law’ methods, which serve to develop and give strategic directions to policies, include guidelines, policy statements or political declarations by the European Council (Craig & De Búrca, 2003).

### **5.3. EU Policy agenda for sport**

Policy-making is closely related to agenda-setting. Agenda-setting is located at the very beginning of the policy-making cycle and it goes beyond that simple decision of adding an issue on the decision-makers’ agenda. It needs to be understood as a cumulative process where several sub-processes or components unfold (Peters, 2001).

A policy can emerge on the EU agenda due to extensive interest on a policy field either by the EU in order to regulate relevant issues or by interest groups who would like to see the field being dealt at EU level, with the precondition that both sides will profit from an EU competence in that area (Ostlinning, 2011). So, a policy field can enter the agenda via lobbying or via an EU interest in the matter, as is the example of the ‘Bosman Case’ in the field of sport. Indeed, the importance of the respective policy field in society as well as the need for regulation in sport has been acknowledged by the EU institutions. EU involvement in sport has a positive side which is the development of a community policy that will bring further integration. *“The transformation of diverse policy fields from national policies into community policies can create a win-win situation for the European Union and its*

*institutions as well as for the interest groups active in the field”* (Ostlinning, 2011, p. 9).

Cobb, Jeannie and Marc (1976) argue that an issue, in order to reach a political agenda and become a policy, has to go through four important steps: *initiation, specification, expansion and entrance*. *Issue initiation* or else issue identification refers to the way an issue is created and promoted to the agenda (Princen & Rhinard, 2006). The role of the policy-maker and his perspective on a problem is vital at this initial stage for the issue recognition to enter the agenda (Kingdon, 1995). *Issue specification* is the process of elaborating, defining or framing a general issue in order to take the form of a more specific problems or proposal (Princen & Rhinard, 2006). The way an issue is placed in the agenda is important for the policy-making process (Peters, 2001). *Issue expansion* is the phase where an issue is transferred from the initiators to a wider set of participants (Princen & Rhinard, 2006) gaining visibility and being incorporated into the formal agenda of political institutions (Garcia, 2008). Finally, *issue entrance* is the last step before policy formulation and it occurs when an issue finally gains access to the formal agenda of decision-makers (Princen & Rhinard. 2006). The number of participants that express an interest on the issue, the institutional structures as a framework to deal with the issue and the policy alternatives as a solution to a problem, are factors that determine whether an issue will be accepted onto the formal agenda (Kingdon, 1995).

In order for a policy to be implemented, EU can follow regulative or distributive instruments. Regulative policy instruments are taken in cases of communitarised policy fields where there is a need of legal measures, while distributive policy instruments appear in policy fields where Member States still own major sovereignty rights and initiatives or recommendations are rather enforced via financial means exercising pressure on the Member States (Ostlinning, 2011). Concerning the policy field of sport in the European Union, both ways are apparent. In the first case, sport as an economic activity is bound to EU competition law and thus falls under regulative policy schemes, while the social and educational dimension of sport falls within distributive policies, especially after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty and the launch of a pure EU sport program.

When a policy is successfully placed on the agenda, the measures to be taken have to be formulated, following various procedures of decision-making and conciliations among EU institutions. As in the case of the social and educational dimension of sport, what followed the agenda-setting was broad discussions at working groups within EU institutions, official



EU document publications, conferences, White Paper and funding Programmes, ending up with a declaration and an Article in the EU Treaty, which means that a policy field has emerged in the European policy scheme.

In particular, the release of a White Paper on Sport signifies the ultimate step before integrating the social and educational dimension of sport in the Treaty framework. As long as the sport issue was incorporated in the Article 165 of the Lisbon Treaty, sport policy became officially an EU concern rather than a mere national matter. Additionally, another action that takes place after an EU policy has been introduced in the Treaty is the release of a supporting program for the relative policy. However, in the absence of the explicit Treaty provision on sport, such a program cannot be put into action due to the missing agreement of the Member States in order to foster this area of activity and provide for it financially. Therefore, the EU sport programme could not be promoted without the legal basis of the Article 165 of the Lisbon Treaty. Concluding, a policy that has been incorporated in the EU legal framework is also supplied with a supporting program creating pressure on the Member States for policy action or in other words for 'mainstreaming' in order to create more equal policy structures within the EU Member States.

#### **5.4. The EU institutions**

This part of the thesis identifies and evaluates the role of EU institutions in sporting matters and particularly their value added in building an EU agenda for sport. Apart from the key European agents involved in policy-making, it identifies European key sport actors in order to illustrate their respective roles, their intervention and their contribution to EU agenda-setting for sport. Indeed, as the rationales for intervention at the supranational level have increased, the number of 'stakeholders' has grown at the national, European and international levels.

Regarding the interest of stakeholders in EU sport policy, Parrish (2003a) has made the distinction between the Single Market advocacy coalition and socio-cultural advocacy coalition. The first pursues a regulatory policy interest in sport, highlighting the economic significance of sport. The regulation of sport is applied to EU law whenever sport is practiced as an economic activity. The actors of the Single Market coalition seek to protect the legal foundations. The second adopts a more socio-cultural and educational policy approach in sport, with the purpose of enhancing social integration. The EU's regulatory involvement in sport is more socio-cultural oriented. The actors of the socio-cultural coalition want the

specific characteristics of sport to be acknowledged when applying EU law.

The socio-cultural advocacy coalition comprises the European Parliament, the Directorate General of Education and Culture within the European Commission, the Member States represented by the Council of Ministers and a wide range of sports bodies. Parrish (2003a, p. 204) argues that the socio-cultural coalition in sport has exploited (1) the right of policy initiative within the Directorate General of Education and Culture; (2) the legislative, scrutiny and budgetary powers of the European Parliament; (3) the primary and secondary law-making functions of the Council of Ministers; (4) soft-law instruments including Treaty Declarations, Presidency Conclusions, White Paper and other political guidelines; (5) Council Presidency agenda-setting; (6) the use of formal sports forums/sports conferences such as the European Sports Forum and the EU Conference on Sport; (7) the strength of positive (socio-cultural) integration post-Maastricht; and (8) related policy subsystems such as the health, education, youth and social integration.

Sport stakeholders can be grouped together based on the level of involvement (Ostlinning, 2011). At macro-level, the main actors are the European institutions (EC, EP and ECJ). At the meso-level, international organizations are the prime movers (IOC, EOC, FIFA, UEFA, International Federation, ENGSO, WADA, etc.), while at micro-level, it is the national organisations (sport ministries or sport governmental bodies, National Olympic Committees, National Sport Federations, other national sports organizations and clubs) that are the main sources of decision-making.

For the purposes of this study, the main actors for EU sport policy-making are identified. Although there are many international, European and national sport stakeholders that influence the decision-making and the formation of the European sport policy, this thesis will only focus on the role of the supranational and intergovernmental European institutions, namely the European Commission, the European Parliament, the Council of Ministers and the European Court of Justice.

#### **5.4.1. European Commission: and initiator and the executive**

In particular, the *European Commission* (COM) is the institution of the European Union, which protects the interests of the EU Member States of the Union. It has a legislative, an

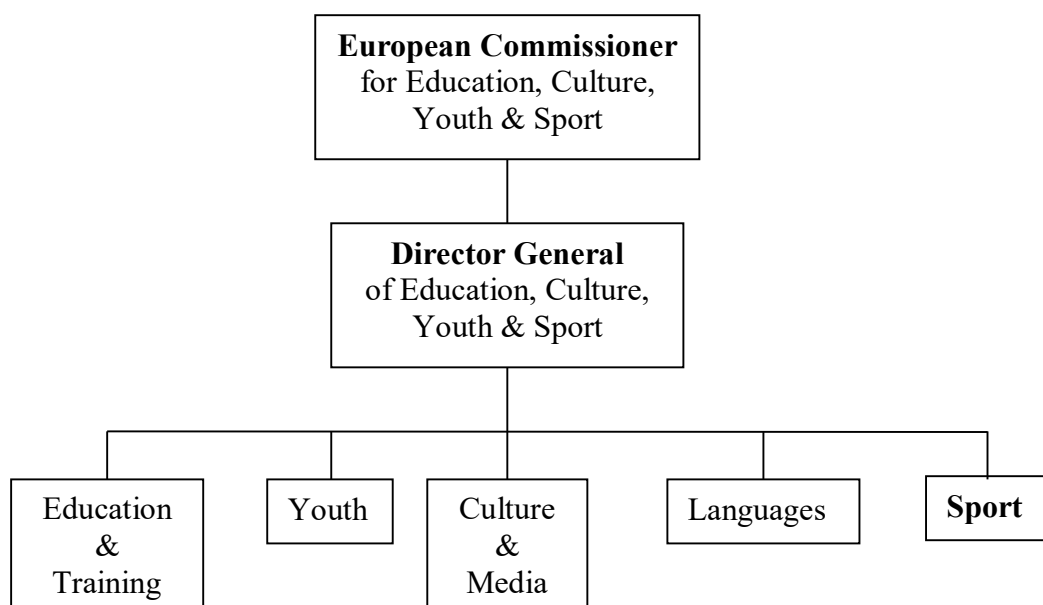
executive and a judicial function as its primary authority is to initiate and draft legislation and implement EU policies and decisions, while it serves as a guardian of the Treaties in association with the ECJ. Sport falls under the jurisdiction of the Directorate General for *Education and Culture* (DG EAC)<sup>21</sup> (Commission of European Communities, 2007a) of the European Commission. Its mission is to "*support and promote lifelong learning, linguistic and cultural diversity, mobility and active participation of European citizens, especially young people*" (European Commission, 2009a). Due to the horizontal nature of sport, the Directorate General of Education and Culture (DG EAC), which has the primary responsibility for the sport policy-making, is in constant cooperation with several other Commission DGs. For example, in the case of the White Paper on Sport, the DG EAC cooperates with 17 other DGs for implementing the proposed sport-related EU initiatives (Commission of European Communities, 2007d).

Within the European Commission Directorate General of Education and Culture operates a *Sport Unit* with the goal to coordinate the implementation of EU sport-related activities and to develop the European dimension of sport within the limits of competences set by the Treaties. In this framework, the Unit contributes to political co-operation among EU Member-States in the field of sport, maintains a structured dialogue with the sports movement and supports the exchange of good practice and the transfer of ideas and knowledge between different actors (European Commission, 2009a). The below figure shows the basic structure of the DG (Figure 1).

---

<sup>21</sup> The most update information is that the European Commissioner for Education, Culture, Youth and Sport is Mr. Tibor Navracsics (2016). The Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) is the executive branch of the European Union responsible for policy on education, culture, youth, languages, and sport. The Director-General Martine Reicherts is responsible for ensuring the execution of the political mandate, as well as reporting to the Commissioner, providing policy recommendations, and ensuring the sound management of the DG on a day-to-day basis (European Commission, 2016).

Figure 1: The organizational structure of the Directorate General responsible for sport.



In brief, the Commission is the most active EU institution for sport with a great initiative activity. It proposes recommendations, incentive measures, regulations or directives in other policies that apply to sport, publishes Green or White Papers with proposals for future policies, finances sport related projects and studies, provides secretarial support and expertise to the Council Expert Groups and, finally, employs regular dialogue with sport stakeholders (EOC-EU Office, 2011).

#### **5.4.2. European Parliament: The supervisor**

Apart from the European Commission, the European Parliament (EP) has an important role in the initiation and decision-making process. It supports initiatives in the field of sport by preparing reports and proposal for sport issues in close cooperation with the DG EAC. Nugent (2006) mentions that the powers and competencies of the EP are exercised through the legislative process, through the budgetary process and through the control and supervision of the executive, i.e. the Commission. The EP can draft EU legislation as well as express its ideas on EU policies by adopting its own initiative reports which results in exercising political pressure on the European Commission and the Council of Ministers to act (Corbett, Jacobs & Shackleton, 2005). The establishment of qualified majority voting, co-decision and cooperation process enhances the multi-level system of governance providing greater intervention to the Member-States through their representatives in the European Parliament (MEP). Moreover, the EP draws the EU budget plan in collaboration with the Council of

Ministers. It can also exercise the right to veto the budget proposal in case an agreement is not reached. Finally, the EU controls and supervises the executive as it has the power to dismiss the whole Commission through a motion of censure (Garcia, 2008).

The Committee of Culture and Education (CULT) of the European Parliament is responsible, among others, for contributing to the development of a sport and leisure policy taking into account the opinions of other parliamentary committees on sport-related issues. The EP supports initiatives in the field of sport preparing reports and proposal for sport issues in close cooperation with the DG EAC. For example EP actions such as funding anti-doping projects (2000-2002), establishing the European Year of Education through Sport (EYES 2004), reporting on the values of sport in education and health, and drafting the White Paper on Sport (2007) are evidence of the EP involvement in regulating the social and educational dimension of sport at EU level respecting the principle of subsidiarity.

Another area for intense lobbying is the Parliamentary Sport Intergroup which is an 'apolitical' sports forum. Despite its informal structure, it serves as a platform for MEPs to exchange ideas and express their views and considerations about sports issues. It is initially concerned with the impact the EU policies are having on the development of sport and the opportunities for increasing the budget line for sport.

#### **5.4.3. Council of Ministers: Setting policy directions and priorities**

The *Council of the European Union (or else the EU Council of Ministers)* is an important EU decision-making institution which has a central role in influencing policy directions and priorities. It has a legislative function, adopting legislative acts (Regulations, Directives, etc.), usually through 'co-decision' with the European Parliament. Each Member State participates in the legislative process by its representative (i.e. the Minister) who is responsible for a specific policy area. There are ten Council configurations, covering the whole range of EU policies, coordinating the intergovernmental cooperation on non-binding EU regulatory areas such as sport. The entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty brought fundamental changes in sport establishing the Sport Ministers' Council. Until then, sports ministers or sports directors, as representatives of the Member States, could not meet in an official Council formation because the EU had no direct competence in that area. Thus, national governments organised 'informal summits' for sport issues twice a year.

The EU Sport Ministers' and Sport Directors' meetings, organised by each EU Presidency, support the cooperation between Member States, address sport-related issues of common concern, promote the exchange of good practices, provide political guidance and discussions and frame the EU rolling agenda for sport (European Commission, 2009b). The 2004 EU Sport Ministers' Meeting adopted a 'Rolling Agenda for sport' in order to set priorities in the discussions and future plans for sport at EU level. The themes of discussions included the social function of sport, public health and sport, the fight against doping, education in sport, volunteering in sport, and the economic dimension of sport. Under the 'Rolling Agenda', EU Presidencies can achieve greater coherence and continuity over time on their debates regarding sport issues while regular reporting on progress to EU Sports Ministers can boost the policy cooperation of Member-States (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). Another development, in December 2008, was the adoption of the Declaration on Sports by the Council as an annex to the presidency conclusions.

After the ratification of the Treaty in 2009 and the introduction of a new EU competence for sport, policy cooperation at EU level was institutionalised. In 2010, the European Council for Education, Youth and Culture (EYC) changed its name to Education, Youth, Culture and *Sport* Council and the first formal EU Sport Ministers' Meeting was held that year (Council of European Union, 2010). The technical work is procuded by a special working Group called '*Council Working Party on Sport*', composed by delegates from national sport ministries and permanent sport expert representatives in Brussels, which role is to prepare the agenda of the Sport Ministers' Council.

Overall, the national governments through the Council of Ministers seem to have the dominant role in the formal process of policy harmonization. The Sport Ministers' Council can adopt recommendations and incentive measures such as sport funding programmes however the Decisions of the Council are not legally binding for the Member States (EOC-EU Office, 2011).

#### **5.4.4. European Court of Justice: The interpreter of EU law provisions**

The introduction of an EU competence on sport EU law and in the provisions of the Treaty, led to the involvement of the *European Court of Justice*, as the final arbiter of all issues of EU law, in regulating sport and especially its economic activity. The fact that the EU law is

autonomous explains the supremacy of EU law over national laws as “*Member States have voluntarily chosen to transfer their sovereignty*” (Craig & DeBúrca, 2003, p. 274). The ECJ, as the judicial body of the EU, cannot initiate policy actions but it has the responsibility for interpreting the provisions of EU law. Since the specificity of sports has not yet been totally recognised and taken into account by the EU, the ECJ has to judge over a variety of cases that apply to workers’ regulations for free movement or competition policies. Legal cases of importance for sport that referred to the ECJ are the Walrave & Koch vs. Union Cycliste Internationale (1973), Dona vs. Mantero (1976) and Union Royale Belge Sociétés de Football Association and others vs. Bosman (1995).

The binding rulings the Court of Justice on EU law help settle the disputes between EU institutions and Member States as well as assist national courts in preparing their rulings on relevant cases brought before them. However, the European Olympic Committee criticises the ECJ that it has failed to clarify the concept of ‘sporting specificity’ and set a concrete legal framework between EU law and sport related issues, commenting “*which rules of ‘pure sporting interest’ can be exempt from EU law remains unclear and is assessed on a case-by-case basis by the Court*” (EOC-EU Office, 2011).

The *European Council* is not an official EU institution in charge of policy-making however it is the highest political forum for the national governments in the EU (Garcia, 2008). It defines the general political direction and priorities of the European Union, yet it does not exercise legislative functions (European Council, 2010). It consists of the EU heads of state and the president of the Commission. Concluding, the more the institutions of the European Union grow in significance in the political and social life, the more aspects of European life are being absorbed into the European policy agenda, such as sport.

### **5.5. Sport Interest Groups and EU Lobbying**

*Interest groups’* involvement in the decision-making process is essential as they exercise pressure on policy initiation and decision-making and express the stakeholders’ or national interests (see Chatzigianni, 2007). In the case of sport networking, there are various interest groups at national, European and international level, cooperating for the promotion of the socio-cultural and economic dimension of sport as well as for safeguarding the organisation of sport. Although the analysis of the role of sport-related ‘interest group’ is not the objective of this work, it should be noted that there is an intense sport lobbying at EU level

(Chatzigianni, 2010). For instance, ‘interest groups’ representatives participate in the EU Working Groups for sport, comprised of national and international key actors and sport experts that discuss special sport-related issues such as health, education and training, anti-doping, social inclusion and equality, economics, and non-profit sport organizations (European Commission, 2009c). The six *EU Working Groups* related to sport are: Working Group ‘Sport & Health’ (established in 2005), Working Group ‘Education and training in sport’ (in 2008), Working Group ‘Sport & Economics’ (in 2006), Working Group ‘Non-Profit Sport Organisations’ (in 2007), Working Group ‘Fight against doping’ (in 2008), and lastly, Working Group ‘Social Inclusion and Equal Opportunities in Sport’ (in 2010). Each Working Group includes representatives of at least eight Member States and is chaired by the Commission with the aim to reach a common base on specific topics of the Rolling Agenda. In 2011, according to the 2011-2014 Council Work Plan on Sport (European Council, 2014), these informal EU working Groups were replaced with six Expert Groups<sup>22</sup>. Member States will be voluntarily represented by national experts. The work of these expert Groups is included in the activities of the Council Working Party on Sport (see p. 108).

The *European Sports Forum* is another arena for intensive lobbying. It acts as an advisory body, including governmental and non-governmental bodies such as representatives of the Commission, the sports movement and the Member States, with the goal to enhance the dialogue and the flow of information on sport matters between the EU and the Member States. Its members are the National Olympic Committees, the umbrella organisations of sport, sport ministries, the European Commission, the European Parliament, the Council of Europe, the European Sport Conference, EOC, the European non-Governmental Sports Organisations (ENGSO) and a few non-member countries of the EU. Action No. 49 of the Pierre de Coubertin Action Plan states that the Commission will

*"provide for a more efficient dialogue structure on sport at EU level, including the organisation of an annual European Sport Forum and thematic discussions with targeted audiences, European sport stakeholders in particular"* (Commission of the European Communities, 2007b),

emphasising the role of networking.

---

<sup>22</sup> The six EU Expert Groups are renamed to ‘Antidoping’, Good Governance in Sport’, ‘Education and Training in Sport’, ‘Sport, Health and Participation’, ‘Sport Statistics’ and ‘Sustainable Financing of Sport’.



The EU recently initiated the establishment of an '*Advisory Group*' on sport policy (2010) leading a structured dialogue between the EU institutions, national sport authorities and the sports world. In light of the new EU powers on sport policy, this advisory committee has an operative and consulting function. The group includes representatives of public authorities, the EU Council of Ministers, the European Commission, the Presidency of the Council of EU, the Member States, the European Parliament and the sport world.

At meso-level, the international sport organizations have the main role in sport policy formulation. Acosta Hernández (2002) refers to various governmental and non-governmental institutions and organisations in the socio-political context of sport. The 'Sport Movement' actually refers to sport governing bodies which have regional or global authority in their respective field of authority. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) is maybe the most influential actor for sport from the organisational perspective at international level. Its priority is to promote the Olympic Movement, to reinforce the unity among its various entities (sport organizations) and individuals and to organise the Olympic Games. The European Olympic Committee (EOC), as its regional branch, represents the IOC in European regulation.

The European Sport Movement is an informal group of international organisations including the European Olympic Committee (EOC), the European non-Governmental Sports Organisation (ENGSO) and the General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF). The EOC is the European non-governmental umbrella association for 49 European National Olympic Committees. It has an EOC-EU office in Brussels with the mission to represent the interests of the European Olympic Committees in the framework of the European institutions as well as the interests of its 18 partners (National Olympic Committees) with which it shares the same values and goals in the framework of European lobbying (Chatzigianni, 2014). ENGSO represents the non-governmental side of sports and it is also part of the EU office. Its mission is to promote the interests of sport organisations in Europe, operate as a strong networking organisation for sport in Europe and be a counterpart for European governmental institutions. The Members of ENGSO are the National sport Confederations and the National Olympic Committees from 40 European Countries. Lastly, the GAISF is a group of international sport federations and its aim is to maintain its members' autonomy and authority. International sport federations (IF) govern their respective sport and disciplines on a world-wide level. A distinction is made between those sports that are on the

program of the summer or winter Olympic Games, those that are not on the program but are nevertheless recognised by the IOC and those IF that are not part of the Olympic Movement but are members of the GAISF.

Football is one of the most important sporting activities in Europe, with very huge reputation, spectator audience and economic profits. Consequently, football is well-represented at EU level having its own office in Brussels and direct liaison. The United European Football Association (UEFA) is the main actor in the field of football-related policy at European level and it functions as the umbrella governing organisation for national football associations in Europe (Chatzigianni, 2014). The UEFA is the continent branch of the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), the world governing body for football, which is responsible for regulating, developing and promoting football globally, organising its own international competitions and controlling the National Football Associations.

At this point it is important to comment on the relationship between the FIFA, UEFA and the EU. FIFA and UEFA have been forced to recognise the supervisory role of the EU in the governance of football, especially in the application of EU law to the commercial activities of the governing bodies (Garcia, 2008). Although FIFA has resisted the intrusions of EU institutions in the governance of football, UEFA recognises and accepts the primacy of EU law, negotiating and adapting to the new environment (Garcia, 2008). Both UEFA and FIFA are instrumental in encouraging Member States, the EP and DG Education and Culture to redefine football as an issue on the EU agenda. On the other hand, although EU involvement in the field of sport is an important challenge for FIFA, close cooperation with EU institutions, FIFA and UEFA is recognised as being vital for sport policy-making due to the fact that sport governing bodies have the technical expertise and knowledge they need to produce policy (Parrish 2003a). It should be clarified that despite the fact that professional football feels threatened by the prospect of greater EU intervention, the amateur less well-sponsored bodies see this engagement as an opportunity for gaining support or for financing sport activities.

Supplementary, other international organizations for sport are the European Association of Sport Employers (EASE) which was the outcome of extensive European social dialogue in the sport sector (Commission of European Communities, 2007b) and the World-Anti-Doping Agency with the objective to promote, coordinate, and supervise on an international base the

fight against all forms of doping in sport.

At the micro-level, the national sport governing bodies are the protagonists in policy-making. These can be national sport organisations and national ministries. The National Olympic Committee is directly related to EOC which serves as territorial representative of the IOC in every Member State with the responsibility to qualify national athletes in order to take part in the Olympic Games. Additionally, the National Sport Ministry is deeply involved in the process of decision-making and supervises local sports organisations. Furthermore, it supports the national federations and the sport clubs of amateur or professional activity. Finally, national sports federations are the supreme regulatory and disciplinary body for sport within their national territory and are in charge of the administration of sport at the national level, including national competitions.

Generally, national sport organisations deal, apart from professional sport, with amateur sport and recognize sport as a tool for promoting social development including health, youth, education, citizenship and social integration. These organisations support EU involvement in sport and they build communication channels with the EU institutions in order to benefit from funding opportunities and other supporting actions. In contrast, the international and European sports organizations cooperate with EU institutions, especially with the ECJ, only for solving legal uncertainties of EU law in sport. They are mainly concerned with the professional side of sport and its economic activity and they assess whether European sports policy takes into account the specificity of sport.

In conclusion, it is clear that the European level sport policy is a complicated issue. First, not all Member States have national sport policies (for example in Germany sports is mainly regulated by the Länder). Second, the European Commission deals mainly with amateur sport and 'Sport for All', but when it comes to economic activity as professional sport, the competition law is applicable. Third, other Pan-European or international organisations such as FIFA, IOC and the United Nations (UN) have a strong legitimacy on sport. Overall, despite the lack of a unifying governing force on sports in the EU, the importance of the EU in sport policy-making is recognised by the majority of stakeholders, especially by sports governing bodies, which now see the EU as a partner to promote the social values of sport rather than an 'intruder' to their territory.

## **5.6. The national sport system in Greece: Greek sport policy framework and sport actors**

The identification of the EU as a multi-level system of governance provides the framework to study the impact of the EU policy on sport at national and subnational levels. Besides, studying on the concept of Europeanisation, as a process of EU influence at national level policy-making, the EU policy for sport is diffused from the European and supranational institutions in order to be implemented by national governing bodies. Consequently, the role of national sport stakeholders and their decision-making is essential for this policy adoption.

In the EU, the national governments are involved in the organisation of sport at different levels. Even though sport is organised autonomously in the vast majority of Member States, not all governments have their own Minister for Sport. Rather, certain countries have governmental agencies which represent sport interests at least within political organisations. National sport policy could be defined as the planning, provision and distribution of sport services, facilities and equipment. It is the framework of principles, objectives and actions developed by a credible local, national or international agency aiming to achieve common goals. The following section presents the institutional structure of Greek sport policy in order to identify the key decision-making actors for sport, how they interrelate and what the decision-making process is for shaping national sport policy.

### **5.6.1. Review of the formation of the Greek sport policy**

Greek sport policy was formally organised for the first time in 1894, when the first Olympic Games (1896) were held in Athens and the Greek National Committee of the Games (NCG) was founded. NCG was the first institution for the administration of sport. Later, sport federations and sport associations and clubs were founded. The General Secretariat of Sport was introduced in 1957 with the Legislative Decree 3769/1957 (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1975b) with the purpose of promoting, supporting and coordinating extracurricular sport, sport federations and sport bodies and subsidising the Committee of Olympic Games (current National Olympic Committee). Sport took its contemporary form with the Law 75/1975 and the latter 2725/1999 (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1975c, 1999) which stipulates that the administration of sport bodies is handled by private enterprises. It nevertheless recognises the supervisory and regulatory role of the state. The 1975 Charter (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1975a) makes reference to the benefits of sport for the society, while it also treats sport as a concern of the state and sets the latter's

financial obligations for sport. A very important step towards sport as a social provision was taken in the early 1980's with the adoption of the movement 'Sport for All'.

### **5.6.2. Governing Sport Bodies**

The regulatory framework of sport and the obligations of the state are determined by Presidential Decrees. The Charter (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1975a, art. 68, par. 1) anticipates that *"Sport performs under the protection and higher supervision of the State"*, enhancing the legislative and regulatory role of the parliamentary committees. The control of governmental work and the legislative function are two of the most important operations of the parliament.

The Standing Committee on Educational affairs is a corporate body of the Parliament, composed pro rata by deputies responsible for sport. In general, the Standing Committee has an important role in planning and directing sport in Greece and setting the legislative framework for sport. In this context it is responsible for supervising the implementation of policies and programmes of the Ministry of Culture and its agencies such as the General Secretariat of Sport (GSS).

The political parties of the Greek Parliament play a central role in the formation of sport legislation through their respective sport sectors. Their members shape the party's political position towards sport, draft proposals for sport issues and submit them to the Greek Parliament in order to become laws. The mission of the sport sector of a political party is to a) produce positions and form the sport policy of the party, b) observe the governmental work for sport and c) exercise parliamentary control over sport issues (Gargalianos and Asimakopoulos, 2006).

The competent authority for sport policy in Greece is the General Secretariat of Sport (GSS). It is the top state authority for sport with a legislative framework for its function and specific competences (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1975b, Legislative Decrees 3769/1957 "Extracurricular Sport"). The Ministry's role in sport is supportive without any direct involvement in planning the development of sport. Its function is to determine and administer GSS grants and to establish the general sport policy framework. According to the Presidential Decree 77/1985 *"the responsibility of the General Secretariat of Sport is the national executive planning for sport and the overall responsibility for all issues concerning the*

*progress, organisation and function of sport in our country*” (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1985a). As an administrative body, its goal is to support sport bodies financially and organisationally, contributing to the development and implementation of national sport policy. Additionally, the GSS is responsible for monitoring sports events and planning sports development programmes.

### **5.6.3. Non-Governmental Sport Bodies**

The GSS cooperates, among others, with the National Olympic Committee (NOC), the International Olympic Academy (IOA), the National Federations (NFs), the sport clubs and the local authorities. The Hellenic Olympic Committee (HOC) aims at developing and promoting the Olympic Idea, the history of Olympism, the extra-curriculum physical education and sport in general. The International Olympic Academy (IOA), performing as a multidisciplinary cultural centre, aims at studying, analysing and promoting Olympism. Finally, sport clubs and sports federations are in principle self-organised and autonomous which means that the government does not intervene in the decision making policy of sport federations. However, the government is responsible for monitoring and subsidising sport federations.

Only the following sport institutions are of interest for this paper as they are the only ones that regulate the social aspects of sport. These are a) the *National Council to Combat Doping* (NCCD) (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1999, article 128ΣΤ, Law 2725/1999), with the role of planning, monitoring, control, coordination and implementation of anti-doping actions and programmes at national level, b) the *Standing Committee to Combat Violence* (SCCV) (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1999, article 41A, Law 2725/1999), responsible to prevent, confront and fight the violence in sport and c) *the National Council of Sport Planning* (NCSP) (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1999, 2012, article. 40, Law 2725/1999, Law 4049/2012) which is responsible for advising the Minister responsible for sport in designing the national sport strategy. It is noted that although this Council is statutory, it has not been established yet.

### **5.6.4. The current framework of the National Sport Policy**

As of 2015, the institutional framework that regulates the relationship between the sport and the state is governed by Law 2725/1999 “*Amateur and Professional Sport and other arrangements*” (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1999) modified and completed by later

rules. In addition to professional and amateur sport, other areas of regulation which are being regulated at national level are school sport, physical education curriculum, sport for people with disabilities, 'Sport for All' and the fight against doping and violence in sport. These measures illustrate the social concern of the national sport policy and will be examined in this study.

However, in recent years it is noted that national sport planning was directed towards enhancing elite sport and sport infrastructure in Greece in order to host major sporting events such as the 2004 Olympic Games, the 2011 Special Olympics and the 2013 Mediterranean Games. Yet, such focus does not correspond to the development of 'Sport for All' or amateur sport and school sport.

In light of the ailing Greek economy in 2009, the new government proceeded in 'structural changes' in the field of sport, abolishing the Junior Ministry of Sport and thirty-two non-legislated committees of the GSS probably due to high operational costs. The duties of the Junior Minister of Sport were assigned to the Deputy Minister of Culture and Tourism who became responsible for the services of the General Secretariat of Sport. While there has been some controversy and broad concerns over this reform, it is still too early to provide a credible assessment of its virtues and vices.

Moreover, during the 2010 reshuffling of the Greek Government, core responsibilities for sport were transferred from the GSS and broadly from the Ministry of Culture to the Ministry of Health. More specifically, responsibilities, positions and personnel from the Department of 'Sport for All' and the Department of 'Sport Development' of GSS were transferred to the Ministry of Health that was renamed to Ministry of Health, Nutrition and Sport (Gazette of the Greek Government, 2010a, PD 96/2010). The latest change in the structure of sport at national level produced objections arguing that this has led to the dichotomy of sport and curtailed the role of the GSS in planning and implementing national sport policy. Overall, it can be claimed that the Greek government is taking a step towards enhancing the social role of sport and indicating the benefits of sport and physical activity in improving health and preventing chronic diseases.

In general terms, sport is a social provision that applies to and interacts with other public policies. As this paper deals with the promotion of the social and educational value of sport, it

would be interesting to examine the interaction of sport policy with education and public health policy at national level. Thus, the interaction among the GSS and the Ministries of Education and Health towards achieving common goals will be briefly addressed in this thesis.

## **5.7. Conclusion**

In regard to the political and institutional framework, European Union does not have a concrete EU sport policy, yet, the main responsibility for sport remains in the Member States and sport federations. However, many EU policies have an impact on sport especially due to its economic dimension. Despite the lack of a specific legal base, the EU sport policy-making has been driven by the jurisdictions of the European Court of Justice (ECJ) and the EU law provisions on the internal market and competition policy (European Olympic Committee EU Office, 2011). The 2009 Lisbon Treaty gave a legal competence to the non-economic nature of sport in the EU in order to strengthen the societal and educational values of sport. In order to support the social-oriented sport policy, the EU uses ‘mainstreaming’ measures such as financial support influencing the Member States and the sports stakeholders.

As sport has gained an important share in EU policy agenda, various European and international sport actors are involved in the decision-making for sport. Regarding the EU institutions, the European Commission and specifically the Directorate-General for Education and Culture is the primary promoter of sport policy in the EU. The Council of Ministers and the Member States have played a more dominant role regarding the formal process of policy harmonisation. More recently the European Parliament and particularly the Committee of Culture and Education has been strongly involved in sport policy with a ‘loud voice’ for the social and educational perspective of sport policy-making. Lastly, the role of the European Court of Justice is vital as long as sport consists and economic activity and falls within the competence of competition law. At domestic level, the respective ministries for culture, sport, health, employment and social affairs seem to be the key decision-makers for the implementation or else adoption at national level of the potential EU policies or initiatives related to sport. Other international sport stakeholders such as the IOC, the EOC, International Federations and especially FIFA and UEFA also play a key role in lobbying and networking for the representation of their interest in the sport platform. In the context of the negotiation process, conflicts and alliances occur in order to safeguard the sovereignty in



professional sport, to promote the specificity of sport, to integrate the social and educational value of sport in the policies and to harmonise the social and economic interests in sport.

Summarising, the multi-layered structure of the EU has stimulated the involvement of various national, supranational and EU institutions in the decision-making for sport. As Matthews (1999) highlights, the growth of lobbying and the structural complexity of the decision-making process within the Union, which facilitates the 'open access' to EU agenda-setting for sport, indicates that the Europeanisation of policy is occurring.

## **CHAPTER SIX: The evolving European Policy on Sport: Historical background and future opportunities**

### **6.1. Overview**

The previous chapter outlined the political and structural framework, described how the EU policy agenda for sport is being set and indicated the EU's and other actors' involvement in the decision-making for sport matters. The next step for having a comprehensive understanding of the EU sport-related policy development is to present the historical account of EU intervention in sport. This part of the thesis explains 'why' and 'how' sport policy came on the agenda of EU and outlines the main factors that influenced the evolutions of the policy field of sport, that is the 'Bosman Ruling', the White Paper on Sport and the 'Sport Article' in the Treaty of Lisbon.

In particular, this part highlights the main decisions of the European institutions in sport-related issues that have shaped the approach of the Union towards the social and educational dimension of sport in the last years. Additionally, it analyses two important landmarks that changed the scope towards the potential for the establishment of a future EU policy for sport; these are the White Paper on Sport and the Article 165 for sport in the Treaty of Lisbon. Besides, the EU funding opportunities consist an important milestone for the future of the EU sport-related policy, thus there will be references to European Community Programmes as instruments for Europeanising the national sport policy-making.

### **6.2. The foundations for EU intervention in Sport-related Policy**

At this point of the study it is paramount to demonstrate the complexity of sport in relation to the development of the EU related policy. Although it is important to provide a historical review of EU intervention in sport and its relation to national sport policy, due to length limitations this study will mainly focus on the most significant developments over the years which have had an impact on the social function of sport. In general, *"the transition from the European Community which had a rather economic character to the European Union which has a deeper socio-cultural involvement has influenced the EU Member States in most areas of social and cultural life"* (Alexopoulos, 2007, p. 10). Sport as an element of social and cultural life has been influenced by the current European level Sport policy and Union Law.

Since 1957 (Founding Treaty of Rome for the EU)<sup>23</sup> until the end of 1970 sport had not been included in the areas of European interest. Four years later, according to the European Court of Justice (ECJ) Rulings in *Walrave* (1974)<sup>24</sup> and *Dona* (1976)<sup>25</sup>, sport was characterised as an economic activity within the meaning of Article 2 of the European Economic Community (EEC) Treaty and was subject to Community law and in particular to the provisions relating to the free movement of workers. In 1975 the Council of Europe ratified the *European Sport for All Charter*, the first sports policy initiative in Europe, which attempted to extend the beneficial effect of sport on health, social, educational and cultural development to all sections of the Community. With this document, the European Council expressed the belief that all its Member States should foster inclusion of people in the sports system (Marchand, 1990).

As the multidimensional role of sport was growing rapidly since the beginning of 1980 and for the next decades, sport became a major issue on the European agenda with the intension to serve 'European goals'. Only in 1985, did the European Parliament begin to operate on sporting issues by adopting the *Adonnino Report 'A People's Europe'* (Commission of European Communities, 1988). This report informed citizens about the value of sport, recommended sporting events as an outlet for public relations (Flesch, 1996) and as a vehicle to increase Europeaness, inviting the Commission to submit a European policy for sport (Commission of European Communities, 1988c). Actually, at that time, the Community's involvement in the field of sport was mainly funding-oriented for international sporting competitions like the European Sailing Regatta or the Tour de l'Avenir in cycling (Tokarski, Steinbach, Petry & Jesse, 2004). In other words, the 'People's Europe' project was an attempt by the EU to address the social and cultural dimensions of European integration and 'reconnect' with its citizens through sport (Parrish 2003a).

---

<sup>23</sup> Treaty Establishing the European Economic Community (hereinafter EEC Treaty). This treaty is also commonly referred to as the Treaty of Rome (1957). After the traumatic experiences of World War II, countries in Western Europe started to intensify and formalise cooperation in the early 1950s. Based on the idea that a closer economic and cultural exchange would strengthen mutual confidence and lower the risk of aggressive action against each other, six countries started to build up the so-called European Economic Union, which was later called the European Union (EU).

<sup>24</sup> The *Walrave and Koch* case (C-36/74 *Walrave v UCI* [1974] ECR I-1405) addressed nationality rules in sport set by the Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI). The ECJ decision underlines that the prohibition of discrimination of nationality applies as well to rules of sport federations given the fact that sport is an economic activity and is subject to EU law (EOC-EU office, 2011).

<sup>25</sup> The case was C-13/76 *Donà v Mantero* [1976] ECR I-1333.

Following the adoption of the Single European Act in 1986, Community interest in the field of sport moved on to a broader social, educational and cultural base and the first steps towards the development of a European sports policy seemed to have started. The European Parliament adopted two resolutions, based on the 1994 *Larive* report on the European Community and Sport and the 1997 *Pack* report<sup>26</sup> (A4-197/97) on the Role of the European Union in the Field of Sport, in an effort to “*balance the economic regulation of sport with the promotion of sport’s socio-cultural and integrationist qualities*” (Parrish, 2003a, p. 15).

In 1991, the first *European Forum on Sport* was organised primarily as an advisory body of the Commission with a mandate to promote dialogue and exchange of information between the EU, Member States and the sport movement. The recognition of the valuable role of sport in the Community prompted the EU to further social-oriented initiatives. In this context, the first European Community<sup>27</sup> Programmes related to sport were introduced in the 90s. The ‘Helios II Programme’ (1993-1996) funded sporting initiatives with the objective to promote equal opportunities and educational integration for disabled people (Coopers and Lybrand 1995; European Council, 1993). The ‘Eurathlon Programme’ (1995-1998) was designed to provide a framework for Community subsidies for sports focusing on disadvantaged groups, primarily young people and women (Coopers and Lybrand, 1995; European Council, 1994). These two funding initiatives demonstrate the efforts of the Commission to encourage a ‘Social Europe’.

In early 90’s the European Union was considering the regulatory measures of sport in order to set a more stable legal environment for sport. The *Bosman case* (C-415/93) in 1995, which was dealing with the application of the Treaty rules on competition to sports rules and practices, gave legal substance to sport as a professional activity which is subject to European law for free movement of workers and fair competition. In detail, the ECJ, based on Article 48, ruled that transfer fees, directly affecting a football player’s access to the employment

---

<sup>26</sup> European Parliament, Report on the European Community and sport, A3-326/94, rapporteur Larive; European Parliament, Report on the role of the European Union in the field of sport, A4-197/97, rapporteur Pack.

<sup>27</sup> The European Union was previously known as the "European Communities". Under the Maastricht Treaty, its correct title is ‘European Union’. The entry into force of the Maastricht Treaty on European Union in November 1993 caused confusion in terminology. ‘European Communities’ and ‘EC’ remain valid terms when referring to legislation implementing the Treaty of Rome. The term ‘European Union’ has been widely used following the ratification of the Maastricht Treaty. In order to avoid confusion, we use the terms European Union or EU throughout this study when referring collectively to the twenty-seven Member States: Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Spain, Portugal, Ireland, Greece, Denmark, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania.

market in another EU country, were an obstacle to the free movement of workers and thus illegal under the Treaty. Additionally, the Court ruled against any limit on the number of non-national EU players in a club team. Despite earlier EU interventions, the Bosman Ruling of the ECJ can be considered as the milestone in developing the European Sport Policy. Only after 'Bosman' the economic function of sport as a commercial activity gave sport a supranational dimension and attracted greater European interest. This resulted to a discussion on the need to develop a common EU sport policy for the social and educational function of sport, applied at national level.

The European Parliament has been following the various challenges facing European sport with great interest and has regularly been dealing with sporting issues. In 1997, the European Parliament adopted a report on the European Union and sport<sup>28</sup>, underlining the importance of sport as an agent for social integration and a key element in the formation of Community policies related to education, young people and public health.

The perception that sport is a transversal tool which can be used to promote healthy lifestyles, social integration and regional development generated further discussions at EU level regarding the social value of sport in the Community. Indeed, the *Amsterdam Declaration on Sport*<sup>29</sup> (Decision 29) which was annexed to the 1997 Treaty of Amsterdam (European Union, 1999) was the first formal document that emphasised the specific characteristics of sport and its social, educational and cultural significance in shaping identity and social integration. The Declaration mentioned “[T]he Conference emphasises the social significance of sport, in particular its role in forging identity and bringing people together. The Conference therefore calls on the bodies of the European Union to listen to sports associations when important questions affecting sport are at issues”. Whilst the annex of the Treaty recognised the social role of sport it did little to explain what this recognition should mean, in real cases. The world of sport continued to be embroiled in a series of high profile legal disputes regarding EU law, suggesting that this Declaration had, in fact, made little difference in practice (Arnaut, 2006). In general terms, it can be argued that the non-binding Amsterdam Declaration on Sport marked the beginning of the involvement of national governments in sport at supranational level (Garcia, 2006). Such an example is the Member

---

<sup>28</sup> Resolution of 13 June 1997 on Sport in the European Union, Official Journal C 200, 30 June 1997.

<sup>29</sup> Declaration 29 on Sport, Appendix to the Treaty of Amsterdam amending the Treaty on European Union, the treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts, Official Journal No. C 340 of 10 November 1997.

States' provision of political guidelines on sport through the Presidency Conclusions in the Council of the European Union.

Shortly after the Amsterdam Declaration on Sport, the *Sports Unit* within the Commission's Directorate General of Education and Culture (DG EAC) emerged as a key actor to find the equilibrium between the commercial side of sport and a better attention to the amateur and educational dimension (Parrish, 2003a). The Sports Unit initiated a process of dialogue and consultation with the sports world. Parts of its work were two working documents suggesting to analyse the characteristics of the 'European Model of Sport' (European Commission, 1998a) and to explore the 'Development and Prospects for Community actions in the field of Sport' (European Commission, 1998b). A series of actions led the Commission to acquire opinions regarding the future direction of the EU's involvement in sport and this information was presented at the first EU conference on sport held in Greece in May 1999. Furthermore, the conclusions of the Conference supplemented the Commission's report to the European Council, known as the Helsinki report<sup>30</sup>, on an approach to safeguard current sports structures and maintain the social function of sport within the EU framework. The report mentions that "*this new approach involves preserving the traditional values of sport, while at the same time assimilating a changing economic and legal environment*" (CEC, 1999).

Although the EU has recognised the social, educational and cultural qualities of sport, it has also identified the problems of European Sport mainly as a result of the economic and commercial development of professional sport such as exploitation of young players, doping, racism, violence, corruption and money-laundering and broadcasting. In this context, the *Helsinki Report on Sport* in 1999 represents a general view of the suitable European Sports Policy, stating that: "[...] *accompanying, coordination or interpretation measures at Community level might prove to be useful, for example in the area of the fight against doping. This would be designed to strengthen the legal certainty of sporting activities and their social function at a Community level*". This view expresses the need for regulation in order to deal with the economic development of sport, but at the same time it leaves an open window for the study of the 'specific characteristics of sport' when applying EC law to ensure the uncertainty of results (CEC, 1999). In fact, however, no measures to clarify the legal environment were since then adopted. Overall, the Helsinki Report reflects the first effort of the EU to co-

---

<sup>30</sup> The Helsinki report on sport.COM (99) 644 final, 10 December 1999.

ordinate the Single Market and socio-cultural policy in sport involvement, revealing an introductory EU sport policy strand without applying Treaty and regulation provisions (Parrish, 2003a).

The *Helsinki Report* led to the *Nice Declaration on Sport*<sup>31</sup>, included in the *2001 Treaty of Nice (European Union, 2000)*. The Declaration emphasises that the Community, even if it has no competence in this field, must promote the value of sport in its actions consolidating the social and educational dimension of sport in Community policies. Its aims are perfectly summarised by its title: *Declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social function in Europe, of which account should be taken in implementing common policies* (European Council, 2000). It recognises that "even though not having any direct powers in this area, the Community must, in its action under the various Treaty provisions, take account of the social, educational and cultural functions inherent in sport and making it special, in order that the code of ethics and the solidarity essential to the preservation of its social role may be respected and nurtured" (European Council, 2000). As Parrish points out (2003a, p. 19) the Declaration "launches an informal Member State commitment to establish an EU sports policy based on the construction of the separate territories approach", meaning the separation between the commercial and the socio-cultural approaches to sport. Generally speaking, the Declaration attempts to offer some policy guidance as to how certain issues regarding sport should be approached as a matter of Community law, yet it does not provide the degree of legal security that the world of sport needs (Arnaut, 2006). Consequently, the debate is no longer about whether sport has a specific nature; it is about the practical measures that need to be implemented to take account of this specific nature as a matter of European law (Arnaut, 2006).

Throughout this time, the EU took initiatives with social interest proclaiming 1996 the European Year of Lifelong Learning, 1997 the European Year Against Racism and 2003 the European Year for People with Disabilities. Especially in sports, the initiative of the European Council and the European Parliament to proclaim 2004 the European Year of Education through Sport was fundamental in reinforcing the educational dimension of sport and in highlighting the role of sport in education and training. In the same context, the United Nations undertook a similar initiative proclaiming 2005 the International Year for Sport and

---

<sup>31</sup> European Council (2000), *Nice Declaration: Declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social function in*

Physical Education, intending to promote education, health, development and peace through sport. In addition, in 2005 was conducted the first consultation between the European Commission and the European Conference of Sports Movement (The EU & Sport: Matching Expectations) focusing on the social dimension of sport, volunteering in sport and combatting Doping.

The *Laeken Declaration*<sup>32</sup> in 2001 that entrusted the European Convention to draft a new Treaty in the form of the so-called European Constitution was interpreted by the sporting movement as the last chance to incorporate a political recognition of sport in the Treaty (Parrish, 2003a). During the Convention, both the Commission and sports bodies presented their case for the inclusion of sport in the Constitution, but it was not until 2003 that the sporting movement was able to overcome its internal differences and present a common front. The sporting movement asked for the inclusion of an article on sport recognising its special nature as a cultural and social tool independent from public authorities (International Olympic Committee, 2003). It is noticeable that all Member States decided it is worth giving even the lowest level of competencies to the supranational level regarding sporting matters, as it was the article III-282 of the 2003 draft European Constitution. Although the European Constitution never entered into force, national governments showed some commitment to Europeanise their sports policies.

Up to that time, the EU lacked explicit competence in the area of sport. Instead, it addressed sport-related aspects in competences (rules, policies, programmes) of other policy areas such as health, education, youth, culture, competition, Internal Market, employment, social affairs and others. Nevertheless, the vast majority of sport-related competences and actions remain in the hands of the Member States and sports organisations. The Commission does not intervene in issues such as the organisation of sporting competitions or the setting of sporting rules, respecting the autonomy of sporting organisations and the role of Member States in conducting sporting affairs (Commission of European Communities, 2007a).

The European Commission has demonstrated great interest in the social and educational values of sport. One of the actions the EU has taken to promote sport as a vehicle for formal

---

Europe, Conclusions of the Presidency, Annex VI.

<sup>32</sup> In the Intergovernmental Conference meeting in Laeken, the European Council adopted a Declaration on the Future of the European Union, or Laeken Declaration, on 15 December 2001.



and informal education is the proclamation of the *2004 European Year of Education through Sport* (EYES 2004) (Official Journal of the European Union, 2003). The aim of this pilot project was to raise young people's awareness of the importance of sport in the development of personal and social skills, to promote voluntary activities, students' mobility and exchanges through sport, social inclusion and the integration of sport in school and day-to-day life and to encourage partnerships between educational and sporting organisations at regional, national and international level. This innovation reflects the European Union's active role in promoting the values and the educational and social potential of sport by providing financial assistance while it consists a joint framework for cooperation and dialogue among Member States and sports organisations.

It is assumed that the year 2004 was chosen as it coincided with the hosting of major sport events in Europe such as the Olympic Games in Athens and the 'Euro' football tournament in Portugal. The Member States' designated bodies had the responsibility for coordination and local implementation of the actions taken. Overall, 2004 EYES was a successful information campaign on the educational value of sport. It allocated a budget of 11.8 millions euros to 161 projects (Community, transnational and national). Such an example is the Homeless World Cup, held in South Africa in September 2006, which was actually a significant initiative to promote social values such as team spirit or fair competition while it underlined the contribution of sport as a means of inclusion of socially disadvantaged people into society.

The participation of Greece in the 2004 EYES initiative was remarkable. Within the framework of the European Year, there were the following broader initiatives (CEC, 2005): In 2003, the Greek Organising Committee of the Athens Olympic Games ran a co-financed symposium on the use of the Olympic values at school. The official day dedicated to the 2004 European Year, was celebrated at the Paralympic Games hosted in Athens. Additionally, young Europeans had the opportunity to take part in sporting and educational meetings at ancient Olympia for the lighting of the Olympic flame. Finally, 28 young high-level athletes with excellent school records were hosted in the Olympic Youth Camp in Athens during the Olympic Games. As such, it is in the scope of this study to examine the influence of the EU initiatives on the sport policy-making at the national level.

According to the overall assessment presented by the Commission (Commission of European

Communities, 2005), the 2004 European Year of Education through Sport was an effective initiative as it built innovative and lasting partnerships and networks among Member States and it increased the awareness of the social and educational values of sport through information and communication campaigns and through more than 200 national and international projects. Another achievement was that education through sport had made head way on the national policy agendas (Commission of European Communities, 2005). On the other hand, it was reported that the promotion of sport as a vehicle for the social inclusion of disadvantaged groups, the encouragement of a better balance between intellectual and physical activity during school life and the promotion of voluntary work and student mobility were goals that remained limited in ambition. In general, the positive impact of the Year and the strong demand from civil society for greater EU support and funding on the educational and social dimension of sport, have boosted the Commission to consider new Community activities.

Another joint initiative of the European Commission and the Dutch Presidency in 2004 was the adoption of a *Rolling Agenda for Sport* in order to define the priority themes for Member States' discussions on sport at EU level (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). These included issues such as fight against doping, sport and health, sport and education, social function of sport, volunteering in sport and the economic dimension of sport. In addition, the ministers agreed to set up a number of Working Groups whose interest actually correspond to the Rolling Agenda priority themes. These Working Groups are 'Sport & health', 'Sport & economics', 'Non-profit sport organisations', 'Anti-doping' and 'Education and training'.

Concluding, the Amsterdam Declaration of 1997, the Nice Declaration of 2000, the agreement at the Intergovernmental Conference in 2004 for the inclusion of sport in the Treaty as well as the positive effects of the 2004 European Year of Education through Sport, have shaped the framework for the European dimension of sport and the strategy towards a common policy-making for sport. What followed was the landmark in European sport policy development that was the issuing of the European Commission (EC) of the White Paper on Sport which led in 2009 in the inclusion of sport in the Lisbon Treaty.

In 2007 the European Commission adopted the 'White Paper on Sport' (Commission of European Communities, 2007a) which was a comprehensive framework for sport in the EU

that appoints the social, economic and organisation function of sport. The objective of this initiative is to enhance the visibility of sport in EU policy-making, to ensure that the specificity of sport is taken into consideration in the development and implementation of EU policies and to promote and support financially sport-related action at EU level, respecting the principle of subsidiarity, the autonomy of sport organisations and the legislative framework of EU (Commission of European Communities, 2007c). More specifically, the White Paper on Sport and the accompanying Action Plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ (Commission of European Communities, 2007b) are essential soft-law instruments for the promotion of sport through other policy areas<sup>33</sup>, suggesting a number of actions to be implemented at EU level and a series of European Community Programmes that support sport -not only financially- through other policies improving Member States’ cooperation and dialogue on sport.

A significant development for EU Sport policy is the ratification of the 2009 the Lisbon Treaty. Although the Treaty does not provide the EU with an explicit power in the area of sport, it does offer the EU a competence to directly carry out actions to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States in the field of sport. Most importantly, the Treaty gives the EU the possibility to define a sport policy, to incorporate sport into the work of the Council of Ministers and to directly fund an EU Sport programme (Siekmann, 2012) However, sport organisations and Member States still have the main responsibility for implementing sporting issues and defining sport rules as there is so far no legal framework for sport. The White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty are recent developments in European policy for sport and will be further analysed in the following part of the chapter.

### **6.3. The cornerstones in the developing European sport policy**

This study distinguishes three important facts that marked the development of sport in Europe and had an effect on the European sport policy-making. These are a) the 1995 ‘Bosman’ Case, b) the 2007 White Paper on Sport and c) the 2009 Treaty of Lisbon. These factors will be presented below.

---

<sup>33</sup> The Commission has carried out a study on the impact of Community activities on sport, showing that twenty of the twenty-four Commission’s Directorates-General carry out actions or programmes which have an impact on sport (Coopers & Lybrand, 1995).

### 6.3.1 The 'Bosman' Case: Legal substance to sport

In order to understand the legal substance to sport at EU level, it is important to address the specificity of sport and its twofold nature, distinguishing business/professional sport from 'Sports for All'/grassroot sport. This is because there is a legal uncertainty regarding the concept of 'specificity of sport', as for instance when sporting rules compromise or not with EU law, due to the multi-facet nature of sport (e.g. commercial or social good). From one hand, sport can be described as an economic activity applied to European economic and competition law while, on the other hand, sport is applied to public policy with health enhancing, educational, cultural and integration characteristics. Consequently, depending on the level of activity, sport can be employed to different EU policies areas. Another issue in sport is the level of sovereignty. The professional side of sport is subordinated to competition policy and thus the EU has sovereignty rights over this area. On the contrary, 'Sport for All' remains within the scope of the Member States and sport organisations that hold the sovereignty rights. Indeed, there is a long discussion whether 'Sport for All', or in a wide sense the social dimension of sport, is part of an EU policy at all, since the Member States' sovereignty rights remain prevalent. However, given that the EU includes sport in funding opportunities and supporting actions of other related EU policy, this thesis will consider social and educational related sport as a European policy area.

Before commenting on the Bosman case<sup>34</sup>, it is important to refer to the EU legislative framework and how it affects sport. The Single European Act that rules the Single Market is based on the freedom of circulation of persons, product, services and capital, which is set out in the Treaty of European Union. The areas of significance for sports are the free movement of goods (eg. Broadcasting rights, merchandise), services (eg. sports coaches) and persons (eg. the ability of professional sports men and women to work freely throughout the EU). The Bosman case is concerned with the freedom of workers: the right of citizens to exercise their profession in any of the EU Member States. This right stood in direct contrast with many of the rulings within sports that constrained the free movement of professional players and coaches between clubs. According to Matthews (1999), the legal cases Walrave & Koch VS. Union Cycliste Internationale (1973) and Dona vs. Mantero (1976) were the first to challenge the legality of sporting regulations which broke EC laws on discrimination against non-nationals (Seary, 1992) but the Bosman case is, perhaps, the most significant test of the

---

<sup>34</sup> Union Royale Belge des Sociétés de Football Association ASBL v Jean-Marc Bosman (1995) C-415/93.

resolve of the Commission to enforce the legislation of the Maastricht Treaty.

As Matthews (1999) comments, Jean-Marc Bosman, a Belgian professional footballer, challenged the right of his employers at R. C. Liege to demand a fee during his transfer to the French club U.S. Dunkerque, although his contract was expired. Bosman argued the UEFA rulings on transfer fees and on non-nationals in club teams prohibited his ability to exercise his profession in another Member State, breaking Community laws on the free movement of workers (Article 48) and competition (Article 85) (European Commission, 1996). The European Court of Justice upheld the complaint against the club and UEFA. The case illustrates the efforts of the European sports movement to provide arguments to the effect that when European legislation is applied in the sporting context it should consider the 'special circumstances' of the nature of sporting activity.

In brief, the EU regulatory measure for sport is an effort to set a more comprehensive legal environment for sport. The application of the Treaty rules on competition to sports rules and practices, give legal substance to sport as a professional activity which is subject to European law. The Bosman case was an important ruling on the free movement of labour and fair competition and had a profound effect on the transfers of football players within the European Union. Precisely, the decision banned restrictions on foreign EU players within national leagues and allowed players in the EU to move to another club at the end of a contract without a transfer fee being paid. Concluding, the Bosman Ruling of the ECJ can be considered as the milestone in developing the European Sport Policy. Only after 'Bosman' the economic function of sport as a commercial activity gave sport a supranational dimension and attracted greater European interest. This resulted in a discussion on the need to develop a framework for the creation of a future EU social and educational-oriented sport policy at national level.

Overall, sport became a topic on the EU agenda due to the economic interest it generated and hence sport was included in European economic and competition policies referring to labour law, employment law and to the European Court of Justice (ECJ) rulings. Actually, under a number of ECJ decisions such as Walrave (1974), Dona (1976), Bosman (1995), Deliège (2000) and Meca-Medina (2006), the Court has ruled that sport must comply with EU law whenever it constitutes an economic activity (see also Papaloukas, 2007). Supplementary,

the 2007 White Paper on Sport provided the framework for a more comprehensive EU sport policy approach with special attention to the social and educational dimension of sport and not only its economic aspects. Besides, the entry into force of the 2009 Treaty of Lisbon and specifically the Article 165 provided an explicit competence for sport and the legal basis for the EU to promote, support and fund sport directly, setting the foundation for the development of an EU sport policy.

### **6.3.2. The White Paper on Sport: A significant step forward in a period of transition**

The social and economic developments in the field of sport have brought new challenges for sport in Europe, requiring prompt actions at EU level. Sport stakeholders were pressing the EU to bring legal certainty regarding the application of EU law to sport and to take into account their concerns in EU policy-making such as governance issues relating to professional sports and the financing of sport. In addition, the restricted integration of sport issues in public policy intensified the need for the promotion of the special characteristics and the social and educational value of sport within EU policies. Under this pressure, the European Commission took the initiative to adopt the White Paper on Sport in 2007 after two years of various consultations with other DGs, Member States and sport stakeholders on issues of common concern.

The White Paper on Sport (WP) is the result of a long process of continuous and intensive discussions and consultations at all levels and with all interested parties, embodying the EU position and guidelines towards sport. The internal consultation with 19 DGs resulted in awareness raising, educating the other Directorates about the positive effect of sport on the Commission activities, and in building a cooperative approach towards sport issues. The external consultation was organised in three stages: dialogue with the ‘European sport movement’, on-line public consultation and consultation with the Member States (Commission of European Communities, 2007c). Additionally, the contribution of the European Parliament was fundamental for the drafting of the White Paper. Overall, the political pressure exercised by the European Parliament, the Member States and sports organisations suggest that considerable expectations exist concerning the role of sport in Europe and the potential of EU value-added in this area.

The White Paper was conceived as a political initiative to promote debate at all levels of the

European sport world. The hidden intentions of such an initiative were to raise the issue of sport on the Commission's agenda and to create expectations from national governments and sports organisations about future Commission's initiatives in the field of sport (Garcia, 2008), as for example greater visibility of sport in EU policy-making (Commission of European Communities, 2007e). In general, the WP was an introduction to the actions of the DG Education and Culture in the light of a bigger objective, namely the ratification of the European Constitution.

The European Commission propounds that the White Paper on Sport provides a strategic orientation on the role of sport in the EU, encourages debate on specific problems, enhances the visibility of sport in EU policy-making, raise awareness of the needs and specificities of the sector and identifies the appropriate level of further action at EU level (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). More over, it contributes to 'mainstream sport into the various relevant EU policies' and to 'increase legal certainty regarding the application of the *acquis* to sport, as a contribution to improved governance in European sport' (Commission of European Communities, 2007d, p. 2).

Analytically, the document of the White Paper on Sport is divided in three main parts. It starts with investigating the societal role of sport both at amateur and professional level. The second part explores the economic dimension of sport in the EU. The last part indicates the problem of the organisation of sport in Europe, addressing issues such as the governance of sport, the specificity of the sector and the application of EU law to sport. Finally, it concludes with the EU actions that will be taken to follow up this initiative such as the implementation of a structured dialogue with sport stakeholders, cooperation with the Member States and the promotion of social dialogue in the sport sector.

The overall goal of the EU is to develop a European dimension in sport by promoting active citizenship, social cohesion and a sense of European identity. According to the White Paper on Sport, EU recommends the Member States to take actions on the following issues of the social dimension of sport (Commission of European Communities, 2007c):

- a) Public health and physical activity
- b) Fight against doping
- c) Education and training
- d) Volunteering in sport, active citizenship and non-profit sport organisations

- e) Social inclusion in and through sport
- f) Fight against violence and racism in sport

As this study has a special interest in the social and educational dimension of sport, the White Paper on Sport will consist the conceptual framework to examine the application of the EU initiatives in the Greek sport policy-making, while Europeanisation will provide the theoretical framework to examine the EU impact at national level sport policy in the aforementioned public policy areas.

Additionally, the Commission issued an accompanying paper called *Action Plan 'Pierre de Coubertin'*. This document described EU future plans in the field of sport, recommending, among the 53 supportive initiatives, a series of funding European Community Programmes where sport and physical activity can be promoted. Two *Staff Working Documents* (Commission of European Communities, 2007c, 2007e) were also accompanying the White Paper on Sport; the first contained the background and context of the proposals, including annexes on Sport and EU Competition Rules, Sport and Internal Market Freedoms, and on-line consultations with stakeholders as well as a summary of the application of the Community law to sport while the second contained an impact assessment report on the added-value of the White Paper.

In practice, the White Paper on Sport promotes sport-related projects for support under a wide range of Community Programmes, offering new funding opportunities for the sector in general and for sport associations in particular. It emphasises the specificity of sport and recommends a greater involvement of the sport movement in EU policy-making by encouraging dialogue among European and national sport stakeholders through a variety of platforms and networks. It highlights the values inherent in sport and its beneficial influence on health, education, social inclusion and volunteering, recognising the social dimension of sport.

The White Paper respects the principle of subsidiarity, the autonomy of sport organisations and the current EU legal framework operating within the limits of existing EU competences (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). Actually, the White Paper utilises various instruments to address the role of sport in Europe, advising Member States to participate in European Community Programmes, studies, and conferences and build on political



cooperation through networks, consultation and dialogue with sport stakeholders and the European sport movement in general (see also Chatzigianni, 2010). These instruments serve as 'soft' measures, without regulatory or legislative command, due to the fact that there is no specific EU competence for sport. Consequently, the White Paper does not weaken the application of EU law on sport. On contrary, it provides further clarity on the application of EU legal provisions in this sector the (Siekmann, 2008).

Another EU initiative is the provision of a platform for dialogue among sport stakeholders and the Commission. "*[T]he Commission will follow up on the initiatives presented in this White Paper through the implementation of a structured dialogue with sport stakeholders, co-operation with the Member States, and the promotion of social dialogue in the sport sector*" (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). The White Paper on Sport highlights the necessity of structured dialogue between the Commission and European sport movement<sup>35</sup>, including governmental or non-governmental actors related to sports. This is a challenging task given the diversity of sports structures in Europe that evoke different types of legal status and levels of autonomy in Member States. Wide consultation with interested parties is a valuable tool to ensure that the specific characteristics of sport are taken into account in EU policy-making, and to enhance the awareness of the application of EU law to sport. For the requirements of this study, structured dialogue can be examined as an effect of Europeanisation through the mechanism of the Open Method of Coordination where discourse, policy transfer and exchange of ideas take place.

Policy co-operation is another initiative of the White Paper on Sport (WP) that recommends Member States to address sport-related matters of common concern, exchange good practice and provide political guidance to the Commission. Until the ratification of Lisbon Treaty when sport became part of the agenda of EU Council of Ministers, policy cooperation at EU level was handled through informal structures (e.g. informal sport directors meetings, conferences etc.). The formalisation of sport policy-making at EU level is evidenced by the establishment of 'EU Working Groups' where Member States can be involved through their expert representatives. This study will deal with the 'Working Groups' related only to the social function of sport. Although 'social dialogue' is a field of research that goes beyond the

---

<sup>35</sup> European sports movement is an informal group of international organisations, such as the European Olympic Committee (EOC), the European non-Governmental Sports Organisation (ENGSO) and the General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF) and their members.

objectives of this study, it can be mentioned that ‘social dialogue’ is another EU element that gives employers, athletes and sport workers the opportunity to form labour relations in the sport sector through an autonomous dialogue. In general, ‘policy cooperation’ is examined in terms of producing Europeanisation through the Open Method of Coordination.

It is significant that even though EU attempted to allocate financial resources to the social and educational function of sport and to develop a coherent policy on sport, it came across constitutional difficulties due to the absence of a Treaty competence for sport. Up to that time, EU was not granted a competence to operate a ‘direct’ sport policy. As a consequence, the Commission associated the sport-related funding initiatives with existing competencies in the Treaty, such as the education policy i.e. including sport and physical activity into the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP).

The White paper on Sport is of particular significance because it is the first time the Commission is addressing sport-related issues in a comprehensive manner (Commission of European Communities, 2007a). Siekmann stresses that since the communication on sport got the form of a White Paper, it highlighted the “*comprehensive nature, longer-term value and political weight of the document*” (Siekmann, 2012, p. 76). Although, the ‘concrete outcome’ of the White Paper on Sport remains limited to the level of communications, conclusions, resolutions, reports or declarations, it evokes the evolution towards a more coherent EU sports agenda. Practically, the White Paper on Sport brings topics on to the EU sports agenda in order to raise awareness, collect information and exchange best practices. In other words, the EU action provides a platform for dissemination of knowledge about EU law in the sport sector and exchange and dialogue among sport stakeholders, spreading good practice and promoting the development of European networks in the field of sport (European Commission, 2011).

Critically, although the White Paper did not fully meet the expectations of the sport sector regarding the establishment of a regulatory framework for sport in Europe, it was a major step towards the right direction. The White Paper can be seen as “*an instrument to pave the way for the implementation of a future Treaty provision on sport*” (Siekmann, 2012, p. 77).

### 6.3.3. Treaty of Lisbon: A new Competence for Sport

The ratification of the *Lisbon Treaty (TFEU)* in 2009 (European Union, 2007) brought a new era in the promotion of the social aspects of sport at EU level enhancing the visibility and legal status of sport. Article 165(1) TFEU stipulates that: “*The Union shall contribute to the promotion of European sporting issues, while taking account of the specific nature of sport, its structures based on voluntary activity and its social and education function*”. With this provision, the EU has a new soft competence in sport and can undertake actions to support, coordinate or supplement the policies of Member States. Second, the EU can better promote sport in international forums when it speaks with a single voice. Third, a new legal basis is formed for implementing specific policy proposals in the area of sport, as mentioned in the White Paper, such as “mainstreaming” sport into existing EU policies and programmes as well as introducing a purely ‘EU Sport Programme’ where EU can directly finance sport activities. Finally, new decision-making structures arise in the EU such as the formal EU Sport Ministers’ meetings and the new Working Party ‘Sport’, incorporating sport into the work of the Council. In this regard, the Constitution finally delegates the EU with the necessary legal and financial basis for the development of a coherent direct sports policy but the role of the Union in sport affairs seems to remain limited to the provisions for the social and educational aspects of sport, while the ECJ rulings and competition law continue to constitute the regulatory framework of the EU sport policy.

More specifically, the Article 165 provides the EU with the following instruments. The first is recommendations, adopted by the Council after Commission’s proposal and second is incentive measures such as funding opportunities, adopted by the Council and the European Parliament (EOC-EU Office, 2011). On the other hand, these measures are not legally binding for the Member States so EU is not empowered to harmonise national laws and regulations either to issue EU regulations and directives (EOC-EU Office, 2011).

Still, it is vital to make clear that even after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty, which creates a supporting EU competence for sport, the vast majority of sport-related competences and actions remain in the hands of the Member States and of sports organisations. The European Commission fully respects the autonomy of sporting organisations and the role of Member States in conducting sporting affairs. Therefore, the Commission does not intervene in issues such as the organisation of sporting competitions or the setting of sporting rules. Yet, the most important contribution of the Treaty is the provision of supporting measures

which supplement national policies providing financial support, administrative co-operation, pilot projects and guidelines (Parrish, 2003a).

Article 165(2) of the TFEU adds another policy instrument in the EU agenda, the cooperation among Member States, the EU and the sport bodies, which is also an element of Europeanisation. It intends to offer a more structured base to the dialogue between the EU and the sports movement. The Lisbon Treaty provides Member States with a competence to discuss prioritised sport issues on a formal Council of Ministers' meeting as opposed to informal meetings of EU Sport Ministers and EU Sport directors and ad hoc expert meetings on priority themes organised under the auspices of the various EU Presidencies (see also De Wolff, 2016). The first official EU sport Ministers' meeting was organised in May 2010 adopting a more formal and coherent approach to EU sport policy. In this context, the European value-added in the field of sport is enriched through the exchange of good practice and other supporting activities at European level such as consultations, communications, networks, dialogues, etc. Indeed, the EU has a strong role to play in facilitating the social dialogue with the sport movement "*ensuring that sporting autonomy is conditioned on the implementation of good governance in sport*" (Parrish, Garcia, Miettinen & Siekmann, 2010). However, there are still some issues in the Article that need clarification, as there is no clear reference on the autonomy of sport organisations and no clear-cut definition of 'the specificity of sport' (EOC-EU Office, 2011), maintaining the legal uncertainty.

Arguing on the sport policy development, the impact of European law on sport over the last three decades has been an 'indirect EU sports policy', but the lack of legal base in the previous Treaty prevented any attempt to plan a coherent approach to sport that could be based on well defined priorities, objectives, policy instruments and budgetary appropriations. With regard to Europeanisation, the lack of a coherent EU sports policy illustrates a degree of divergence between EU and national institutions. Whatever the EU did in reference to sport, it cannot amount to a policy, but it was only initiatives and supporting activities such as declarations, recommendations, guidelines, funding etc. The EU impact on national level can be expressed through the national participation in EU sport-related initiatives as well as in other policies that can incorporate physical activity into their actions, promoting the social values of sport. This is especially apparent in the case of financing sport where the EU connected its sports-related funding programmes to existing competences in the Treaty, such as education policy.

Yet, the new sport competence contained in Article 165 of the Treaty allows the EU to grant sport directly without the need to justify this action with reference to other Treaty competencies (Parrish, Garcia, Miettinen & Siekmann, 2010). That means that the Lisbon Treaty provides a specific budgetary line for the sport sector as it has already been done for education and culture, i.e. the Lifelong Learning Programme and the Culture Programme. It is admitted that this ‘Sport programme’ provides financial support in organisations active in the sporting world in order to exchange information and good practices. Additionally, the Programme is open for social-related sport projects, in line with the White Paper on Sport, supporting actions for volunteering and citizenship, fighting racism and doping, improving public health, and integrating sport in education and training, social inclusion, etc. Thus, the entry into force of the TFEU opens the path for the development of a direct supportive and complementary policy in the field of sport, offering a wide range of possibilities to EU institutions such as funding opportunities.

Parrish and McArdle (2004) interpret the new competence in a quite different way for the development of the EU sport policy. They argue that Article 165 gives only a very weak power to the EU to be involved in sports policy. The actions of the EU in sport seems to be a support to national sports policies, but not a policy on its own. Concluding, it is difficult to claim that the European Union has a fully-fledged sports policy, but the intervention of EU institutions in sport since 1974 (but especially since *Bosman* in 1995) have had an important impact on European sport, not only on the economic but also on the social and educational dimension of sport. However, the effect of these decisions may have important consequences not only for sport governing bodies, but also for national sport policies which is the interest of this study. So, one may say that the new competence of the Treaty brings mostly the possibility of developing a direct supportive and complementary policy in the field of sport, but not a purely EU policy. Concluding, the inclusion of sport in the Lisbon Treaty signifies institutional changes, political changes and financing of sport at EU level. What is expected to be seen is how the Article for sport in the Lisbon Treaty will influence the agenda-setting dynamics in sport policy (De Wolff, 2013). Vermeersch (2009) comments that “*whether or not the implementation of this policy will lead to concrete actions will depend upon the will of the actors involved to make a clear choice within the broad range of priorities and to use the legal opportunities in the best possible way*”.

In 2011, two more important initiatives shaped the current political framework of sport at EU level. First, the European Commission's Communication '*Developing the European Dimension in Sport*' (European Commission, 2011) set the Commission's view on how the Article 165 of the Treaty should be put into practice. Complementary to the White Paper on Sport, the Communication proposes concrete actions to the Commission and to Member States for enhancing the social role of sport, providing for the economic dimension of sport and supporting the organisation of sport. Second, in reaction to Commission's Communication, the Ministers' Council adopted the 2011-2014 Work Plan on Sport (European Council, 2011). In order to strengthen the European cooperation in sport, this paper set the sport ministers' priorities in three main areas of sport:

- Integrity of sport; with action for the fight against doping, match fixing and the promotion of good governance
- Social values of sport; such as health, social inclusion, education and volunteering.
- Economic dimension of sport; providing for the sustainable financing of grassroots sports and evidence-based policy making (European Council, 2011).

Second, the Council Work Plan on Sport for 2014-2017, provides the opportunity for a collective work among Member States, the Presidencies of the Council, the Commission and the expert Groups on agreed guiding principles and priority areas. This Work Plan provides "*a valuable framework for all actors to cooperate in a coordinated way and in mutual respect of national and EU competences*" (European Commission, 2014b).

#### **6.4. European Funding opportunities**

At this point it would be essential to discuss on the significance of the European Community Programmes. The term "*European Programmes*" refers to a set of research and development incentives that are awarded either directly by the European Union or through the national governments to organisations and businesses. These incentives take many different forms such as tax breaks, subsidies, etc. The European Programmes motivate the development of knowledge and skills in selected industries, markets or particular groups of people. This study is focusing on the '*European Community Programmes*' (period 2007-2013) and especially those that are related to sport and physical activities. They are presented as integrated set of actions adopted by the EU in order to promote co-operation among its Member States in different specific fields related to Community policies, over a period of several years. The Commissioner Androulla Vassiliou pointed that "*the implementation of the new EU competence for sport also requires coordinated and mutually supportive approaches with*

*other EU policies and complementarity of financial instruments (EU programmes and funds)*<sup>36</sup>”.

The European Commission is ultimately responsible for the smooth function of the programmes as it manages the budget and sets priorities, objectives and criteria, in consultation with the relevant Program Committees. Furthermore, it guides and monitors the general implementation, follow up and evaluation of programs at European level. The European Commission is assisted by the relevant EU Executive Agency which is responsible for the program implementation. In the case of sport, responsible for the implementation of the European Community Programmes is the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA). Moreover, each Member State has designated a National Authority which has the overall responsibility for supervising the implementation of the program in the country and a National Coordination Unit (NCU), which undertakes the management of the Action Programme and the budget allocation at national level. EU funds are implemented according to the principle of additionality (co-financing) where national organisations offer supplementary support to the projects' budget.

As Širok and Košmrlj (2011) comment “*European Community funding [...] presents supranational policy instruments bringing change to various levels of social reality at the national level*”. Among the various mechanisms for exercising Europeanisation, this study examines the European Programmes as an instrument of the implementation of EU policies at national level and the creation of convergence mechanisms through sport. In other words, the analysis intends to show that the European Programmes represent a supranational policy instrument, which can bring important change at national level.

In the case of sport-related initiatives, the EU funds national and transnational projects in order to identify and test suitable networks and good practices in the field of sport. It should be clarified though that EU funding is supplementary to national funding, which means that it is implemented according to the principle of additionality (co-financing). The overall goal of EU is to develop a European dimension in sport by promoting active citizenship, social cohesion and a sense of European identity. According to the White Paper on Sport, EU recommends the Member States to take actions on the following issues of the social

---

<sup>36</sup> See written answer of Ms. Vassiliou to parliamentary question E-1719/2010, 19 May 2010.

dimension of sport (Commission of European Communities, 2007e):

- a) Public health and physical activity
- b) Fight against doping
- c) Education and training
- d) Volunteering in sport, active citizenship and non-profit sport organisations
- e) Social inclusion in and through sport
- f) Fight against violence and racism in sport

In relation to these areas of social concern, European Programmes will be examined as an instrument of Europeanisation implemented at national level emphasising on the social and educational significance of sport. These Programmes are:

Public Health Programme (2008-2013)

Lifelong Learning Programme (2007-2013)

Youth in Action Programme (2007-2013)

Europe for Citizens (2007-2013)

Life+ Programme (2007-2013)

Progress (2007-2013)

Fundamental Rights and Citizenship (2007-2013)

Daphne (2007-2013)

Recently, the Commission introduced the *'Preparatory Action in the field of sport'* (2009-2011 and 2012-2013) in order to prepare possible EU actions in this field in view of the implementation of the Lisbon Treaty. The aim of this financial support was to facilitate cooperation and exchanges of best practice between sports organisations in Europe so that discrepancies in sport among EU countries could be addressed. The programme has three priority directions. First, it intends to provide policy support for the identification of future policy actions in the area of sport through studies, surveys, conferences and seminars, generating dialogue among the EU and the sport world in areas of interest such as good governance in sport, socio-economic data and the societal aspects of sport (Vermeersch, 2009). Second, it aims at promoting networks and good practices in the fields of physical activity, sports training, disability sport and gender equality and third, it aims at promoting the European visibility at sporting events (Vermeersch, 2009). Through this Action, it is apparent that the Commission wishes to involve the European citizens in the preparation of the future EU's actions in the field of Sport (Vermeersch, 2009).



In detail, the first ‘Preparatory actions in the field of sport’ were launched in 2009 with a total budget of €4 million. The main objective was to open the path for future EU sports measures in coherence with the objectives and priorities of the White Paper on Sport (European Commission, 2009d). The call for proposals supported transnational projects implemented by public bodies or civil society organisations in order to provide policy support, identify and test suitable networks and good practices in the field of sport, and promote greater European visibility at sport events. The areas of priority were (European Commission, 2009d):

- a) Promoting health-enhancing physical activity (€1.4 million), with the aim of strengthening the cooperation between the health, education and sport sectors in order to define and implement coherent strategies to reduce overweight, obesity and other health risks.
- b) Promoting education and training in sport (€1 million), with the aim to encourage sport organisations and sport clubs to share knowledge and combine sports training and education for young people.
- c) Encouraging sport for persons with disabilities (€1 million), in order to promote the European dimension of disability sports and integrate disability sport components into sport events.
- d) Promoting gender equality in sport (€0.6 million), with the aim of strengthening women's access to decision-making positions in sport.

Accordingly, the 2010 “Preparatory actions in the field of sport”, based on the EU competence for sport provided by the Lisbon Treaty and the priorities of the White Paper on Sport, had the following areas of priority (European Commission, 2009d):

- (a) Fight against doping (€1 million), aiming at preventive anti-doping measures in amateur sport and fitness.
- (b) Promoting social inclusion in and through sport (€1 million), especially for migrants and persons of foreign origin.
- (c) Promoting volunteering in sport (€0.5 million), aiming at sports associations and local sport structures.

The 2011 ‘Preparatory action in the field of Sport’, on the basis of priorities set in the 2007 White Paper on Sport and the 2011 Communication on Developing the European Dimension in Sport, had the following areas of priority (European Commission, 2009d):

- a) Prevention of and fight against violence and intolerance in sport (€1 million).

b) Promoting innovative approaches to strengthen the organisation of sport in Europe (€1 million).

For the year 2012, the areas of priority for the 'Preparatory Action' with a total budget of €3 200 000 were:

- a) The fight against match-fixing,
- b) The promotion of physical activity supporting active ageing,
- c) Awareness-raising about effective ways of promoting sport at municipal level and
- d) Joint grassroots sport competitions in neighbouring regions and Member States.

Lastly, the 2013 'Preparatory Action in the Field of Sport' will be concluded in mid-2015, it has a total budget of € 2 800 000 and promotes areas of priority such as:

- a) Strengthening of good governance and dual careers in sport through support for the mobility of volunteers, coaches, managers and staff of non-profit sport organisations,
- b) Protecting athletes, especially the youngest, from health and safety hazards by improving training and competition conditions and
- c) Promoting traditional European sports and games. The Greek participation to these Actions will be further examined in Chapter 7 as a soft law instrument of Europeanisation of the national sport policy.

In parallel with a wide consultation for the implementation of Lisbon Treaty's sport provisions, the Commission has proposed a new Programme for education, training, youth and sport, called '*Erasmus+*' (2014-2020) in order to increase the funds allocated to the development of knowledge and skills. It foresees a budget of €238 million for transnational projects among Member States and sport organisations implementing guidelines and recommendations in areas such as good governance, dual careers, participation in sport and physical activity (Official Journal of the European Union, 2013). Despite the great significance of this sport programme for the future of the European sport policy, it will not be analysed in this current research because it is out of the time horizon of this thesis (2007-2013) however it would be an important topic of concern for further research. Nonetheless, apart from the aforementioned Programmes, other European sources for sport funding are available, namely European Structural Funds, although the applicability is rather more limited.

Concluding, European Community funding Programmes consist valuable Europeanising instruments. They promote changes which are agreed at supranational level and implemented at national levels, by supporting the development of future common policies and activities in the field of sport.

### **6.5. Towards a common EU sport policy**

Applying the multi-level governance approach to the decision-making process, it is demonstrated that EU sport policy-making is the result of negotiations between supranational independent institutions, interest groups, and intergovernmental decisions by Member States. The operation and interrelation of EU institutions, policy networks and national governments in sport matters reveal the horizontal patterns of Europeanisation when EU sport initiatives are employed in national sport policies. The European Union has identified the multidimensional role of sport and has enhanced its actions, to exploit the social, educational and cultural function and special characteristics of sport in order to accomplish EU strategic goals.

In the area of sport policy, the EU operates within the competencies provided by the Treaty and according to the principle of subsidiarity. Although the legal implications of the Article 165 of the Treaty cannot be assessed, the Treaty of Lisbon has political, institutional and financial implications. From a political aspect, the recognition of the role of sport and the promotion of sport at EU level creates a new EU policy field for sport. From an institutional aspect, the establishment of the Sport Minister's Council and the EU cooperation with Member States takes a formal dimension. Lastly, from a financial aspect, the EU has a competence to mainstream sport into other EU policies and programmes as well as to fund directly sport programmes (EOC-EU Office, 2011).

The EU's political position and strategic orientation in the social and educational field of sport were formulated in the 'White Paper on Sport' and the accompanied document 'Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin'. Within this framework, the EU's intervention in the social dimension of sport has mainly taken the forms of financial support through funding Programmes and new modes of governance such as the OMC in the structured dialogue. European Programmes will be examined as an instrument of Europeanisation, which support the development of common policies and activities in the field of sport. Additionally, the EU provides the platform for dialogue and cooperation among sport stakeholders, Member States

and European institutions in order to enhance policy transfer which will lead inevitably to policy convergence.

The coming chapter will identify the channels of EU involvement into the social aspects of sport and will analyse how the EU actions affect national sport policies, as in this case the Greek sport policy. The participation of Greek sport institutions in EU initiatives will be analysed as the result of indirect EU pressures for policy convergence and it will serve as an indicator of Europeanisation.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: The EU intervention in the social and educational dimension of sport**

### **7.1. Overview**

This part discusses the EU intervention in sport in an attempt to relate it to the study of the Greek sports policy. The purpose of this thesis is to give an understanding of how domestic policy-making is influenced by EU decisions, directions and recommendations and whether the social aspects of sport policy, which until recently remained an area of member state sovereignty, are affected by the dynamics of Europeanisation. For this reason, chapter 7 provides the empirical analysis of this study and explores Greek involvement in EU actions under the initiative of the White Paper on Sport. The degree of convergence between EU and national sport policy will indicate the Europeanisation 'effect'.

### **7.2. Public policy areas of EU involvement**

As the interest of this dissertation is the social-related sport policy, the study concentrates on the first part of the White Paper on Sport, which is the societal role of sport. In particular, the accompanying paper Action Plan 'Pierre de Coubertin' suggests a number of initiatives where Member States are invited to participate, in order to get involved in funding opportunities, networking, cooperation practices and structured dialogue on sport matters. The period under investigation covers the years 2007-2013<sup>37</sup>.

According to the White Paper on Sport, EU recommends the Member States to take actions on the following issues of the social and educational dimension of sport (European Commission, 2007b):

- Public health and physical activity,
- Fight against doping,
- Education and training,
- Volunteering in sport and active citizenship,
- Social inclusion in and through sport,

---

<sup>37</sup> Some of the research findings are part of work progress (Sakka & Chatzigianni, 2012a and 2012b) published in the *Journal of Sport and Social Issues* 05/2012, 36(2), "Europeanizing the Social Aspects of the Greek Sport Policy" and in *Choregia: Sport Management International Journal* 8(2), pp. 33-56, "Enhancing Europeanisation through European sport-related Programmes: The case of Greece".

- Fight against violence and racism in sport,
- Sustainable development.

Therefore, the research will focus on these areas of social concern in order to examine the Europeanisation of domestic sport policy.

The EU intervention in the area of sport has many implications. In the present study, the EU impact on national level will be analysed through the Greek participation in the following EU sport-related initiatives:

- Sport Ministers' and Sport Directors' Meetings,
- European Sport Forum,
- EU sport-related working Groups,
- European Community funding Programmes,
- Studies on sport aspects and Eurobarometer,
- Structured dialogue and Member States cooperation.

### **7.2.1. Public Health and Physical Activity**

Sport, as a form of physical activity, plays a crucial role in the protection and improvement of public health, contributing to the reduction of obesity and the prevention of a number of serious diseases. According to EU "Health in all Policies" (HIAP) approach, health has become an integral part in all EU policies as well as in EU sport initiatives. Indeed, in the 2007 White Paper 'A Strategy for Europe on Nutrition, Overweight and Obesity related health issues' (CEC, 2007f), physical activity was a key component. In line with the 'EU Physical Activity Guidelines', the European Commission aims at reviewing, coordinating and recommending the Member States to establish national guidelines. With regards to Europeanisation, this part of the research will indicate whether the EU health policy has exercised any influence at national level in the area of sport.

The EC supports financially transnational projects and networks in the area of health-enhancing physical activity. Physical activity together with nutrition and diet are key priorities in the EU public health policy and are taken up in the actions of the Public Health funding Programme "*Together for Health*" (2008-2013). The Programme intends to complement, support and add value to the policies of the Member States and contribute to increasing solidarity and prosperity in the European Union by protecting and promoting human health and safety and improving public health (Official Journal of the European

Union, 2001a, Decision No 1350/2007/EC). Additionally, other objectives of the Programme are to reduce health inequalities and to generate and exchange health information and knowledge. The total budget for the programme is €321 500 000. The Programme is implemented by the Executive Agency for Health and Consumers (EAHC).

In Greece, the National Agency for implementing the Programme is the Center for Disease Control and Prevention which is under the control of the Ministry of Health and Welfare. Its work is to disseminate information and to promote the programme at national level. Until 2013, from the total number of 401 approved funding projects only 13 projects promoted physical activity as an enhancing factor for health, as for instance for heart health, fighting obesity, active lifestyle, improving infrastructure for leisure time, school physical activity, fighting sedentarity in aging people etc. Greek health-related institutions were joint partners in only 3 of them, namely:

1. The Institute of Child's Health (ICH), was associated partner for thre "Development and implementation of a national policy promoting healthy eating and physical activity for schools in Europe" (HEPS schoolkit) (2007). The project was supported by the EU with an amount of €650 000. It aims at developing and implementing school programmes, guiding principles and tools to promote healthy eating and physical activity in schools of the member states in order to combat and prevent overweight among school-aged children.
2. The Democritus University Of Thrace, participated in the project "Building Policy Capacities for Health Promotion through Physical Activity among sedentary older people" (2008) Supported by the EU with the amount of €800 000, the project aims at setting up national alliances in order to develop and implement actions to strengthen capacities for the promotion of physical activity among sedentary older people.
3. Nostus Communications & Events LTD was an associated partner of "Obesity Prevention through European Network".The EU granted €1 053 429 to support the goals of the project, which include implementation of sustainable strategies and actions at local and national level in order to facilitate and accelerate behavior and environmental change for reducing overweight and obesity-related diseases among European children and adolescents.

Overall, in the case of Greece it is apparent that sport as a form of physical activity is not strongly promoted under the Programme Public Health. Consequently, it can be argued that

the reaction of Greece to EU initiatives involving sport in health projects is average, indicating low signs of Europeanisation.

In the context of the 2009 “Preparatory Action in the field of Sport” (EC, 2009), two Greek institutions were project-partners on actions for health enhancing physical activity. The projects and national partners were:

1) “You Need Exercise! Introducing every day Culture of Sports for Children in European Cities”, national partner the Municipal Nursery of Athens, EU granted amount €210.649. The purpose of the project was to develop strategies to promote children’s physical activity from a municipal point of and to explore new forms of cooperation within this network of big cities. The main project outcomes were the issue of guidelines for European municipalities on children’s physical activity promotion and the establishment of an online database with the most effective practices.

2) the Greek Foundation for Research & Technology supported “S<sup>2</sup>-PORT” project which received a grant of € 230 576 by the EU. The project presented a holistic methodology for a healthy lifestyle through physical activity. Its main outcomes included the publication of support material for policy-makers regarding health-enhancing physical activity, the overview of best practice examples and the creation of a European Network for healthy ageing based on good practices.

The Greek participation to these projects could impact on the horizontal Europeanisation of the Greek policy for health and physical activity through mechanisms of mutual learning and networking.

Additionally, under the financial support of the same Preparatory Action, the Commission implemented a *Eurobarometer survey* on sport and physical activity (EC, 2010) with data collection from all Member-States including Greece, in order to further develop an evidence-based sports policy in the EU. In general, the involvement of Greece in corporate funding projects for sport and EU surveys can be perceived as a sign of Europeanisation.

In the context of an earlier *Health Programme (1996-2002)*, the University of Crete was granted a health promotion project with the title “EURODIET: Nutrition and diet for healthy lifestyles in Europe” (1998), which included issues for physical activity. Additionally, there was an outstanding Greek participation in the EU action programme for sport injuries (1999-



2003) regarding home and leisure accidents, where the Medical School of the University of Athens was granted five projects throughout the period.

The granted projects were:

- 1) “Collection and analysis of data on home and leisure accidents (HLA) in Greece” 1999, organised by the Centre for Research and Prevention of injuries among the young (CE.RE.PRI.), University of Athens Medical School Dept. Hygiene and Epidemiology,
- 2) “Preparation of the European Union candidate countries for contribution into the European database on home and leisure injuries; a feasibility study”, 1999, organised by the Hellenic society for social paediatrics and health promotion, Medical School of the University of Athens,
- 3) “Sport injuries in the EU countries in view of the 2004 Olympics: Harvesting the information from existing databases”, 1999, organised by the Centre for Research and Prevention of injuries among the young (CE.RE.PRI),
- 4) “Sports injuries in the EU countries in view of the 2004 Olympics: harvesting the information from existing databases (phase II)”, 2000, organised by the Centre for Research and Prevention of injuries among the young (CE.RE.PRI.).

Greece had an important role in EU injury prevention strategies related to health policy. In particular, the Centre for Research and Prevention of Injuries (CE.RE.PRI), Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, Medical School at the University of Athens was granted the responsibility of ‘Coordination and Administration (Secretariat) of the Working Party on Accidents and Injuries’ for the period 2004-2006, within the framework of the Public Health Programme (2003-2008). The Working Party on “*Accidents and Injuries*” (WP-AI) was operating for the period 2003-2008 providing safety-promotion and injury-prevention strategies. It functioned not only as a forum for discussion and exchange of information and experience on injury prevention, but it also provided advice and support to the European Commission and contributed to the development of a sustainable injury surveillance system (Injury Database). In 2007 the WP-AI was supervised by the EU Working Group on Injury Prevention and Safety Promotion. However, there is no information provided for the current participation of a governmental expert in this Group. This indicates a partial involvement in EU actions probably based on personal initiative of some key actors rather than on a national policy strategy.

The absence of a Greek sport body from the EU '*Platform for action on Diet, Physical Activity and Health*' shows that the level of national awareness on integrated actions for health, diet and physical education is still very low in Greece. In particular, the "Platform for Action on Diet, Physical Activity and Health" is an open and multi-stakeholder network membered by industry, NGO and consumer organisations that have been committed to carry out actions to reverse diet and physical activity trends. The 2008 Directory includes national contact points of the EU Platform for Action for providing information on initiatives and supporting cooperation between private and public actors in Member States. At national level, there is no public or governmental sport-related organisation listed. Additionally, there is no information provided from the Ministry of Health regarding the Greek participation in the High-level Group on Nutrition and Physical Activity, established in 2007, which deals with health issues such as the prevention of obesity and overweight. Consequently, there is no evidence of Greek involvement into a learning process at European level for actions on diet and physical activity.

The lack of Greek involvement in EU initiatives is also apparent in the EU study on '*Young People's Lifestyles and Sedentariness and the role of sport in the context of education as a means of restoring the balance*'. The study was mainly a national and European literature review on aspects of young people's nutritional behaviour and leisure lifestyle with special concern on physical activity in education. It was conducted in 2005 by a Research Consortium of experts from Member States in collaboration with leading national Universities. Yet, Greece did not get involved in providing research data and as a result the national information was based on generalized findings of other relevant researches. Maybe this is the reason why the findings of the study do not fully and truly represent the current Greek situation.

Nevertheless, the aforementioned EU study took a step forward for the promotion of sport as a determinant factor for a healthier lifestyle and led, in 2005, in the establishment of the *EU Working Group on 'Sport & Health'*. The aim of the group is to contribute to the exchange of information and best practices, and the integration of sport and physical activity into health and education policies with the intention to combat obesity and other diseases. Greece participated in the Group for the first time in May 2010 indicating that "*it is in the GSS plans to be placed between and participate in the forthcoming Working Groups for sport*"

(personal communication, political representative of GSS, March 17, 2010). This signified progress in Greek involvement in the EU.

One essential project of the EU Working Group on ‘Sport and Health’ and the Expert Group was the development of the ‘*EU Physical Activity Guidelines: Recommended Policy Actions in Support of Health-Enhancing Physical Activity*’ in 2008. Although, it is a non-binding document, it recommends a course of action for sport decision-makers in Member States at national, regional and local level in order to define and implement policies and practices for the promotion of citizens’ physical activity as part of people’s daily life. Greece is not represented in the Expert Group ‘*Physical Activity Guidelines*’ which is composed by 22 experts of all major geographical regions of the EU. However, Greece participated in the EU Sport Ministers’ meeting in Biarritz (2008), where the representatives endorsed the document. At national level, the General Secretariat of Sport and the Department of Physical Education in Ministry of Education have very little information or knowledge on the content of the Physical Activity Guidelines for action and, consequently, its recommendations have not been considered in the formation of the national strategy for sport and physical activity. So, one may say that the opportunity for transfer of policy and best practices is not being utilised from Greece.

At national level, the main measures to promote the health enhancement attribute of sport are the “Sport for All” Programme providing to the citizens opportunities for exercise and physical activity, and the Physical Education curriculum including one to three hours a week of exercise in all school grades (personal communication, representative of Sport for All, GSS, March 18, 2010). However, contrary to EU stance these measures present an indirect and less goal-oriented policy action for accenting the value of sport in the public health.

Until recently, there is hardly any evidence of common actions between the GSS and the Ministry of Health. An occasional governmental initiative was taken only in 2008 among the Ministries of Health, Culture (through the GSS) and Education organising a campaign for childhood obesity in the framework of a national Programme ‘Life has colour’ (personal communication, Ioannis Ioannidis, Deputy Minister, 2010). Nevertheless, such a joint action did not have a sequence and a long-time planning. However, it can be assumed that this national initiative was the product of a general tendency in European countries to deal with diet and nutrition issues through physical activity.

A sign of continuation in the national initiatives for health enhancing physical activity is the 'EY ZHN' Programme (meaning well-living) (EY ZHN, 2010). It is a significant national innovation for the promotion a healthy lifestyle and it is being implemented optionally since 2007 in schools of all levels of education, all over the country. Charokopio University of Greece is responsible for the Programme and it implements it in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Health. The main objective of the programme is to record and evaluate various students' health parameters for physical development and physical condition, the nutrition habits and the level of weekly physical activity for each student (EY ZHN, 2010). Beyond its contribution as a programme for school, EY ZHN also works as an e-platform for information, education, consultation and self-assessment on issues of health, physical activity and nutrition for students, parents and teachers. So, assessing this innovative Programme, it can be argued that Greece followed the EU guidance for health enhancing physical activity and for incorporation of these initiatives into the school society, revealing another dimension of Europeanising national practices.

In 2010, the Greek government<sup>38</sup> of PASOK proceeded to an institutional development for the interrelation of physical activity and health. Following the reshuffling of the Greek Government in September 2010, core responsibilities for sport were transferred from the GSS and broadly from the Ministry of Culture to the Ministry of Health. In detail, responsibilities, positions, and personnel from the Department of 'Sport for All' and the Department of 'Sport Development', including 'Sport for People with Disabilities' of GSS, were transferred to the Ministry of Health that was renamed Ministry of Health, Nutrition, and Sport (Gazette of the Greek Government, 2010a, PD 96/2010). This institutional change in the structure of sport at national level produced objections arguing that this has led to the dichotomy of sport and the demission of the role of the GSS in planning and implementing the national sport policy (personal communication, representative of GSS, 2010). From another point of view, it can be claimed that the Greek government is taking a step toward enhancing the social role of sport and indicating the benefits of sport and physical activity in improving health and preventing chronic diseases. Overall, the reallocation of sport competences could be explained as a national response to the EU approach for a joint policy regarding issues of

---

<sup>38</sup> The government was under the Presidency of George Papandreou, PASOK, and it was on power from 2009-2011.

physical activity, nutrition and health, bringing new opportunities for adjustment to EU recommendations.

### **7.2.2. Fight against Doping**

Sport organizations and Member States through their independent National Anti-doping organizations (NADO) in cooperation with the World Anti-doping Agency (WADA), are solely responsible for managing doping controls and issuing disciplinary sanctions in case of an anti-doping rule violation. The EU's role is mainly supportive, based on the Article 165-2 of the TFEU (International Olympic Committee, 2010). EU involvement in anti-doping issues is oriented to improve detection, prevention and education on anti-doping issues and to encourage the EU Council to adopt legislation or policies that are in accordance within the WADA Code and to strengthen their implementation with the aim of ensuring coordination among all relevant actors (International Olympic Committee, 2010). The EU coordinates the sharing of practices within the EU 'Anti-Doping' Working Group, promotes judicial and police cooperation within the EU on doping networks and trafficking and supports related research projects through EU funding programmes (International Olympic Committee, 2010). In general, as proposed in the White Paper on Sport, the European Commission is determined to implement anti-doping actions with the intention to add value and complement the actions of other actors at international, European and national level.

In order to support a network of national anti-doping organizations, the *EU Working Group 'Anti-Doping'* was established in 2008 and together with the Council of Europe it aims to adequately represent the position of Europe in the World Anti-Doping Agency. Greece regularly participates in this Working Group, indicating signs of cooperation and discourses. The key issues of discussion are data protection, aviation security, criminalisation of trade in doping substances, cooperation between accredited laboratories and pharmaceutical industries. According to a Greek representative, the Group is mainly dealing with issues of technical and legal concern while less attention is given to the social dimension of the phenomenon supporting research, education, information and consultation actions (personal communication, representative of the Greek Anti-doping Agency, GSS, March 17, 2010). From another point of view, its role should be more directed to prevention and to education instead of opposition and suppressive measures. Finally, according to the same representative, the national Anti-doping Agencies had higher expectations from the Working Group in facilitating the issue of sample transfer. This falls under the EC rule for aviation

safety regarding liquids (Official Journal of the European Union, 2003b, EC Regulation 622/2003).

The European Commission and European Parliament took an important EU initiative in the fight against doping by organising the first *EU Conference on Anti-Doping* in 2009. Its goal was to provide a forum of discussion and exchange of ideas among representatives of EU sport governmental authorities and key stakeholders involved in the fight against doping. Given that the conference was held in Athens, it offered Greece a great opportunity to promote the fight against doping and to boost discussions at governmental level as it constitutes a top priority in the national sport agenda. It is worth mentioning that the idea for the EU Conference in Athens was launched by the European Parliament (MEP Manolis Mavrommatis, personal communication March 7, 2010) in a period when the vice-chair president of the Committee of Culture and Education (2004-2009) was the Greek EP representative and rapporteur of the White Paper on Sport. This fact can imply an influence of key actors of EU institutions on national level and can be regarded as a facilitating factor of Europeanisation.

The results of the 2010 *'Preparatory Action in the field of Sport'* (EC, 2010) demonstrate that Greece did not participate in any of the 3 anti-doping granted projects. Consequently, it can be argued that Greek participation in joint actions and practices for the fight against doping is limited, indicating that the EU influence at national level is narrow in this field.

Trying to explain the above evidence, there is skepticism at national level regarding the value-added of the EU in anti-doping movement as the WADA governs the movement globally by setting unified standards for anti-doping work and coordinating the efforts of sports organizations and public authorities through the World Anti-doping Code (World Anti-doping Code, 2003). Additionally, at European level, the Council of Europe contributes to this direction with many actions, most importantly the organization of the Anti-doping Convention in 1989 which set standards for the adoption of legislative, financial, technical, educational and other measures. In line with the requirements of the World Anti-doping Code, Greece established a complete anti-doping legislation and is one of the few states that have specific disciplinary penalty for doping violations. According to article 128 Law 2725/1999, the National Council to Combat Doping (NCCD) is the highest ranking national body for anti-doping issues. The main role of the Council is to plan, monitor, control,

coordinate and implement actions and programmes for the prevention of doping at national level. NCCD cooperates with all international and national bodies and federations in order to coordinate and direct common actions in combating doping. Consequently, the structural advances in the national sport system are the result of a global guidance and strategy to combat doping rather than the outcome of Europeanisation.

### **7.2.3. Education and Training**

The European Union has shown great interest in the social and educational values of sport inside and outside the school curriculum, supporting the cooperation of sport organisations and educational institutes (European Commission, 2011). The European Commission supports innovative initiatives under the Lifelong Learning Programme related to physical activity at school and in cooperation with Member States it developed the European guidelines on combined sports training and general education (dual careers) and supports the inclusion of sport-related qualifications when implementing the European Qualifications Framework (European Commission, 2011). Generally, the Commission has emphasised the importance of ensuring that young high-level athletes are offered quality education in parallel to their sport training as well as the need for better-qualified staff in the sport sector (European Commission, 2011).

One of the actions the EU has taken to promote sport as a vehicle for formal and informal education is the proclamation of the 2004 as the *European Year of Education through Sport* (EYES 2004) (Official Journal of the European Union, 2003a, Decision No 291/2003/EC). The aim of this pilot project was to promote voluntary activities, students' mobility and exchanges through sport, social inclusion and the integration of sport in school and day-to-day life, encouraging partnerships between educational and sporting organisations at regional, national and international level. It is assumed that the year 2004 was chosen as it coincided with the hosting of major sport events in Europe such as the Olympic Games in Athens and the 'Euro' football tournament in Portugal. The Member States' designated bodies had the responsibility for coordination and local implementation of the actions taken. The Greek national coordinating body for EYES 2004 was the General Secretariat of Youth, which is an independent public office of the Ministry of Education.

Greek involvement in the EYES programme was outstanding as it was related to other national priorities associated with the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens. In accordance with

the 2004 European Year of Education through Sport, the European Commission and the Organising Committee of the Olympic Games in Athens (ATHOC) launched the initiative “Olympic Champions of Education”. Youth people from the participating countries to the EYES were hosted in the Olympic Youth Camp as a reward for their high-level sport and academic performance. Additionally, educational and sporting organisations as well as public authorities of Greece participated in eight Community projects for EYES, including one where Greece was the leading organisation, and four transnational, national, regional and local projects. Overall, the active participation of Greece in transnational educational and cultural workshops and projects for sport is a sign of Europeanisation.

Other educational opportunities through sport were launched under the *Lifelong Learning Programme* (LLP) 2007-2013, aiming at enhancing exchange, cooperation and mobility among educational and vocational systems within the Community so that they become a world quality reference (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006b, Decision No. 1720/2006/EC). LLP is divided into four sectorial sub programmes which are promoted through the White Paper of Sport as they can exploit the specificities of sport to achieve common goals;

- Comenius, for schools
- Erasmus, for higher education
- Leonardo da Vinci, for vocational education and training
- Grundtvig, for adult education.

The actions supported by the Programme are mobility, partnership, multilateral projects, networks and e-twinning. The programme budget is €6 970 000 000. The Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) is responsible for the management of the LLP under the supervision of the Directorate-General for Education and Culture (DG EAC). Each Member-State is responsible for decentralised actions. In Greece, the national agency for the implementation of the Programme is the Ministry of Education. The coordinating unit is the State Scholarship Foundation which is a decentralized public authority of the Ministry of Education.

In line with the concept of Europeanisation, the *Program Comenius* intends to create convergence in the educational policies, practices, values and preferences of the different educational institutions of Member-States. ‘Comenius’ refers to preschool and school



education and the institutions and organizations providing such education. The objective of this program is to support and promote the value of European culture to young people and teachers and to help young people acquire the basic knowledge necessary for personal development, future employment and be active European citizens.

Participation in educational opportunities through sport, which is an objective in the Comenius Programme, is promoted through the school networks. In the case of Greece, out of the 199 approved national projects for the year 2007, 6 included forms of sport and physical activity in their actions. They seek to promote a healthy lifestyle, exercise for people with disabilities and sport hobbies and play. In 2008, the approved projects were reduced to 121 but the projects related to sport increased to 7. In 2009, the total approved projects were 156 with 5 showing an interest in physical activity. Relatively, in 2010 the total number was 154 while sport was included in 10 projects, promoting play, healthy lifestyle and Olympic values and dancing. In 2011, 156 bilateral and multilateral school networks were approved where only 4 projects included sport and physical activity in the form of dance, play or game, entertainment and health-enhancing factor. Finally, in 2012 from the 262 approved school networks 15 included sport and physical activity while in 2013, the total number of the approved projects was 168 and only 6 had an interest in sport, physical activity and dancing as a means of health promotion, play and entertainment. According to the priorities of the Comenius Programme regarding school partnerships, the participation in educational opportunities is promoted through sport and physical activity, partly satisfying the social and educational goals of the White Paper on Sport. More specifically, the approved Greek projects support health through physical activity, education through sport, inclusion of people with disabilities and the fight against racism through sport, the promotion of multicultural dialogue and solidarity, the spread of Olympic values, the preservation of tradition and culture through folklore dancing. Through these projects, the interaction among Greek and other European participants generates shared values and culture, emphasising the assumption for the socio-cultural effects of Europeanisation.

Under the Comenius Programme, a successful partnership between Lithuania and Greek took place lasting from 2013-2016. The project is called ‘Social integration through sport’<sup>39</sup> and aims to share best practices on measures to increase children's physical activity. The areas of

---

<sup>39</sup> For more information about the project see the Erasmus+ selections results on <http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus->

discussion are: different programs in Lithuanian and Greek educational institutions, non-traditional forms of physical activity, interesting traditions of the Olympic education, sports bases, recreation spaces and their application to formal and non-formal education. In addition, seminars, workshops, sports events and e-Twinning project were running, indicating paths of mutual learning and exchange of ideas in social aspects of sport, which are the elements of the ‘policy transfer’ outcome of Europeanisation.

The *Erasmus programme* could be perceived as another instrument to promote learning opportunities, exchange of ideas and convergence among Member States’ institutions and practices, thus enhancing the mechanism of Europeanisation. ‘Erasmus’ refers to formal higher education and vocational education and training. The program aims to support the creation of a European higher education area and strengthen the contribution of higher professional training to promote innovation. According to the published data for Erasmus sub-programme for the period 2007-2008, 23 university students and 27 Professors transferred from Greek Universities’ Departments of Sport and Physical Education of to international educational institutes for studying or teaching purposes while no change was made for internships and staff training. Unfortunately, for the period 2009-2013, no other records have been published while access to this information was not feasible through telephone interviews due to the reluctance of Universities’ staff to support the research. However, it can be assumed that the programme, up to certain degree, bridges the European countries and their educational system enhancing the idea of European identity and European citizenship which are vital ingredients for Europeanisation.

Another opportunity for networking and cooperation is offered by the program *Leonardo da Vinci* which refers to vocational education and training, excluding higher education. The aim of the project is to offer training activities to facilitate personal development, employability and participation in the European labour market and to support improvements in quality and innovation. However, the data research for the implementation of the Programme in Greece, reveal that sport was not adequately promoted. In 2007 and 2008 the number of projects approved was 129 and 149 respectively, however only 2 of them referred to mobility for initial vocational training (IVT) in sport sector and especially in sport journalism and sport management. In 2009, there is a slight increase in the number of approved projects for

vocational training in areas that promote sport with 3 out of 69 projects, in which Greece participates in a partnership project that refers to sport instructors' skills in accordance with the European Qualification Framework (EQF). Yet the same cannot be supported for the years 2010 and 2011 as there was no integration of sport in any of the 132 and 127 approved projects respectively. However, in 2012, out of the 139 mobility projects, 1 was referring to sport nutrition in vocational training. Finally, in 2013, out of the 129 mobility projects, 3 referred to sport activity. Precisely, there was 1 project for mobility in initial vocational training (IVT) referred to the promotion of tourism through cultural events such as sport activities and 2 projects for mobility in Labour Market (PLM) referred to the organization and promotion of cycling cultural tourism and to practices for alternative tourism where sport could be involved. Overall, it is apparent that presence of sport in mobility for initial training (IVT) and for labour market (PLM) is limited, while sport was not included in any of the projects for vocational education training for professionals (VET professionals), partnerships and multilateral projects for transfer of innovation. Generally, it can be supported that the Leonardo Da Vinci Programme prepares the participant countries for the formulation of a new EU policy in education and training where sport can be included. In this case, although the degree of 'misfit' between Greek and EU education policy process appears quite high, Greece does not seem to have responded to EU pressures for integration of sport in training opportunities.

A great opportunity for boosting a European Identity and citizenship through cooperation is offered by the program *Grundtvig* which covers all forms of adult education. The Grundtvig program aims at promoting European cooperation in quality, innovation and European dimension in all areas of adult education. The research data for 'Grundtvig' shows a slight increase in projects that promote the development of knowledge and skills through/in sport for adults. Specifically, in the case of Greece, 3 out of 66 partnerships implemented in 2009 and 2 out of 90 partnerships implemented in 2010 included sports in their actions. Lastly, 56 applications were approved in 2011 for learning partnerships while 3 of them included sport and physical activity in their programme. In detail, the projects supported the integration of the social value of sport into the general education of adults by addressing their individual needs for lifelong learning and their educational needs as parents, elderly or members of marginalized groups. In 2012, none of the 78 learning partnerships were sport-related. Lastly, in 2013, 3 out of the 78 partnerships were related to health enhancing physical activity and volunteering in sport. Overall, according to the priorities of the Programme, the use of sport

to provide learning opportunities for specific categories of the population does not seem to be strongly promoted through the programme actions at national level. Although networking, cooperation, exchange of ideas and practices are useful tools to develop Europeanisation, there is a limited participation of Greek organisations in educational networks and workshops related to sport focusing only on the promotion of physical activities in the nature and on sport tourism.

In conclusion, the 'Lifelong Learning' Programme reveals that sport is used as a means of non-formal learning, social inclusion, promotion of cultural diversity, promotion of health and fight against violence and racism only at school age. Mobility in higher education (e.g. for internship), vocational training in sport and the improvement of knowledge and skills related to sport in adults are areas that have limited effects. It is evident that there is adequate Greek participation in decentralised projects related to physical activity. Yet, the same cannot be supported for the centralized projects of LLP where the selected Greek projects did not involve any sport-related activity lacking opportunities for exchange of ideas and policy transfer with other Member-States on sporting matters. However, according to the data collection, it is apparent that the LLP contributes notably to the promotion of the social and the educational role of sport in the Greek context, reflecting the policies, practices and preferences of European level actors.

In the post-Lisbon period, the Open Method of Coordination and the European funding programmes were the vehicles for exerting EU pressure for change (or 'learning') in the national education policies (see also Sarakinioti & Tsatsaroni, 2015), where sport and physical education is accommodated. In line with the goals of the Open Method of Coordination that is to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge, to spread best practices and to foster policy convergence, is the EU initiative for establishing the EU Working Group on 'Education and Training in Sport'. The EU Working Group was established in 2008 with the purpose of improving the legal and political framework and facilitate the exchange of experience among Member States and open discussion on issues such as the "dual career", sport and physical activity in school, the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) in the sport sector. Particularly, the European Commission encourages the young athletes to combine their sport career with education and professional training in order to be better prepared for their after sport-career life. Although Greece has a national legal framework for supporting elite athletes

(Gazzette of the Greek Government, 1999, article 34 Rule 2725/1999) there is disagreement regarding the exploitation of the full potential of these people in sport employment. According to the Rule, support to elite athletes may take the form of a financial grant, benefits and accommodations, entry to the Department of Physical Education and Sport or other university departments and employment in the public sector (most of the times irrelevant to sport). On this ground, even if the exchange of ideas and the policy transfer through networking in EU Working Group would be vital for Greece, the latter did not participate on this Group until recently, showing a tendency for delaying the process of Europeanisation.

The EU initiative to launch an independent study can be recognized as another means of discourse in the OMC. The independent *study on "training of young sportsmen/women in Europe"* launched in 2008 had the main purpose to create a network for the exchange of good practices in sport training in order to build on dual career opportunities for the elite athletes. In other words, this study provided young sportspeople with information regarding a new career once they retired from professional sports. Greece contributed to this research with sport and legal experts' representatives and with the provision of information from national sport associations through questionnaires or interviews. Regarding the issue of dual career, the Democritus University of Thrace in Greece participated as a partner in a project that promotes education and training in sport with the title " DC- SPORT: Dual Career for young athletes in Europe", granted by the *2009 Preparatory Action in the field of Sport* (max. EU grants €201.275) (EC, 2009). The aim of the project was to encourage and motivate cooperation in the sport field by developing suitable support and tools in order for young athletes to pursue a dual career. In general, it is apparent that Greece has been considerably involved in the exchange of good practices in sport training, which can be identified as the outcome of horizontal processes of Europeanisation.

In addition, under the Preparatory Actions and Special Events 2009-2013, Greece participated with a project promoting traditional European sports and games. In detail, the Public Benefit Organisation of the City of Kavala launched the project *'Europe is our playground'*, presenting ancient and traditional games, organising conference, workshops, school competitions, printing publications of traditional games and establishing a European playground network and other promotional activities. This Greek initiative can be referred as

a means to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge and to spread best practices, in order to achieve convergence towards EU goals.

The increasing mobility of sports professionals led to new initiatives in the field of vocational education and training aiming at recognising learning experiences across different countries and different types of institutions. The European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) promote a non-binding regional framework that links national qualifications systems to a common European reference level based on learning outcome. Regarding the European Commission (EC) recommendation to Member-States, Greece proceeded to public consultation in order to develop the national Qualification Framework (Ministry of Education, 2010) with a delay of two years in relation to other European countries. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) provides technical and analytical support to the EQF Advisory Group and carries out a number of comparative studies and analysis on issues related to the implementation of the framework at EU, national and sectoral level. It is important to mention that Cedefop headquarters sit in the city of Thessaloniki in Greece, and its personnel is composed by many Greek experts which indicates participation in European institutional structures. In brief, it seems that EU recommendations are generating small changes to the structures, the institutions and the perceptions of key sport actors at national level.

Funding opportunities often serve as mediating factors to involve Member States into networks and build on EU-level cooperation and dialogue on sport. Although it is outside of the time period under investigation for this research, it is important to mention some projects where Greece got involved. In 2003, Greece joined a project for improving employment in the field of sport in Europe through vocational training. The purpose of the project '*VOCASPORT: Vocational Education and Training related to Sports in Europe: Situation, Trends and Perspectives*' was to identify the trends and the gaps of current vocational training practices in the sport sector in Member-States, analyse the relationship between employment and vocational training and encourage the exchange of good practices in order to implement EU principles set in the Copenhagen Declaration at the national level. Greece contributed to this research by submitting a national report of the current situation of employment and vocational training in the Greek sport sector prepared by the Democritus University of Thrace, following a request of the General Secretariat of Sport. In addition, under the

programme '*Leonardo Da Vinci: Community Vocational Training Action Programme*' second phase 2000-2006, Greece implemented a project called 'Implementing the EQF in the Sports Sector'. The goal of the 'EQF-Sports' was to support a network of collaboration in the field of vocational education and training for all stakeholders in the sport sector. Thanks to the experience gained from other Community Programmes such as VOCASPORT and EQUAL (which will be discussed later in this section), the General Secretariat of Sport became a project-partner developing methodological tools on job description, competence framework and learning outcomes in the sport sector and providing guidance on principles for mapping the sport business activities and sport occupation. Through these projects, Greece collaborated into a European network, exchanging knowledge on practices of sport employment. The first signs of change in policy-making orientation, and in the beliefs and expectations of policy actors became apparent, hence there was some evidence of Europeanisation.

An essential national initiative in the area of sport was taken by the General Secretariat of Sport regarding the 'Sport for All' Programme. 'Sport grounds in the neighbourhood' is an innovative and pilot sport programme for young children, operating in sport facilities that belong to schools, municipal sport organizations or sport clubs, under the guidance of Physical Education Teachers. The goal of the programme is to offer young children the opportunity for physical activity within their neighbourhood in their leisure time adapting the principle for lifelong physical activity. It is organised by the GSS in cooperation with the School Committees, the Local Authorities and sport clubs. In general, it can be said that there is a convergence in the actions taken for the promotion of the social and educational aspects sport at national and European level.

Parallel to the national cross-thematic curriculum of education, innovative actions and pilot programmes for sport such as 'Olympic Education' and 'Kallipatira' have also been introduced. In view of the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens, the Ministry of Education implemented for the period 2000-2005 the programme of 'Olympic Education' in primary and secondary schools all over the country. The goal of the programme was to inspire and motivate students to adapt the principles and educational values of sport, Olympism and volunteerism. After the Olympic Games, the 'Olympic Education' was followed by the programme 'Kalipatira' which focused on the contribution of Physical Education to the equality within the Greek society and to the protection of human rights. The duration of this

programme was from 2005-2007 and it was funded from the 6th Community Support Framework. Additionally, since 1989 sport schools are included in the secondary education level with the goal to connect the school and amateurish sport and develop the dual status of the student-sport talent. In general, it cannot be proved if the national initiatives for sport are influenced by EU recommendations and Member States networking in the EU arena. However, there is a straight line in the policy strategy, goals and actions towards the promotion of the social and educational value of sport. This harmonisation implies convergence in policy-making for sport among Greece, the European Commission and other Member States.

The Department of Physical Education in the Ministry of Education is responsible for developing the curriculum of Physical Education at all levels of education, organising school sport championships and generally for regulating and operating the Physical Education and Sport Schools (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1985b, Rule 1566/85). At national level, Physical Education (PE) is compulsory at primary and secondary education level ranging from 1 to 3 hours per week. However, following the European Parliament Resolution on 'The role of sport in Education' (European Parliament, 2007), there is an intensive discussion between sport specialists, unionists and the government for increasing the weekly teaching hours of PE at compulsory education level and even introducing the physical education curriculum in the kindergarten (interview with the Director of Physical Education, Ministry of Education 13/4/2010). This argument indicates a negotiation and a process of change in the beliefs and values of the domestic key actors as a result of Europeanisation.

The Greek government of Nea Demokratia<sup>40</sup> led by Antonis Samaras, that came on power for the period 2012-2013, proceeded to another institutional change by restructuring the responsibilities of the Ministries relating to sport and physical activity. In detail, the Ministry of Culture was abolished and some of its responsibilities were transferred to the new Ministry of Tourism and others to the Ministry of Education, which was now renamed to Ministry of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport. Consequently, the responsibilities of the General Secretariat of Sport were transferred to the Ministry of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport. It can be argued that this was a step towards the enhancement of the social and educational value of sport and the integration of culture, sport and education. One may say

---

<sup>40</sup> The government was a coalition of the parties New Democracy, PASOK and DIMAR.



that this institutional change is in line with the recommendations of the White Paper on Sport, showing signs of europeanising the social aspects of Greek sport policy.

#### **7.2.4. Volunteering in Sport, active Citizenship and non-profit sport organisations**

The EU has highlighted the important role of volunteerism and active citizenship in the field of sport, as the organisation, administration and implementation of sport is mainly based on voluntary activities, thus it is supported by other EU policy areas. It is estimated that there are around 10 million volunteers active in about 700,000 sport clubs throughout the EU while in most countries sport constitutes one of the key areas of voluntary work (European Commission, 2011). This phenomenon together with the Member States' need for support on promoting voluntary sport structures in sport in a European context have led the EU to consider volunteering in sport in a more structured way. In brief, in the 2000 Nice Declaration, the European Council called on Member States to encourage voluntary services in sport by means of measures, acknowledging the economic and social role of volunteers (European Commission, 2011). Two years later EU Sport Ministers recognised in the 'Aarhus Declaration on Voluntary Work in Sport' the significant contribution of voluntary work to sport and its economic value. In 2004, EU Sport Ministers decided to put volunteering in sport among the key issues of the adopted 'EU Rolling Agenda for Sport' (European Commission, 2011). Finally, in 2006, the Ministerial Conference on sport agreed on the establishment of a Working Group 'Non-profit Sport Organisations' in order to deal with the specificities of the voluntary sport sector.

According to the Commission's strategic objectives and policies for solidarity and prosperity in the citizens of the EU, voluntary activities in the sport sector seem to be one of the means for strengthening social cohesion and inclusion and promoting active citizenship. Apart from the social value of voluntary activities, the economic impact of volunteering on human resources in employment is significant. In the following part, the study of Greek sport policy through the lenses of Europeanisation will demonstrate the influence of EU initiatives of volunteering and active citizenship on Member States.

In parallel with the socio-cultural aspects of Europeanisation, the *Programme 'Youth in Action'* (2007-2013), seeks to inspire young people a sense of European citizenship, to encourage their active participation in public life and generally to promote European cooperation in youth (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006a, Decision No

1719/2006/EC). The budget is estimated at €885 million. The Executive Agency Education, Audiovisual and Culture (EACEA) of the EU is responsible for the overall management of the programme. For decentralized actions, the National Service is designated to the Ministry of Education and the coordination unit is the General Secretariat of Youth.

Based on the results of the research in the case of Greece, the most important activities of the programme<sup>41</sup> that appear to promote sport and physical activity are: Action 1: ‘Youth for Europe’, particularly the ‘Youth Exchange’ (1.1) and ‘Youth Initiatives’ (1.2) and Action 2: ‘European Voluntary Service’, relating to volunteerism. Indeed, it is mentioned in the priorities of the programme that *"sport is utilized as a tool to promote active citizenship and social participation of young people and as a means to promote healthy lifestyles"* (European Commission, 2006). Greece, through the General Secretariat of Youth, has implemented a series of projects for youth, where sport-related activities are utilized as a means of promoting active citizenship and a healthy lifestyle. Specifically, sport is promoted in several actions contributing to non-formal education and social integration of people with particular disabilities, to health promotion, to combat doping, to encourage multiculturalism, to the protection of the environment etc. In 2007 from the 85 approved applications for Action 1. ‘Youth for Europe’, 4 applications were associated with sporting activity and in 2008 from the 88 approved applications, the actions that promoted sport increased to 5. In 2009 the total number of approved projects was decreased to 59, 7 of which contained some form of exercise or physical activity. In 2010 the approved applications decreased to 37 with a relative reduction in the promotion of sport in young people with only 2 projects. In 2012, from the 27 approved projects only 2 were submitted from sport-related organisations and had an interest in sport and physical activity. It should be noted however, that under the restrictions of Action 1. ‘Youth Exchange’ does not subsidise projects related to sports events,

---

<sup>41</sup> The Programme is structured around 5 Actions:

Action 1 – ‘Youth for Europe’ encourages young people's active citizenship, participation and creativity through youth exchanges, youth initiatives and youth democracy projects.

Action 2 – ‘European Voluntary Service’ helps young people to develop their sense of solidarity by participating, either individually or in group, in non-profit, unpaid voluntary activities abroad.

Action 3 – ‘Youth in the World’ promotes partnerships and exchanges among young people and youth organisations across the world.

Action 4 – ‘Youth Support Systems’ includes various measures to support youth workers and youth organisations and improve the quality of their activities.

Action 5 – ‘Support for European Co-operation in the Youth field’ supports youth policy co-operation at European level, in particular by facilitating dialogue between young people and policy makers.

The priorities of the Programme are: mobility, non-formal learning, participation of young people with fewer opportunities, social cohesion, linguistic and cultural diversity and active citizenship.

tournaments or leagues with competitive status. Instead, it supports actions that promote physical activity and sport as a social and cultural phenomenon.

According to the priorities of the 'Youth in Action' program guide of the EU, sport is one of the suggested topics for the implementation of a voluntary plan. In Action 2: 'European Voluntary Service', the voluntary participation through sport or in sport was limited but steady in the life-cycle of the program. In particular, at national level, the total number of actions related to volunteering in 2007 to 2013 ranged from 60 to 70 per year, while the actions that contained some form of physical activity were estimated around 2 to 3 per year. One project that introduced voluntary service in sport referred to volunteering in therapeutic horseback riding for people with disabilities. The work of the Greek organisation 'Citizens in Action' entitled 'Join the Wonderful Winning World of Special Olympics World Summer Games' (2010) is of particular significance. The organisation was granted €157.500 for the promotion and support of volunteering for the organization of Special Olympics hosted in Athens in summer 2011. This was a voluntary action that engaged 100 volunteers from different European countries to support the event. Therefore, in that case the social and educational dimensions of sport were promoted through voluntary projects for youth. In the case of Greece, the participation in transnational sport-related projects for youth exchanges and volunteering fosters the citizens' sense of community and the European identity.

Under the Youth in Action Programme, in 2013, Greece launched the project '*Active unit - social changes*' that is a youth exchange initiative among 7 countries, spreading information about EU opportunities for young people and empowering them to be active citizens of Europe. The aim of the project was to highlight the importance of health and physical activity in the development of healthy European citizens that means be physically active through sports that develop teamwork and trust with each other<sup>42</sup>. Team building activities were introduced as the main tool of education in order to build new skills and acquire knowledge and increase the ability to create projects tackling and solving the common community problems. It is noted that the project builds networks and identifies good practices in the field of sport promoting the social and educational dimension of sport, aiming at exerting pressure on national sport policies.

---

<sup>42</sup> See more about the project in <http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/projects/eplu-project-details->

The Programme *'Europe for Citizens'* (2007-2013), supported activities and organizations that promote active citizenship and contributed to European integration by promoting European citizenship, European identity and intercultural dialogue (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006c, Decision No 1904/2006/EC). It responded to the need to improve citizen's participation in the construction of Europe and encouraged cooperation between citizens and their organisations from different countries in order to meet, act together and develop common ideas in a European context. The program budget amounted to €215 million. It was implemented by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) under the supervision of the European Commission, In Greece the Ministry of Interior has been designated as the National Agency for the coordination of the Programme. As the EC recommends, European sport organizations can obtain financial support or support for transnational project through actions that develop networks, promote volunteerism, and encourage the mutual understanding of different cultures.

Among a variety of actions<sup>43</sup>, the ones that support physical activity and sport are: Action 1. 'Active citizens for Europe', which involves citizens directly, either through activities linked to town-twinning or through other kinds of citizens' projects, and Action 2: 'Active civil society in Europe', which is targeted at Europe-wide civil society organisations, receiving either structural support on the basis of their work or financial support through trans-national programmes. The results show that Greece does not promote the social dimension of sport in achieving the priorities of the Programme 'Europe for Citizens' which is intercultural dialogue, active citizenship and the promotion of basic social values. Greek participation is average in Action 1: 'Active citizens for Europe' in particular through twinning projects. However sport bodies or agencies do not seem to be involved. Moreover, twinning through the internet, allows exchanges of experiences on issues of common interest such as sport. Although non-profit sport organizations could have joined the initiatives of civil society (Action 2) in order to raise awareness, seek solutions to specific issues of sport interest and

---

page/?nodeRef=workspace://SpacesStore/10fc143c-aa82-48b5-93dd-4f3eeca074a7

<sup>43</sup> - Action 1 "Active citizens for Europe" involves citizens directly, either through activities linked to town-twinning or through other kinds of citizens' projects.

- Action 2 "Active civil society in Europe" is targeted to Europe-wide civil society organisations, receiving either structural support on the basis of their work programme or support trans-national projects.

- Action 3 "Together for Europe" supports high visibility events, studies and information tools, addressing the widest possible audience across frontiers and making Europe more tangible for its citizens.

- Action 4 "Active European Remembrance" supports the preservation of the main sites and archives associated with the deportations and the commemoration of the victims of nazism and stalinism.

promote volunteering in sport as an element of active citizenship, this did not happen. Limited Greek participation in the programme demonstrates that the idea of promoting European identity and European Citizenship through sport remains undeveloped in the beliefs and attitudes of the Greek society, showing a weak 'Europeanisation effect'.

Greece participated in an EU study for volunteering, launched by the European Commission in 2009, which included a section for sport. The aim of the study was to indicate the legal, organisational, economic and funding framework of volunteering of all EU Member States and outline the challenges and trends in the sector in order for EU to be better prepared for future actions on this area. In this study, Greece participated in a series of interviews with national departments and sport organizations. The participant organisations were the General Directorate for the Valorisation of the Olympics and the General Secretary for Sport from the Ministry of Culture, the 'Special Olympics 2011', the 'Athens Olympic Games 2004', the Volunteers during the Athens 2004 Olympic Games and the Galanis Sports Data company. The study demonstrates that there was no Greek national strategy or framework for volunteering in sport. Moreover, the recommendations of the White Paper on Sport were not met by national level initiatives in the same direction. It is reported that although volunteering in major sport events is rising in recent years, it cannot be claimed that volunteering is a priority in the sport policy agenda of recent governments in Greece, contrary to EU recommendations.

Additionally, the low interest of Greece on volunteering issues is also apparent in the lack participation in relevant EU networks and programmes. One such example is the EU Working Group 'Non-Profit Sport Organisations', established in 2006, aiming at analysing and identifying possible solutions for issues such as the qualification, training and recognition of volunteers in sport and the support of non-profit sport organizations. Moreover, one of the priority themes of the 2010 '*Preparatory Action in the field of Sport*' was volunteering in sport, supporting 4 transnational projects with a total amount of €6.800.000 EU grant. The aim of these projects was to use the experience in supporting volunteering in order to define best practices and to disseminate them at European level. Greece did not get involved in any of these projects. It can therefore be argued that Greece is missing opportunities of

---

The programme's priority areas are: promoting participation and democracy at the EU level; the future of the Union and its basic values, intercultural dialogue, employment, social cohesion and sustainable development, and boosting awareness of the societal impact of EU policies.

networking and common strategy setting for volunteerism at European level, showing slow response to Europeanisation mechanisms.

The main national organisation that could be considered responsible for volunteering in sport is the General Secretariat for Sport, which seems to have a hands-off approach on this issue. This approach is also confirmed by the fact that although there is a “Volunteerism Office” in the organizational chart of the GSS, it is not in operation (personal communication, representative of GSS, 2011). At national level, a recent joint initiative for promoting volunteerism was taken by the General Secretariat of Youth and the Department of Higher Education of the Ministry of Education. The purpose is to promote the Volunteering Programme for the 2011 Special Olympics, to form policies and procedures for participation incentives and to submit proposals to new EU programmes on Volunteering. This initiative was in line with the 2011 ‘European Year of Volunteerism’ leading to new opportunities in the sport field. However, it is evident that Greece lacks a volunteering umbrella organisation for sport that would promote concentrated actions or campaigns and would represent the country at European level, emphasizing the great ‘misfit’ between national and European sport structures.

#### **7.2.5. Social inclusion, integration and equal opportunities**

Sport has a major potential as a tool for promoting social inclusion and social cohesion in European societies. The EU has addressed the important role of sport in gender equality and in the integration of people with disabilities and of disadvantaged group, including sport activities in other policies actions. In detail, through the European Disability Strategy, EU aims at promoting the participation of people with disabilities in European sporting events as well as the organisation of disability-specific events, in particular through supporting transnational projects and networks while it contributes to the development and dissemination of standards and research for accessibility of sport, leisure and recreation organisations, activities, events and venues. In addition, the EU supports women's access to leadership positions in sport and access to sport for women in a disadvantaged position through transnational projects. Overall, it is apparent that the EU urges the full exploitation of the potential of sport as an instrument for social inclusion in the policies, actions and programmes of the European Union and Member States.

Under the Open Method of Coordination of the European Union, the 2006-2008 '*National Reports on Strategies for Social Protection and Social Inclusion*' highlight the importance of participation in sport activities as a means to prevent and tackle social exclusion of children and to promote the integration of immigrants and social inclusion of ethnic minorities (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f). Moreover, several Commission activities for disabled persons have involved sport such as the 2003 '*European Year of People with Disabilities*' which financed sports events and the 2004 '*European Year of Education through Sport*', which funded several projects on the integration of people with disabilities. In December 2013, the EU Conference on gender equality in sport, held in Lithuania, called sport stakeholders and expert Groups to propose a strategy on gender equality in sport with concrete measures. For the period 2007-2013, the European Commission suggested Member-States to participate in actions promoting social inclusion through sport and combating discrimination in sport through the EU programmes '*Progress*', '*Lifelong Learning*', '*Youth in Action*' and '*Europe for Citizens*'.

In accordance with the Social Agenda, '*Progress*' (2007-2013) is a European programme for the financial support of the objectives of EU in the sector of employment, social solidarity and gender equality (Official Journal of the European Union, 2006c, Decision No. 1672/2006/EC). The priorities of the programme are employment, social cohesion, favourable working conditions, combating discrimination and gender equality. The recommended actions support research, studies, statistics, awareness and dissemination of best practices, collaborative networks, etc. The cost of the programme is estimated at €743 500 000 for the seven-year period. The actions of the Programme are centralised and are implemented by the Directorate General Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities (DG EMPL) of the EC. The Ministry of Employment and Social Protection has been appointed as the national coordinating body of the Programme.

'Progress' can support activities that promote social inclusion through sport, combat discrimination in sport, create jobs in the sport market and contribute to economic growth. However, sport-related activities are not included in the national projects for 'Progress' implying that Greece has not yet realized or exploited the attribute of sport in order to build on social cohesion. Examining the domestic change as a result of EU pressures in the field of sport, it is apparent that the *absorption* and integration of European initiatives into domestic sport-related institutions is delayed, showing slow progress towards Europeanisation.

The 2009 *'Preparatory Action in the field of Sport'* had under its priorities the promotion of the European fundamental values of sport for persons with disabilities and the promotion of gender equality in sport. Regarding the first theme, among the two funding transnational projects, Greece got involved as a partner in the project 'All for sport for all: The European Observatoire of Sport and Employment (EOSE) and the European Paralympic Committee (EPC)', through the General Secretariat of Sport and the Hellenic Paralympic Committee. The maximum EU grant for the project was €150.000 and its goals were to map the situation in the disability sport sector, provide information and recommendations for aligned activities, identify the stakeholder groups involved in disability sport at the European level and provide them with a platform for exchange on future development. Regarding the priority theme for gender equality in sport, Greece did not participate in any of the three projects. The promotion of social inclusion in and through sport was among the priority areas for the 2010 *'Preparatory Action in the field of Sport'* which granted 5 transnational project, yet Greece did not benefit through participation. Overall, in line with the opportunities of the OMC, it is vital that Greek sport governmental and non-governmental organisations participate in EU discourses for the promotion of social inclusion through and in sport which could lead in the long-term in national sport policies convergence at European level.

In the framework of the 2010 *'European Year for Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion'* (Official Journal of the European Union, 2008, No 1098/2008/EC), Greek participation in the EU initiatives was limited. The Ministry of Employment and Social Protection, which was the National Executive Agency responsible for implementing the 'National Programme' in the light of the 2010 European Year, asked the General Secretariat of Sport to comment on the National Programme of the 2010 European Year. During the consultation process, it was highlighted that sport was under-represented in the actions to combat social exclusion. In the same year, a new *'EU Working Party on social inclusion and equality'* was established. Its goal was to facilitate exchange of experiences and good practises between Member States in the fields of sport for people with disability, gender equality and sport, social inclusion and migrants, and discrimination. The participation of Greek sport policy actors in the Working Party seems to have been occasional but still significant for the dissemination of practices and policy initiatives in this area of social integration through sport, which can be considered an instrument of Europeanisation.



The Greek involvement in EU programmes against discrimination and inequalities was noteworthy. From 2000 to 2006 the European Commission ran the programme 'EQUAL' which was an EU initiative for the integration and incorporation of new approaches in the employment policy. The 'EQUAL' promoted the transnational cooperation among the Member States in order to favour the exchange of ideas and best practices. In the field of sport, Greece implemented the national project 'Using Sport to open business' (2002-2004), as part of the 'EQUAL' Programme. The main beneficiary was the Greek Organisation for Football Prognostics (OPAP SA), joined by 15 sport organisations and sport universities as partners, and Italy as international partner. The goal of the project was to promote business and employment opportunities for disadvantaged groups, such as young unemployed, through practices for the identification of new job occupations for self-employment in the sport sector. The results presented that 18 new sports subjects were introduced in the curricula of sport universities and 19 new businesses and 70 jobs were identified in the sport employment. Ultimately, the inclusion of the sport sector in its actions to promote integration and social inclusion in employment opportunities was a sign of progress for Greece. However, no special attention was given for equal access to people with disabilities, immigrants or other vulnerable social groups, which are in the EU political line for sport.

Greece failed to be involved in the EU "*Experts' meeting on equal opportunities through and in sport*", held in 2005. The aim was to promote the exchange of good practices for issues of gender equality and the integration of people with disabilities through sport and, more importantly, to present recommendations for actions at EU level. Although, Member-States were encouraged to participate in the meeting and reply to a questionnaire describing the current situation at national level, Greece was not the only EU country that remained uninvolved. Therefore, the lack of domestic response to EU initiatives can be explained as a "soft-law" (weak) kind of Europeanisation.

The Greek Presidency of the EU Council of Ministers encountered challenges in the field of sport. The 2003 '*European Year of people with disabilities*' (Official Journal of the European Union, 2001b, Decision 2001/903/EC) coincided with the Greek Presidency in 2003, while at the same time Greece was preparing for the 2004 Olympic and Paralympics Games. Under these circumstances, Greece took the initiative to organise an EU seminar for people with disabilities in sport in 2003, with the aim to promote sport against discrimination and social exclusion safeguarding the principles of social cohesion and solidarity.

Needless to say, Greece has taken important steps in providing equal opportunities for sport and physical activity to people with disabilities. First of all, the organization of the 2004 Paralympics Games and the preparation for the 2011 Special Games not only have influenced decision-makers perception that these people have equal rights but also they have taken into account their needs in the development of sport infrastructure. Additionally, the State has included special measures for people with disabilities in the national sport policy. The state provisions to elite athletes are equal without discriminating the athletes with disabilities. Specialised instructors are employed in schools to teach Physical Education to students with special needs. Additionally, 4 national Federations and many sport clubs for people with disabilities are funded from the GSS, as well as a respectable grant was given for the Special Olympics 2011. These athletes participate in national or international sporting events, under the supervision of the Hellenic Paralympics Committee. Finally, the employment and volunteering of people with disabilities in the sport sector are apparent in the organization of major sporting events such as the Paralympics and the Special Olympics in Athens and in the relevant Federations or sport clubs. It can be supported that the efforts to integrate people with disabilities in sport are remarkable but definitely not sufficient (personal communication, Kourtelakou, GSS, Special Sport, March 3, 2010). Overall, in Greece, there has been a wide change in values, principles and beliefs regarding people with special needs. It may be assumed that this “learning” process is supported by EU norms for people with special needs.

In line with the EU recommendations for gender issues, men and women are equally represented in the Greek sport sector. For instance, the percentage of female personnel in the GSS is very high and many of these women occupy high positions (unpublished records, GSS). The same can be supported for the female staff of the Organising Committee of the Olympic Games and the Special Olympics, while it is outstanding that in both cases the president was a woman. Additionally, women participation in the ‘Sport for All’ Programme exceeds the number of men (unpublished records, GSS).

National sport policy has formed measures for the provision of sport opportunities to the public. The Programme ‘Sport for All’ aims at the cultivation of lifelong sport habits and behaviors and the exploitation of the leisure time for the participants. The programmes include sport and physical activities for pre-school age, children, teenagers, adults, elderly

and people with special needs. It is apparent that the programme is not goal-oriented in the promotion of social inclusion however the impact of sport and physical activities on social integration is indirect but significant. In 2000, GSS ran occasionally an operational project for vulnerable social groups such as Roma and repatriates (personal communication, Director of Sport for All, GSS, Vassilis Kakkos, March, 2010). As long as these projects achieved their goal for integration into social activities such as sport, they stopped operating with the expectation that these groups of people would continue exercising in the sport provisions for the general public (personal communication, representative of 'Sport for All' GSS, March 18, 2010).

The Department 'Sport for All' operates in the GSS with the objective to research, plan, promote, implement, supervise, support and fund the Programmes 'Sport for All' for all social groups in the country (Gazette of the Greek Government, 1999, Art.39, par. 1, Law 2725/1999). At local level, Municipalities operate the programmes through the Organisations for Youth and Sport. With the Rule 3057/2002, there has been a shift in responsibilities and financial recourses from central to local authorities, offering greater opportunities for innovation and operational actions at national level (of the Greek Government, 2002). In particular, the local authorities plan and implement the programmes while the GSS supports and mainly co-funds. Overall, the reallocation of resources, as a result of the structural change, can be perceived as an outcome of Europeanisation.

'Sport for All' Programme, is a Greek model for the development of sport, running from 1983, and it constitutes a national initiative with national funding and planning. The interview illustrates that there was no direct EU influence on the Greek legislation or measures for 'Sport for All'. However, given the fact that Greece constantly participates in numerous European and international fora for the sport movement and the social function of sport, it is believed that there must be an indirect impact on people's perceptions through the exchange of ideas and discourse.

#### **7.2.6. Prevention of and fight against racism and violence in sport**

Within the context of cooperation and open dialogue with Member-States and the international sport movement, European Commission contributes to the prevention of incidents of violence and racism in the field of sport. The exchange of best practices in legal instruments, the cooperation in law enforcement services, the organization of conferences and

discourses and the inclusion of sport in EU programmes are some of the EU actions for combating violence in sport.

Especially in the case of football, the European Commission has actively promoted the development of improved violence prevention for international sporting events, establishing common standards on safety and public order through the exchange of experience and best practice between the Member States (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f). Besides, the Council Decision 2002/348/JHA (Official Journal of the European Union, 2002) introduced binding obligations on the establishment of national football information points in order to enhance cooperation and information exchange between police forces and other relevant authorities combating football-related violence (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f). Moreover, under the coordination of the Council, regular expert meetings were organized in order to deal with hooliganism in sport. In general, the future EU policy development for the violence in sport is based on law enforcement and prevention in close cooperation with all the stakeholders, such as FIFA, national federations, clubs and supporters' associations (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f).

Regarding racism and xenophobia, the Member States agreed in 2007 on the Framework Decision on Combating Racism and Xenophobia, recommended by the EC. The purpose of the Framework Decision was to “*approximate Member States' legislation and to ensure that racism and xenophobia are punishable in all Member States by effective, proportionate and dissuasive criminal penalties*” (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f). Finally, another EU initiative was the establishment of the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC) which was replaced in 2007 by the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) with the goal to tackle racial discrimination, xenophobia and intolerance (Commission of the European Communities, 2007f).

In terms of the EU funding programmes, except from the ‘Youth in Action’ and ‘Europe for Citizens’ Programme, EU recommended other programmes for the protection of human rights for children, youth, women and other victims of high risk and the fight against violence, crime, racism and xenophobia. Greece made limited use of the first two Programmes for the promotion of the value of sport. However, there is no record of Greek involvement related to sport in the ‘*DAPHNE III*’, the ‘*Fundamental Rights and Citizenship*’ and the ‘*Prevention and Fight against Crime*’ Programmes.

The ‘Daphne’ and the ‘Fundamental Rights and Citizenship’ are two Programmes that perform under the General Programme ‘*Fundamental Rights and Justice*’ managed by the DG of Justice of the European Commission and have a great interest in sport as they combat violence and racism and thus improve the overall level of well-being in the EU. On the one hand, ‘*Daphne Programme*’ (2007-2013) (Official Journal of the European Union, 2007a, Decision No.779/2007/EC) aims to prevent violence against children, youth and women on the societal level and to create cooperation and action at the state level. It has a budget of €116 580 000. On the other hand, the *Programme ‘Fundamental Rights and Citizenship’* (2007-2013) (Official Journal of the European Union, 2007b, Decision No. 2007/252/JHA), aims at promoting the development of European society respecting human rights, helping combat racism and xenophobia, fostering interculturality and tolerance and developing collaborative networks between legal, judicial and administrative authorities. It has a budget of €93 800 000.

Although ‘Daphne’ Programme can support action for combating violence in sport through dissemination of information, knowledge and best practices, awareness raising actions, educational materials, networks and studies, none of the awarded projects was related to the phenomenon of violence in the area of sport. According to the results, for the period 2007-2008, Greece participated in only 1 of the 41 awarded projects of the ‘Daphne’ Programme. In 2008-2009 the participation increased to 6 out of 43 awarded projects and in 2009-2010 the participation was stable with 6 out of 82 awarded projects. For the years 2011 and 2012 the Programme merged to one period and from the 70 projects Greece participated in 6 while in 2013 Greece participated in 7 out of 27 awarded project. Despite the quite high participation of Greece as a partner or coordinator body in the above Programme, sport was not a prime issue in any of the Greek projects. Instead, the core themes of the projects were dealing with bullying, children abuse, sexual violence, domestic violence and immigrant racism.

The ‘Fundamental Rights and Citizenship’ Programme supports actions to combat racism through sport or in the field of sport. Greek participation in this programme was quite low with 0 out of 18 awarded projects for the year 2007-2008, 2 out of 33 projects for the period 2008-2009 and 3 out of 49 projects for the period 2009-10. However, for the two year-period 2011 and 2012 Greece participated in 4 out of 75 projects and in 2013 the number was 3 out

of 21 awarded projects. Although participation was increasing, again the fight against racism in sport was not in the goals of the projects where Greece was involved. One may say that although the Programme offered funding opportunities for sport, domestic actors seemed reluctant to adapt to “*changing opportunity structures*” which is a mechanism of Europeanisation (Knill and Lehmkuhl, 1999).

In Greece, the concept of prevention against phenomena of violent behavior in the sport courts was firstly introduced in the national sport policy in 1975 (Rule 75/1975). The Rule 2725/1999 (Article 41) adapts preventive measures, including social and educational intervention and establishes the ‘Standing Committee to Combat Violence’ (SCCV). The SCCV is the paramount body of the State for the prevention of violence in sport and its role is to study the phenomenon, consult the apposite bodies for the extent of the phenomenon and the required measures and initiate campaigns and educational seminars against violence, in order to cultivate a fair play spirit. The SCCV cooperates with other relevant bodies such as the Police, the Justice, the GSS, National Sport Federations, Organisers of Games and sport Clubs and it represents the country to the relevant Standing Committee for the fight against violence in the Council of Europe. Modifications in the legislation for the violence in sport (Rule 3057/2002, 3372/2005, 3708/2008 and 4049/2012) introduced martinet penalties for the violators and sanctions for the Sport Clubs, broader responsibilities for the Committee, abolition of Fans Associations and establishment of Fans Club and the introduction of the named tickets and the electronic surveillance of sport venues. However, instead of being an action-oriented and executive body the SCCV is restricted to a consultative role certifying the applicability of prevention and safety measures for conducting a game. Overall, it can be assumed that the national sport policy is following some structural developments in order to converge with European standards in combating violence in sport.

Another national initiative was the constitution of a Ministers’ Committee (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 2008, Law 3708/2008, Article 9) for the prevention against violence in sport with the role of monitoring, controlling and coordinating the implementation of the relevant measures, generating proposals and other initiatives for combating the phenomenon. In general, the current situation in professional sport demonstrates that, although Greek sport policy has a complete legal base for the prevention of violence, the regulations are ineffective or are not sufficiently implemented. In line with this research, it cannot be proved if the

“*administrative arrangements*” in the Greek sport policy against violence are a result of Europeanisation or a result of the national decision-making system.

Regarding the issues of racism and xenophobia, there is a lack of a unified State action. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, the ‘Sport for All’ Programme indirectly contributes to “*bringing people together*” through sport activities (personal communication, representative of ‘Sport for All’, GSS, March 18, 2010). So, one may say that there is a poor EU influence on national actions for tackling racism in and through sport.

### **7.2.7. Supporting sustainable development**

Sport and leisure are in close interaction with the environment. Sport infrastructures, sport facilities, outdoor sport activities and special events are some examples that reveal that sport is part of the environment and influences the environment. Thus, European sport stakeholders should adopt environmental objectives in order to make their sport activities environmentally sustainable. The Commission recommends to “*promote environmentally sound management, fit to address inter alia green procurement, greenhouse gas emissions, energy efficiency, waste disposal and the treatment of soil and water*” (European Commission, 2007a). Additionally, the use of structured dialogue and cooperation among Member-States and EU could lead to the promotion of green procurement, awareness and guidance for sustainable development is sports and partnerships at regional level for organising sustainable sport events. Besides, another EC goal is to promote environmental actions through sport, to improve environmental performance of sport and to influence Member States through structured dialogue and cooperation to develop their policies and businesses accordingly. A subsidiary EU initiative for sustainable development that could have an application in sport is the ‘LIFE+ Programme’ (Official Journal of the European Union, 2007c, Regulation No. 614/2007) and especially its part on ‘Information and Communication’.

The *Programme ‘LIFE +’* (2007-2013)<sup>44</sup> intends to support financially the development and implementation of European policies and rules in the environmental field and has a budget of €2 143 000 000. This program action is centralized and managed by the European

---

<sup>44</sup> The “Life+” Programme comprises three components:

- LIFE+ Nature & Biodiversity
- LIFE+ Environment Policy & Governance
- LIFE+ Information & Communication

Environment Agency while the Greek Ministry of Environment, Energy and Climate Change is responsible for the promotion and coordination of the Programme at national level.

The Action 'LIFE+ Information & Communication' co-finances projects that implement communication and awareness raising campaigns on nature protection and preservation of natural wealth. In this action, sport can be included as a form of outdoor activity and sports in nature and can be incorporated in projects that promote communication and dissemination of information. Until 2010 Greece participated in this action with three projects, yet the potential of the programme to promote the value sport and physical activity in nature was not exploited. While the programme provides a new policy initiative for the integration of sport in environmental matters, national institutions do not seem to '*imitate*' European initiatives, which is a mechanism of EU adjustment pressures (Schmidt, 2002).

Apart from the EC sport-related programmes, Greek involvement in the EU consultation for sport issues should be addressed. In the period April-June 2010, the Sport Unit of the European Commission conducted an 'Online Consultation on Sport' in order to identify the citizens' opinion on EU sport policy and obtain input for its future work after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. It was an open-public process addressed to organisations and citizens with an interest in sport. In Greece, the GSS was prompted to get involved in the consultation process, filling the questionnaire and posting the on-line consultation on its official website encouraging all interested national organisations and individuals to participate. Similarly, the GSS participated in an internet-based 'consultation for the White Paper on Sport' in 2007. This degree of domestic involvement in the formation of an EU policy framework for sport can be perceived as another aspect of Europeanisation.

Concluding, this part of the thesis has presented the EU involvement in the social aspects of sport policy and particularly it commented on the integration of sport-related actions in policies related to health, education, anti-doping, social inclusion, fight against violence and racism and environment. Most significantly, it analysed Greek sport policy in the aforementioned areas of public policy and it critically argued on the prospects of EU impact at national level based on the key theoretical assumptions of Europeanisation. The next section will provide a broader analytical discussion regarding the Europeanisation effect on Greek sport policy emphasising the prospect of change in the institutional structures, the



administrative arrangements and especially the actors' beliefs and values due to indirect EU pressures.

### **7.3. The European Influence on Greek sport policy**

According to a European Parliament research on the EU sport policy (Halleux, 2015b), *“it is still too early to gauge the impact of the EU sport policy-making in sport”*, especially since some of the outcomes and incentive measures still need to be implemented and evaluated. However, if sport can be approached as an area with great decision-making interest at European and national level, then this study can provide some useful insights on the current impact of the EU on Greek sport policy-making. Additionally, until a few decades the perception of sport policy at EU level was confined to the regulation of sport as an economic activity with greater emphasis on professional football. However, following the recent recognition of the cultural and educational value of sport, EU actions have been taken towards that direction. These factors further complicate the hypothesis of this study.

#### **7.3.1. The Greek sport policy agenda**

At this point of the study, it would be important to present the developments in the national ministerial framework and the priorities of the national policy agenda for the social and educational function of sport as formed under the various governments in power over the period 2007-2013. This data will be checked against the EU directions for sport policy-making and the outcomes of the comparison will be used to demonstrate if and at what level Greece is in a process of Europeanising its national sport policy. First of all, reviewing the political and economic challenges in Greece over the last few years, it is worth noting that the ruling government party was changing almost every two years. This resulted in Ministerial and administrative changes as well as in reforms of the national sport policy strategy. The table below (Table 5) illustrates the allocation of sport competences under different Ministries, the renaming of the Ministries and the Ministry's hand-over to different political party actors over time. It is apparent that within a period of seven years, the governmental composition changed six times which means that political actors and their duties were switching, their work was not continuous but interrupted and as a result the national sport policy strategy was unstable or too short-lived to bring results. At the same time, the representation of the national sport leadership at EU level was not steady.

Table 5: Allocation of Sport competences in the framework of the various governmental schemes in the period 2007-2013.

<b>Period of Command</b>	<b>Ministry responsible for sport</b>	<b>Minister</b>	<b>Deputy Minister responsible for sport</b>	<b>General Secretariat of Sport</b>	<b>Presidency of the Government</b>
19 Sept 2007 - 8 Jan 2009	Ministry of Culture	Michalis Liapis	Giannis Ioannidis	Stavros Douvis	Konstantinos Karamanlis ND
8 Jan 2009 - 7 Oct 2009	Ministry of Culture	Antonis Samaras	Giannis Ioannidis	Stavros Douvis	Konstantinos Karamanlis ND
7 Oct 2009 - 11 Nov 2011	Ministry of Culture and Tourism	Panos Geroulanos	George Nikitiadis	Panagiotis Mpitsaksis	George Papandreou PASOK
	Ministry of Health, Nutrition, and Sport	Andreas Loverdos	Christos Aidonis	Panagiotis Mpitsaksis	George Papandreou PASOK
11 Nov 2011 - 17 May 2012	Ministry of Culture and Tourism	Panos Geroulanos	George Nikitiadis	Panagiotis Mpitsaksis	Loukas Papadimas
17 May 2012 – 21 Jun 2012	Ministry of Culture and Tourism	Tatiana Karapanagioti	Giannis Ioannidis	Panagiotis Mpitsaksis (resigned in 2012)	Pikrammenos (operational government)

21 Jun 2012 – 25 Jun 2013	Ministry of Education, Religion, Culture and <b>Sport</b>	Konstantinos Arvanitopoul os (Deputy Minister) Kostas Tsavaras	Giannis Ioannidis	Kiriaki Giannakidou	Antonis Samaras ND, PASOK, DIMAR
25 Jun 2013 – 9 Jun 2014	Ministry of Culture and <b>Sport</b>	Panos Panagiotospou los	George Andianos	Kiriaki Giannakidou	Antonis Samaras ND, PASOK
9 Jun 2014 – 25 Jan 2015	Ministry of Culture and <b>Sport</b>	Kostas Tasoulas	George Andianos	Kiriaki Giannakidou	Antonis Samaras ND,
27 Jan 2015- 22 Sept 2015	Ministry of Culture, Education and Religion	Aristidis Mpaltas	Stavros Kontonis	Ioulios Sinadinos	Aleksis Tsipras – SIRIZA, ANEL
22 Sept 2015 – 5 Nov 2016	Ministry of Culture and <b>Sport</b>	Aristidis Mpaltas	Stavros Kontonis	Ioulios Sinadinos	Aleksis Tsipras – SIRIZA, ANEL
5 Nov 2016 - present	Ministry of Culture and <b>Sport</b>	Lydia Koliondrou	George Vasiliadis	Ioulios Sinadinos	Aleksis Tsipras – SIRIZA, ANEL

It is noteworthy that in the period of command 2009-2011 and 2012-2013 there was a change in the organizational structure regarding sport responsibilities. In 2010, the sport duties were shared between two ministries, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism and the Ministry of Health that was renamed Ministry of Health, Nutrition, and Sport. This highlighted the significance of incorporating the three competences and enhancing the social value of sport for the society. In the press conference the Minister mentioned:

*“There is no dispute regarding the division of responsibilities in sport between the two ministries. Instead it creates a great opportunity for cooperation and common policy actions which is actually our goal... According to the restructured organizational framework, we aim to form a new policy for the development of sport in the areas of ‘Sport for All’ and sport for people with disabilities... establishing the relevant Departments in the Ministry of Health, Nutrition and Sport. It is a political initiative that indicates the specificity of sport and the government’s interest in developing social integration and inclusion. Sport is a great instrument for enhancing equality in disadvantaged groups.... Additionally another concern for the government is the major problem of obesity in our country, thus our goal is the interface of nutrition and physical activity in our policies as health enhancing factors” (press release, General Secretariat of Sport, Christos Aidonis, Deputy Minister, 7 Dec 2010).*

In the framework of the policy strategy for reducing obesity to 5%, the government’s plan is to create recreational parks and fitness paths and to open sport centers for the public, incorporating ‘Sport for All’ in the actions for health enhancing physical activity (*press release, GSS, Christos Aidonis, Deputy Minister, 7 Dec, 2010*). Furthermore, as mentioned in the previous section of the study, the contribution of the national programme ‘EY ZHN’ was significant in incorporating physical activity and health in the school curriculum. For the first time, the triptych health-physical activity-school (through education) was promoted as a common policy initiative. Overall, the national initiatives for a joint policy on issues of physical activity, nutrition and health could be explained as a change (or progress) in the political actors’ perceptions for the promotion of sport in other policies probably due to European level discourses.

Similarly, following the elections of 2012, the incumbent government proceeded to another institutional initiative, transferring the national authority for Sport (GSS) under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education and combining the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Culture under a unified Ministry named for a first time Ministry of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport. One of the aims of such a reform was to achieve functional and organizational interface in the actions for youth in sport, nutrition and informal learning through volunteering (Governmental Council of Reform, 2013). This development depicts the political strategy for enhancing the social and educational value of sport and further

integrating the policies for culture, sport and education. One may say that this institutional change is in line with the recommendations of the White Paper on Sport, showing signs of Europeanising the social and educational dimension of Greek sport policy.

After a long period of consultations, a new Sport Law (Gazette of the Greek Government, 2012, 4049/2012) was approved by the Parliament in 2012, with regulations for national sport planning. First of all, the Law included the reform of the National Council for Sport Planning (NCSP) with the aim of developing the national sport strategy in cooperation with representatives of the Sport bodies, related Ministries, local authorities and expert groups. In detail the major responsibility of the NCSP is the preparation of a four-year national action plan for the development of sport while the GSS will be the executive body for policy-making, coordinating and funding operational programmes under the national budget for sport. The Deputy Minister of Sport declared:

*“These actions are part of the ‘National Strategic Planning’ on Sport, which contain a social interest and are linked at local, regional and national level, with other policy areas such as education, health, social services, urban and regional planning, protection of nature, culture and leisure services” (press release, GSS, Christos Aidonis, Deputy Minister, 19 Jan 2011).*

It is evident that a Europeanising effect took place as the national Action plan was influenced by the recommendations of the ‘White Paper’ for integrating the social dimension of sport into other policies.

Some of the announced social-oriented actions to be taken in the framework of the national sport strategy are the following: a) Decentralisation of sport, requiring transfer of responsibilities and resources in the Region and Local Authorities, b) close cooperation with the National Olympic Committee and the national federations for the reform, consolidation and streamlining of rewards and incentives for elite athletes, safeguarding their professional capacity while they continue their sport career, c) synergies between sport and tourism such as mega sport events (Marathon Race, rallie Acropolis, sailing races etc. with the intention to attract tourism and promote the cultural heritage of Greece, d) ‘green sport facilities’, changing the construction of sport facilities in order to reduce the energy consumption. Obviously, the EU recommendations for dual career of elite athletes, sustainable development in sport and the interconnection of sport with other policies such as culture have possibly influenced the national sport policy agenda-setting.

Most importantly, the Sport Law 4049/2012 focuses on the measures for the fight against violence and doping in the field of sport. Specifically, the institutional and administrative regulation for the fight against violence includes cooperation with the Ministry of Public Order and Citizen Protection, reforming and enhancing the role of the Standing Committee to Combat Violence (SCCV) and other anti-criminal measures such as stricter penalties for offenders, the establishment of electronic ticket and safety cameras surveillance in all sport courts. Regarding the fight against doping, the new rule refers to the reconstruction of the national anti-doping agency as a private entity called National Organisation for combatting Doping (NOCD) applying anti-criminal measures. In detail, the president of the NOCD, Hara Spiliopoulou, stressed that the “*Ministerial Decree 3956/2012 for combating doping in sport is in consistence with the World Anti-Doping Code, the UNESCO International Convention against Doping in Sport, ratified by national Law 3516/2006, the International Standards of the World Anti-Doping Agency and the binding guidelines of the World Anti-Doping Agency*”. Overall, it is apparent that there is convergence between the national policy for combating violence and doping in sport and the EU as well as international related policy frameworks.

### **7.3.2. Cooperation with other EU Member States**

Due to the autonomy and specificity of sport, the main responsibilities for sporting matters remain in the Member States and sport organisations. EU has a limited competence for sport, thus its subsidiary role is restricted to supporting, coordinating and funding actions. Consequently, political cooperation on sport among Member States and the EU institutions is vital for the sport development. Until the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty cooperation at EU level entailed an informal framework, outside the formal Council structures. Informal EU Sport Ministers’ and EU Sport Directors’ meetings were held optionally by EU presidencies in order to set the agenda for discourse on sport-related issues of common concern. In particular, in 2004, the Commission called the EU Ministers to adopt a “*Rolling Agenda for Sport*”, defining the priorities and ensuring more coherence and continuity in the debates of the subsequent Presidencies. Following the adoption of the Lisbon new Treaty, the EU Sport Ministers’ meetings were organised in a formal Council setting and the Treaty’s new provisions gave a new competence for cooperation in sport issues. Apart from the Sport Ministers’ meetings, another Commission initiative for enhancing cooperation with Member

States was the establishment of the “*EU Expert Groups*” on sport-related fields in which Greek participation has been discussed in the previous section of the study.

Examining the cooperation of the Member States and the exchange of ideas at European level, Greek participation at the formal EU Council of Ministers’ meeting can be perceived as another tool of Europeanisation. During the period under investigation the participation of the assigned ministers at the Council meetings was consistent. In May 2010, the Greek Minister of Culture and Sport, Pavlos Geroulanos, attended the first formal EU Ministers’ meeting in Brussels. At the meeting, the Greek Minister spoke about the challenges in sport such as doping, violence and match fixing while he highlighted the need for Member States’ cooperation in dealing with these issues at European level. Additionally, he noted the significance of sport and culture for European cohesion and solidarity and the role the EU can play in the European sport policy scene. Great concern was expressed with regards to sport funding during a time of financial distress. The Greek proposal was the development of sport and cultural synergies in tourism. The Deputy Minister stressed that the Greek Government was:

*“elaborating a plan of enhancing sport and cultural events into tourist attractions, promoting ‘Sport for All’ and the economy in our country. Such an example is the annual sport event of the Classic Marathon in Athens. Investing on a profitable sport event, we aim at promoting the values of sport, and motivating more citizens to incorporate sport and physical activity in their everyday life”* (press release, Ministry of Culture and Sport, Ioannis Ioannidis, Deputy Minister, 2013).

The Deputy Minister of Culture responsible for Sport, George Nikitiadis, represented Greece at the formal Council meeting of EU Sports Ministers in May 2011, raising the issue of online betting and its impact on sport, calling upon the EU to “*set common rules for a unified environment of online betting in order to generate income for sport, culture, health and education*” (press release, GSS, George Nikitiadis, Deputy Minister, 2011). In October 2011, the General Secretary of Sport, Panos Mpitsaxis, attended the informal EU Ministers’ meeting held in Poland. The Greek side stressed the need for establishing specific mechanisms to strengthen cooperation between the countries of the European Union in order to fight the issue of match-fixing and suggested the EU involvement in fighting the illegal betting and the match-fixing in the sport market of Asia. Similarly, the theme of discussion in the 2012 EU ministers’ meeting, held in Cyprus, was ‘Active elderly – the role of sport and

physical activity'. At that meeting, the Deputy Minister of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport, Giannis Ioannidis, highlighted the significance of physical activity in the mental, physical and social function of the elderly people, improving the quality of life. In the case of Greece, he mentioned, physical activity for elderly is promoted at local level, in cooperation with the Municipalities, through the 'Sport for All' Programmes.

In 2013 the newly assigned Minister of Culture and Sport, Panos Panagiotopoulos, attended the formal EU Minister' meeting for sport in Brussels and had various bilateral communications with other MS ministers and EU representatives with the aim to strengthen the cooperation among Member States and European institutions. Particularly, in the light of the Greek presidency of the Council of the European Union in the first semester of 2014, the Greek Minister commented on the priorities of the Greek Presidency for sport, especially on issues of combating corruption in sport, on the contribution of sport in economic and social development and on the enhancement of health through physical activity. The agenda included issues such as:

- 1) The establishment and implementation of the European sport program for the next three years (2014-2017).
- 2) The coding and the adoption of the conclusions of the Vilnius Conference on Gender Equality in Sports.
- 3) The thematic axis: "Improving health through physical activity".
- 4) The thematic axis: "The Good Governance in Sport" with an emphasis on combating phenomena of corruption.
- 5) The fight against doping and adoption of the conclusions of the Johannesburg conference.
- 6) The thematic axis "Dual Career Athletes and the Management of the Players".
- 7) The relationship between sport and economic development and the opportunities for youth employment in sport.
- 8) The potential of sport to combat social exclusion (Ministry of Culture and Sport, 2013).

Finally, the Deputy Minister of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport, Giannis Ioannidis, participated at the formal EU Council of Ministers' meeting in May 2013 and made a statement on the issue of doping in the field of sport. Actually, the Minister commented on the phenomenon saying that:

*"In Greece we have criminalized doping and we conduct numerous and extensive tests. Offenders lose not only their medals but also their financial incentives that*



*were awarded. In private sport centers [gyms] the nutrition supplements are prohibited as they are often used for doping. Informing and educating youth for the negative effects of doping is a way to suppress the phenomenon. In our country, we cooperate with the WADA and also we organize seminars where elite athletes visit schools and inform students about the negative effects of doping. However, it is essential to take measures for combating doping and cooperate with other bodies such as the police and custom offices in order to control the import of supplements”* (press release, Ministry of Culture and Sport, Ioannis Ioannidis, 2013).

It is evident from the research that the cooperation at ministerial level in the EU arena regarding the social dimension of sport has contributed to the exchange of ideas, best practices and wide discussions of issues of common concern in the field of sport. This discourse at supranational level frames the national sport actors’ beliefs, it creates adaptation pressure for national action and eventually it brings convergence at national practices for sport policy which is the core idea of Europeanisation.

Concluding, a recent action that strengthened the European cooperation on sport policy was the Council's Resolution on a *2011-2014 EU Work Plan for Sport* (European Council, 2011). It is said that *“for the first time, Member States, the Presidencies of the Council and the Commission were invited to work together along agreed guiding principles, to focus on priority themes ('integrity of sport', 'social values of sport', 'economic aspects of sport') and to implement specific actions”* (European Council, 2014b). In the context of the Europeanisation process, it is believed that this Work Plan, supported by the Commission, provided a valuable framework of consultation and cooperation with Member States (including Greece), expert Groups and sport stakeholders in a spirit of mutual respect of national and EU competences.

### **7.3.3. Participation in structured dialogue for sport**

The European Commission, recognising the complexity of European sport and the need to get sport stakeholders involved in the European policy-making for sport, aims to provide a platform for cooperation, dialogue and consultation at European level, spreading good practice, disseminating knowledge and promoting the development of European networks in the field of sport. Specifically, the White Paper on Sport promotes the structured dialogue

with Member States and sport stakeholders under a number of EU initiatives, including an annual EU Sport Forum.

In the framework of the OMC, the structured dialogue for sport at EU level can be considered a mediating factor to apply EU pressure at national sport actors. In this context, the '*EU Sport Forum*' serves the need for structured dialogue among the EU, Member States and the sport movement. It is organised and financed by the Commission with the aim to inform sport stakeholders about the main EU level developments and provide a platform for debates, exchange of ideas and practices on sporting matters. It is organised in connection with the EU Ministers' meeting in order to give the opportunity to non-governmental actors to meet with EU sport Ministers in the margins of the Forum (Commission of the European Communities, 2007c). In 2010, in view of implementing the EU's new powers on sports policy, EU ministers agreed to set the dialogue between the EU institutions, national authorities and the sports world in the form of an "*advisory group*" dealing with specific thematic fields of sport. The group includes representatives of public authorities, the EU Council of Ministers, the European Commission, the Presidency Trio (see also De Wolff, 2016), Member States, the European Parliament and the sports world. Under these EU initiatives for structured dialogue on sport, Greece seems to hold a passive attitude as its involvement in the EU Sport Forum and the 'advisory group' until 2013 is random without any operational outcome at national level. This suggests that Greek sport actors do not take advantage of the opportunities of the OMC, as a means to Europeanise the national practices for sport development.

However, since 2013 the participation of the General Secretary of Sport in the annual EU sport Forums is evident, verifying his involvement in structure dialogue with personal speeches presenting proposals and the point of view of the national Ministry related to sport (see General Secretariat of Sport, 2016). So, it is implied that there is a change in the behaviours, ideas and the administrative structures at national level due to EU pressure for convergence which is operated through the tool of the OMC.

The EU Sports Platform can also be considered as an arena for discourse at European level. Established in 2009, the EU Sports Platform is an open, independent and non-political forum for sport. Its role is to provide free information about current EU activities relating to sport, including issues such as sports governance, EU funding, intellectual property, broadcasting

rights, etc. The Platform aims at bringing together sports governing bodies and other stakeholders from all EU Member States in order to discuss on ideas and concerns about the development of EU sport policy. Its members are national, European and international sport organisations such as sport federations, leagues and clubs. Once again, Greece does not seem to be represented in the EU Sports Platform by national or local sport organisations, missing the chance to adapt to European norms and practices.

Summarising, it can be concluded that the mechanism of the Open Method of Coordination, through cooperation and structured dialogue at European level, exercise an indirect pressure to the Greek sport actors for adapting to EU changes, but only to the extent that the Greek government is willing and ready to follow. This ‘readiness’ depends on the perceptions as well as on the institutional and administrative maturity of the governmental system which determines the national sport policy strategy.

#### **7.3.4. An overview of the EU impact on the Greek sport policy**

First of all, it should be emphasised that it is too early to make assumptions on the Europeanisation of the national sport policy, as it is a policy area that is still being formed at EU-level and until recently sport was strictly a national concern. Having this on mind, the previous parts of this chapter illustrated the response of Greek sport stakeholders to the EU initiatives in the areas of the social-oriented sport policy. Special reference was made to the Greek participation in the European sport-related funding Programmes, studies and networks (e.g. working Groups). Following, it examined the degree of change in the national sport policy strategy as a result of the EU influence in the key actors’ perceptions and values. In the framework of the Open Method of Coordination, the previous parts presented the outcome of cooperation and participation in structured dialogue at European level in the policy, which can be perceived as a Europeanisation mechanism of adapting ideas and best practices. This section will outline on the overall EU influence on national sport policy and an effort will be made to explain some constraints and weaknesses of the Greek sport policy framework that delay or hinder Europeanisation change.

The findings of this research demonstrate a degree of change in the sport key actors’ beliefs, expectations and perceptions of what should be done in order to improve and modernise the national sport policy, the structures and procedures. It seems that the personnel and the people in high positions in the national sport administration have realised the necessity for a

change and development and have started looking for methods to improve the national sport model. However, this change has mainly affected their perceptions and less the structure of sport or the actions and decisions ordered by the national sport law. A senior staff member of the GSS mentioned in an interview that:

*“Greece does not have a loud voice in sport in Europe; we are more a kind of listeners of what EU recommends and followers and what other Member States practice on rather than initiators and protagonists in shaping a European sport policy”* (personal interview, Kariofilli, EU affairs, GSS, Febr. 8, 2010).

This statement demonstrates a more passive way of involvement in EU sporting matters, where the Greek contribution starts with participation but does not always end with an output or a set of commitments. However, it cannot be ignored that Greece has identified the role of the EU as an arena of exchange of ideas and collective learning and it seems willing to adapt to EU pressures for policy transfer and cooperation with other Member States.

Another point is that Greece does participate in EU initiatives but not in a systematic and methodical manner to bring results. Although Greek representatives join EU sport meetings, fora, conferences and studies, there is a lack of preparation on the agenda, absence of national proposals and positions, deficient diffusion of information and exploitation of previous experience at national administrative level and limited actions or follow-up. Unfortunately, records and archives of previous representatives’ reports are missing as there is no permanent representative group while the representation duties are delegated according to political interests. Public servants of the GSS do not know what *“is happening in Brussels”* and no information is transferred to the different departments. Instead, some actors *“keep the information for themselves, believing that doing so they are irreplaceable”* (personal communication with political representative, GSS, March 17, 2010). This statement demonstrates the lack of cooperation among the different departments and levels of hierarchy in the central national sport authority. It is therefore argued that *“the relation influence-impact between the EU and Greece in sport is not systematic”* (personal communication with political representative, GSS, March 17, 2010) maintaining the ‘misfit’ between EU and national practices.

As a result, the rationale for limited Europeanisation could emanate from the lack of a central policy strategy on sport adjusted in the EU framework for sport. It is evident that there is no sequence, duration or strategy in activities to meet national and European goals especially in

the social dimension of sport. Additionally, while Greece has a qualitative organisation framework for sport, it has not been adequately prepared for implementation. The lack of horizontal and vertical communication within national sport administration leads to bureaucratic limitations, delays and inaction. Another problem is the absence of a legislative cooperation among the GSS, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education to build on a common strategy and establish common ministerial decisions for the development of the social function of sport. In general, the bureaucratic and out-of-date national administration system creates further obstacles to cope with EU processes. For instance, the GSS has not been the beneficiary on any transnational project incorporating sport in the EC Programmes but it only participates as a project partner. This is because the national system requires a special administrative account and processes for obtaining financial support from EU programmes. This could imply that the lack of Europeanisation in the administration processes leads to missed opportunities for EU funding.

Nevertheless, the economic crisis in 2009 and the unstable political scene in Greece brought new challenges for the growth of sport. Through networking and cooperation building, the 2009 government of 'New Democracy' party aimed at bringing the national sport governmental institution "closer to Brussels". A political representative of the GSS mentioned that "*now we are turning our sight to what is happening in sport in Europe and especially in sport-advanced countries in order to learn for their experience and gain knowledge for the sport governance*" (personal communication with political representative, GSS, March 17, 2010). Apart from attending EU Ministers Meetings, that has already been analysed, another example of building on cooperation is the 'Protocol of Cooperation in Sport' between the Greek and the Cypriot government. It is understood that Cyprus has a well-developed sport policy and it has created the mechanisms to implement the recommendations of the White Paper on Sport while it has a leading presence in the sport networks at European level. The Greek Sport Authority asked the support and guidance of Cyprus in order to get involved in the EU sport system and learn for their experience and best practices. The fact that the EU Commissioner of Education and Culture over that time was Cypriot generated expectations from the Greek sport authority for an easier access to sport-related lobbies at EU level (personal communication with political representative, GSS, March 17, 2010).

The interest of the Greek sport leadership for involvement in EU activities can be explained by the opportunities rising after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. More specifically, the new EU sport programme, the cooperation between Member States and the participation in sport affairs at European level, offer funding, networking, structural and institutional opportunities at national level. Greece is expecting from European Union grants for sport, ideas and knowledge and best practices for an in-depth reform of Greek sport policy. Besides, Greece needs to be close to the developments occurring with the formation of a common European sport policy and be better prepared for the adoption of new processes and procedures. Therefore, as the political representative on sport commented, “*a European mentality is being adopted*” (personal communication with political representative, GSS, March 17, 2010).

Moreover, there has been an increased interest in the societal dimension of sport. “Sport for All”, anti-doping and fight against violence in sport are high-ranking issues in the Greek sport policy agenda. The adoption of various sport Laws (3057/2002, 3372/2005, 3708/2008 and 4049/2012) have included articles for dual career of elite athletes and anti-criminal measures for combating violence and doping in sport. However, it cannot be confirmed that the document of the White Paper on Sport directly influenced the national planning for sport of the government neither that national priorities coincide with EU guidance. The political representative on sport could not crosscheck this information, but as illustrated by the interviews conducted with senior Greek officials, there has been a change in the politicians’ perceptions, beliefs and ideas on the way sport should be promoted. Yet, the establishment of the programme ‘Sport for All’, the Physical Education curriculum, sport for people with disabilities, the foundation of the National Council to Combat Doping and the Standing Committee to Combat Violence, as instruments for implementing national sport policy took place before the White Paper on Sport. Therefore, they consist national measures resulting from the global sport developments and not EU development.

It is hereby argued that the European initiatives related to the social matters of sport foster the awareness for the EU, enhance the European values and may promote the establishment of European identity, as long as national relevant key actors are willing to act accordingly. As Bulmer and Radaelli (2004) point out “*Europeanisation is not simply about formal policy rules but also about less tangible aspects, such as beliefs and values*”. The norms, perceptions and beliefs are diffused at national level through softer channels of regulation,

such as the Open Method of Coordination (OMC). Such examples for applying the Open Method of Coordination as mediating factor of Europeanisation are the EU Sport Forum, EU Sport Platform, experts' committees, EU Working Groups and structured dialogue for sport. The Working Groups for sport reflect the EU pressure for collective national action in the field of the social and educational dimension of sport. Participating in networking for sport at EU level offers a great chance to cultivate values and perceptions, to generate and transmit ideas, to build and enhance cooperations and subsequently achieve at some point convergence in the formation of European and national sport policies. Therefore, another instance of Europeanisation is the participation of Greek representatives in the EU Working Groups, *'framing common beliefs and values'*.

European funding represents an incentive for the EU countries to move towards EU models. According to Börzel (2003) and Olsen (2002) the need to absorb EU funds and resources for sport is a paradigm of adaptational pressure. Besides, one of the main objectives of the EC sport-related Programmes is to produce convergence and reduce the *'misfit'* between European and national sport policy-making, leading inevitably to pressures for change. In this case study, this change may be defined as a sense of European Identity and European Citizenship through the exchange of ideas and networking which are the main aims of the European Union. The process of changing and adapting to a more European 'outfit' is what has been called so far Europeanisation.

In order to develop a *'European dimension of sport'*, EC sport-related programmes are used as mechanisms for the transmission of supranational policies in national contexts. However, according to the findings of this study, Greece does not seem to effectively exploit the EU funding opportunities, neither does it promote adequately the social function of sport in other policy actions, showing a slow tendency towards Europeanisation in the field of sport. As it is demonstrated in this research, the European Programmes is the main approach of the European Commission to initiate co-operation and networking and exchange of ideas, preferences and practices among Member States and EU institutions in order to create convergence in the member states' policies. Additionally, this interaction facilitates diversity in cultures, brings citizens closer, creates a *'common way of doing things'* and basically strengthens citizens' European identity.

The level of influence of European Programmes in the case of Greece can be considered as evidence of Europeanisation, as implementation requires a certain degree of consistency with the overall goals of the EU. Besides, it is apparent that Europeanisation becomes a prerogative for national authorities seeking European funds. The research findings demonstrate that although Greece participates in almost all the EC funding Programmes, sport-related activities are mainly apparent in national projects under the 'Health Programme', 'Youth in Action' and the 'Lifelong Learning Programme'. Although the evaluation of the Greek participation in EC Programmes is not in the aims of the study, it is vital to briefly present some of the obstacles and constraints. First, there is a lack of awareness, information and guidance about the application process. Many sport-related projects were not approved as they did not meet the criteria. Second, the principle of additionality restricts national organisations from participating in the Programmes as they could not offer supplementary support to the projects' budget. Last, there has been a weak contribution of national governmental sport bodies and other sport related authorities in the promotion of the EU Programmes in the sport community. In general, it seems that the EC sport-related programmes recommended by the Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin were an introduction to raise awareness, train and activate Member States for future developments in the sport policy after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty and the implementation of the 'pure' Sport Programme 'Erasmus+' for which there is a short discussion in the next chapter.

Europeanisation has often been understood as the change or reform of national institutions and policies and their interaction with developments at the EU level. As mentioned above, there were frequent changes in the organizational structure of the General Secretariat of Sport and the reallocation of sport competences among the Ministries of Culture, Health and Education. One may say that these structural and institutional reforms could be an expression of Europeanisation in the policy-making procedures, adapting to EU administrative structures in the light of gaining benefits from implementing favourable EU initiatives. However, policy change is not merely an effect of Europeanisation. An alternative argument claims that a general shift of the national policy could derive from other causes such as limited financial and human resources, restructuring of the administrative system or change in the priorities of the national agenda, affecting all aspects of public policy such as sport. In particular, the Greek Prime-Minister has announced that "*despite the economic crisis, the structural changes are a priority need for the improvement of the national administration system*". Such an example is the National Program Kallicrates (Gazette of the Greek Government, 2010,



Law 3852/2010, ‘The new architecture of the governmental and decentralized administration - Program Kallikrates’) that reduces the number of municipalities and communities in the country, bringing changes to the administration system at local and regional level and it is expected to further influence the organization and resources of sport. It is anticipated that a new sport structure will be established thus reducing the dependency of sport on the central authority and enhancing initiatives at local level (personal communication with an official from the ‘Sport for All’, GSS, March 18, 2010). Already, with Law 3057/2002, there has been a shift in responsibilities and financial resources from central to local authorities, offering greater opportunities for innovation and operational actions at regional and local level. In the case of sport, municipalities operate the program ‘Sport for All’ through the Organisations for Youth and Sport while the GSS supports and mainly co-funds the program. Another example is the announcement in 2009 of the abolishment of the Junior Ministry of Sport and 32 non-legislated Committees of the GSS probably due to high operational costs. The duties of the Junior Minister of sport were assigned to the Deputy Minister of Culture and Tourism who would be responsible for the services of the General Secretariat of Sport. While there has been some controversy and broad concerns over this reform, it is still too early to provide a credible assessment of its virtues and vices. So, it would be expected that these structural developments could have an impact on the sport sector and especially on the regional and local level, while this process of change cannot be related to Europeanisation.

In conclusion, it has been demonstrated that during the period 2007-2015 the EU influence in the Greek sport policy is gradually growing. The White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty have created new opportunities for the social dimension of sport, that for the Greek sport policy could not stay impassive. Although, the EU pressure for change in the sport-related policy making rely on weak and indirect mechanisms, such as cooperation, networking, policy transfer, discourse and funding incentives, the EU impact is mainly apparent in the national sport actors’ perceptions and expectations and less the institutional structures and the policy strategy related to the social dimension of sport. It seems that Greece applies a selective adoption of EU initiatives and recommendations in order to accomplish particular goals, meet national priorities and gain particular benefits, in light of the new competences for sport included in the Lisbon Treaty. Overall, it seems that the well-promising ‘Erasmus+’ Programme is the key that will open the doors for greater participation of the Greek sport organisations at EU level sport activities due to financial benefits. However the effect of such an involvement is expected to bring change in the perceptions and ideas and converge in

the sport-related policy-making at national level, leading to Europeanised practices and strengthening the European identity.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: The way to the future for sport. What lies ahead?**

### **8.1. Overview**

The previous sections have investigated the EU influence in sport policy, have identified the EU impact at national level and have analysed the Europeanisation effect in the case of Greek sport policy-making. The ECJ ruling in the 1995 Bosman Case, the White Paper on Sport and especially the Lisbon Treaty brought substantial developments in the European sport policy, providing greater support and a legal framework for further EU intervention. This chapter addresses the questions ‘what is going to happen in the EU sport policy in light of the new EU competence related to the social and educational dimension?’ ‘What will be the interaction between the EU, Member States and sport stakeholders?’ ‘What will be the opportunities for sport governance after the application of EU law?’ There will be a discussion on the future of sport in Europe after the new EU opportunities in sport policy and there will be some considerations and recommendations for further EU involvement in the social and educational dimension of sport.

### **8.2. EU added value in sport**

The last decade, sport has been a priority topic in European policy agenda as it is connected with other policy fields and it has gained a legal basis, especially after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. The EU added value for sport is highlighted throughout the present study. The EU has been promoting the social and educational value of sport instead of dealing only with its economic dimension. It has also been actively involved in sport policy-making, by initiating, supporting and mainstreaming actions for sport complementing Member States’ and sport stakeholders’ actions. For example, EU has maintained a coordinated approach to the challenges of violence and doping in sport and match-fixing. Besides, the EU actions for sport are in accordance with “...*the overall goals of the Europe 2020 Strategy by improving employability and mobility, notably through actions promoting social inclusion in and through sport [and] education and training (including through the European Qualifications Framework)...*” (European Commission, 2011). As it is already mentioned in this thesis, the EU facilitates structured dialogue and discourse in sport providing a platform for exchange of ideas among sport stakeholders, spreading good policy practices and promoting the development of European networks in the field of sport (European Commission, 2011). Finally, the European institutions contribute to the dissemination of knowledge about EU law

in the sport sector, ensuring greater legal certainty for European sport (European Commission, 2011).

However, the greater EU added value in the field of sport is the funding incentives for Member States. Until 2013, sport and physical activity were subsidised by projects of other relevant policy areas such as education, youth, health, culture, etc. The way for an official sport funding programme under the EU law opened up with the signing of the Lisbon Treaty. In particular, the Erasmus+ Programme is an outstanding step for European sport policy development.

### **8.3. New EU competence for sport: Erasmus+ Programme**

The Erasmus+ is a funding programme which applies to the policy fields of education, training, youth and sport and will be run for the period 2014-2020. It is in line with the European 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth through education and training. According to the Programme Guide (European Commission, 2014a), the European Commission is ultimately responsible for the running of the Erasmus+ Programme. It manages the budget and sets priorities, targets and criteria for the Programme as well as it guides and monitors the general implementation, follow-up and evaluation of the Programme at European level. The European Commission's Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (Executive Agency) is responsible for the implementation of the centralised Actions of the Erasmus+ Programme. At national level, the Programme is implemented by national agencies who act as the link between the European Commission and the participant organisations at local, regional and national level. In the case of Greece the awarded national agencies are the Foundation of State Scholarships (IKY) and the Youth and Lifelong Learning Foundation. Their tasks are to:

- provide information on the Erasmus+ Programme;
- administer the selection process for project applications
- monitor and evaluate the implementation of the Programme
- provide support to applicants and participating organisations
- collaborate effectively with the network of all National Agencies and the European Commission;
- ensure the visibility of the Programme;
- promote the dissemination and exploitation of the results of the Programme at local and national level.

The ‘Preparatory Actions in the Field of Sport’ opened the way for an extensive funding support to sport through the Erasmus+ Programme. It is the first time that sport has a dedicated budget corresponding to 1.8% of the global programme budget that is €265.9 million over seven years (Halleux, 2015b). In particular, the Programme aims at supporting the activities for the development of the European dimension in sport, promoting the creation and development of European networks and providing opportunities for cooperation, transfer of knowledge or mutual learning among stakeholders. Precisely, the programme:

- supports the evidence base for policy-making (studies, data gathering, surveys, etc.)
- spreads good practices from participants to sport organisations and sport governing bodies and reinforce networks, synergies and exchanges among Member States,
- strengthens the dialogue with European sport stakeholders organizing the EU Sport Forum, and supporting the Sport Presidency events, ad-hoc meetings, seminars, etc.

The sub-programme ‘Sport’ supports collaborative partnerships and not-for-profit European sport events while the main targets are professionals and volunteers in the field of sport, athletes and coaches. Participants can be public sporting bodies, sporting organisations at any level, organisations active in promoting physical activity, including social inclusion in sports and event organisers in the sport sector. The sub-programme ‘Sport’ focuses mainly on grassroots sport and ‘Sport for All’ seeking to achieve the following objectives (European Commission, 2014a):

- tackle cross-border threats to the integrity of sport, such as doping, match fixing and violence, as well as all kinds of intolerance and discrimination,
- promote and support good governance in sport and dual careers of athletes,
- promote voluntary activities in sport, together with social inclusion, equal opportunities and awareness of the importance of health-enhancing physical activity, through increased participation in, and equal access to Sport for All.

In the case of the Greek participation to Erasmus+ Programme for Sport (2014-2020), two Greek organisations were selected as Coordinators in Collaborative partnerships in 2014. The first is the Aristotelio Panepistimio Thessalonikis, with a project that covers the funding area fight against doping at grassroots level. The project title is “*Strengthening the Anti-Doping Fight in Fitness and exercise in Youth: SAFEYOU*”, with grand amount €411.708,

involving 25 European sport organisations. The second is the Region of Western Greece KEK Achaias, with a project that covers approaches to contain violence and tackle racism and intolerance in sport. The project title is *“Innovative learning Resources to foster equal participation in grassroots Sports dealing with discrimination, racism and violence incidents: IRIS”*, with grand amount € 472.792, involving 30 European sport organisation. Additionally, 14 Greek organisations were selected as partners and not as coordinators in collaborations of other countries. It is evident that the Greek sport organisations are more engaged to that programme comparing to the previous Community Programmes (2007-2013), because there is a greater awareness-raising and because it is a pure Sport programme that attracts greater interest from the sport community. What is expected to be seen in the future is how the ‘Erasmus+’ Programme for Sport will be utilised as a mechanism for the transmission of supranational policies in the national context, operating as a top-down vehicle for the Europeanisation in the national sport policies.

In brief, although the ‘Erasmus+’ Programme is not in the time frame of this research it would be interesting to present some cases of Greek participation to projects related to sport from the period 2013-2016. The project *“Phoenix: sun rise and sun shine”* is dealing with the theme of young people’s exclusion and the value of sport in preventing negative behaviours and additions. *Training-Seminar “Sport live”* was another project with Greek participation focusing on the issues of promoting healthy life-style and sport using new, innovative tools and strategies in video making. Under the Action Youth Mobility, Greece is involved in the following projects for enhancing health and physical activity. The project *“Insanity for sane people: sports core of the life”* aims at teaching young people with non-formal education methods how to be engaged in active lifestyle. The project *“Healthy life=Happy life”* aims at changing the way of life to a healthier and more active by using non-formal learning and intercultural dialogue during an international meeting among 7 countries. The Greek Naftikos Olimos Larissas is the coordinator organisation for the youth exchange project *“Active for health”* where six countries use non-formal methodologies, workshops, brainstorming and various activities to motivate young people for having a healthy and well-being way of living. The *“B-Alternative”* is another youth mobility project which proposes an exchange of European cultures using alternative sports as a means of acquiring skills, knowledge and attitudes in order to enhance the accessibility to workforce. The *“Sport Window”* is a youth exchange project which promotes sport and outdoor activities as a tool for improvement of youth’s quality of life, giving them the knowledge and tools that will raise their motivation,

self-development and self-reliance. The project “*Fair Play*” promotes the free and active participation, integration and standardization of people with disabilities in an intercultural environment through sport and games, increasing their self-esteem. A Greek volunteering Organisation Elix is the coordinating partner of “*Sports to YOUth*” exchange project which aims at promoting the sportsmanship and healthy behaviours and building cooperation between participants who belong to different cultures, values and ethics. Finally, the partnership project “*Conscious and Healthy Sportsmen – Doping-free Olympics*” aims at creating awareness about the Olympic Games by making every stakeholder an active part of sport activities and informing sportsmen about the hazards of doping for their health and sport life. Many more projects related to sport are coming up until the end of the programme duration (2020), where Greek organisations have the chance to be involved. Concluding, the programme can be perceived as a mechanism of policy transfer where Member States are exposed to experiences in policies, administrative arrangements and ideas from other countries which are then incorporated in policy-making, achieving convergence at EU level (Caramani, 2015). It is noted that the Programme is in progress, thus there are many more funding opportunities for Greek sport organisations, to ‘come closer to Europe’ and converge with EU recommendations in the field of sport.

A current significant Commission-led initiative was the *2015 European Week of Sport*, which refers to an annual European large-scale event in order promote sport and physical activity at EU and national levels and raise awareness about the numerous benefits of exercise. The idea was born after the results of a broad consultation process carried out in 2013, involving sport stakeholders and Member States (experts, Sport Directors, Sport Ministers). Supplementary, the 2011-2014 EU Work Plans for Sport, the 2013 Council Recommendation on health-enhancing physical activity and especially the Programme Erasmus+: Sport strengthens the EU priorities on sport and physical activity as health-enhancing factors, supporting such an initiative. The Commission highlighted that the European Week of Sport “...is an ambitious event corresponding to an EU policy priority, being part of an overall strategy with potential long-term effects on the practice of sport and physical activity in the EU” (European Commission, 2015). This initiative can be considered as another example of exerting adaptational pressure to Member States and ‘mimesis’, as in the case of Greece, consists the tool for EU adjustment.

The first European Week of Sport was mainly decentralised with 31 national coordinating

bodies and 30 European partners cooperating for more than 7000 sport events over Europe and around 6 million European participants of all ages (European Commission, 2015). The communication campaign ‘#BeActive European Week of Sport’ supported the awareness for active lifestyle suggesting efficient working structures and methods to help the participating countries to implement the Week of Sport at national, regional and local level (European Commission, 2015). In Greece, the 2015 European Week of Sport was pilot implemented from 7 to 13 September. According to the data from the National Coordinating organisation, the General Secretariat of Sport, 164 events were organized around the country introducing 17 different sport and hosting around 34.000 participants and 150.000 spectators. In 2016, the Greek Week of Sport is implemented from 24 September to 2 October with 169 approved projects<sup>45</sup> in various regions of Greece. Additionally, the Ministry of Education and Religion Department of Sport and Physical Education organised a three-day sport event in sport centers under its responsibility making children familiar with non-popular sport.

A national project for the European Week of Sport under the ‘Focus Theme: Education’, that was selected as an example of good practice and inspiration for other participants (TAFISA, 2015), was the “*Combination of sport educating activity with activities of other social networks*” presented by the Hellenic Handball Federation. The project presented Sports activities combined with other social and solidarity actions with the aim of raising awareness about the needs and problems of modern society, spreading the message “Be active and social sensitive”. It was a multi-cultural educational activity with solidarity actions and a campaign of social networking, involving 600 children of age 4-12 years and around 1200 audience in sport activities such as handball matches. The event took place on 27 September 2015 in Athens Olympic Sport Stadium. Overall, it is demonstrated that innovative ideas, best practices and values on the social and educational dimension of sport are spread through this European initiative strengthening the European identity of the people involved.

In the framework of the European Week of Sport, the project *FlashMOVE#BeActive* aims at connecting Europe through dance. In practice, more than 200 events in 80 cities around Europe gathered Europeans to dance together simultaneously the same dance. In Greece the participant cities for 2016 are:

---

<sup>45</sup> See more about the approved projects on the official site of the General Secretariat of Sport at <http://www.gga.gov.gr/BeActive/>



- Thessaloniki: the Department of Sport and Physical Education, Aristotelion University in cooperation with sport clubs, dance and music centers, cultural organisations and the Municipality of Thessaloniki,
- Drama: The Municipality of Drama in cooperation with local sport clubs,
- Serres: The Municipality of Serres in cooperation with local dancing clubs.

The Erasmus+ Programme: Sport “*Support for Not-for-profit European Sport Events*” funds the *NowWeMOVE* campaign which is launched by the International Sports and Culture Association (ISCA) since 2012. ISCA is a global platform open to organisations working within the field of sport for all, recreational sports and physical activity. The NowWeMOVE campaign aims at bringing ‘Sport for All’ and a variety of other sport-related sectors together to tackle the physical inactivity epidemic across Europe. Parts of the NowWeMove campaign are the annual projects *FlashMOVE* and *MoveWeek*, running since 2012 as well. FlashMove goal is to create enthusiasm and inspire Europeans for the European Move Week. George Farfaras, the national coordinator of the campaign NowWeMOVE in Greece stated that “*the EU has acknowledged the successful initiative of the FlashMove which enhances the physical activity, thus EU has selected it for the official opening of the European Week of Sport*” (BeActive FlashMOVE, 2015, September 8). Complementary, the Move Week is an event promoting the benefits of physical activity to citizens all around Europe. It has been seen as “*a valuable platform not only to raise awareness about physical activity, but also to advocate for change among policy makers and empower MOVE Agents in achieving better exposure and more support for their initiatives*” (NowWeMove, 2015, September 10). Other similar annual actions launched by ISCA, in the framework of NowWeMove campaign, are the European Fitness Day, the European School Sport day and the bicycle tour #NowWeBike. The Greek National coordinating organisation for the NowWeMove campaign and its actions is the Social Cooperative Enterprise “Green Routes”. Overall, such campaigns aim to facilitate the diversity in cultures, brings citizens closer, creates a ‘common way of doing things’ and basically strengthens citizens’ European identity through sport practices.

Specifically, the European School Sport Day is funded from the Erasmus+ Programme for Sport and it is included in the #BeActive European Week campaign (see Hungarian School Sport Federation, 2016). It is a school day dedicated to promote physical activity, to try out new ways of physical activities and sports, with the intention to empower the ‘belonging to

the school' experience for every participant. It is a celebration for sport and physical activity based on voluntary activities of each participating school with the support of national coordinators. In Greece the national coordinator organisation is the Ministry of Education and Religion Department of Physical Education. Under Ministerial Decision (Ministry of Education, 2014) the European School Day is institutionalised and implemented annually in primary and secondary education since 2014. The 'moto' includes values such as diversity and equal opportunities vs racism (in 2014 project), Olympic values and Olympic and Paralympic sports (2015) and finally, the joy and fun of the game vs stress of victory or failure (2016) <sup>46</sup>. As it is apparent, national institutions demonstrate a mimetic approach to EU initiatives such as the celebration of the European Week of Sport and the European School Sport Day. These initiatives are expected to lead to cultural changes in the perception of national actors and the norms of national institutions and ultimately lead to the building of European identity and the sharing of 'European values' through sport policy-making.

Overall, it is suggested that the contribution of the new EU sport programme opens the door for greater EU involvement in sport and support to Member States. It is obvious from the objectives of the Erasmus+ Programme that the value of sport is not only recognised as a policy necessity but also it is exploited and integrated to attain other social benefits. It seems that the financial aid of the Programme strengthens the social and educational dimension of sport and builds channels for cooperation among Member States and EU in order to follow a more Europeanised sport policy.

#### **8.4. Topics for further EU consideration**

One may say that the EU level sport policy-making is in the development stage. In the beginning, sport was synonymous to football, and the EU interest was the application of Community law regulating the economic activity of sport. Sport was later connected with the notion of culture and it was integrated in the cultural policy. Over the last two decades, special recognition has been given to the social value of sport while the EU started promoting the social dimension of sport and intervening in the organisation of sport.

Recently, the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty brought new challenges for sport policy in European level, providing a legal base for an EU competence in sport. More specifically, the

---

<sup>46</sup> For more information regarding the European School Sport Day at <http://edu.klimaka.gr/scholikes-drasthriothtes/2459->

entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty has changed the institutional structure and the decision-making process for sport at EU level (EOC-EU Office, 2011). Cooperation between Member States and EU has moved from an informal to a formal level after the establishment of the Sport Ministers' Council. Additionally, the 2011 Council Work Plan for sport has brought new institutional changes establishing six expert groups on sport-related issues.

Despite the great effort of the EU to provide for a unified policy for sport and regulate sporting issues, there are some areas that merit deeper consideration. Such an issue for future consideration is the division of sports structures in Europe. Apart from professional and amateur or 'Sport for All' level, there are other categories that need to be defined, distinguished and supported by a policy framework such as sport for people with disabilities, school sport and sport for elderly. There is a need for further research on how other Member States regulate these aspects of sport and it would be essential to frame a common policy action under the EU support. In this case, policy transfer and diffusion of ideas through structured dialogue in sport would be a valuable source for sport policy development.

Another social issue that requires further attention from the EU is the leisure dimension of sport, as a passive but entertaining outlet. Sport and physical activity can serve relaxation, fun and health purposes as for example outdoor activities in the nature. In terms of attending competitions, sport events and games as spectator or participant, sport presents a touristic and cultural perspective that should be acknowledged and taken into account when EU initiates some sport activity. How EU could affect such a development in global sport is an issue for discourse at European level. In general, it should be recognized that it is difficult to "*draw a bright line between sport as an economic activity and sport as a crucial cultural element of society*" (Blanpain, Colucci & Hendrick, 2008) thus it is a great challenge to consider the 'sport exception' and the 'specificity of sport' when EU regulates the legal issue of sport and its social, educational and cultural dimension.

Nonetheless, the economic and social role of volunteering activities should be an area for further EU involvement in relation to sport policy. Apart from funding opportunities in sport volunteering, the EU should exploit the opportunities for the promotion and the support of a

unified sport volunteering policy through guidelines, studies, mobility, mutual learning practices, etc.

Concluding, it should be clarified that the development of a fully-fledged EU sports policy is still far from being implemented. It seems that a great deal depends on the actors involved, on how willing they are to prioritise the fields of sport in the policy agenda and to use the legal opportunities in the best possible way for establishing a common EU sport policy (Vermeersch, 2009).

### **8.5. Contemporary challenges in sport governance**

Nowadays, the sport sector is facing serious challenges due to poor or inefficient governance. Globally, sport is plagued by scandals such as betting and match fixing, doping and corruption in sport governing bodies. In particular, corruption is evident in professional football after the allegations of bribery and vote trading that surrounded the 2018 and 2022 World Cup bid process (Becker, 2013). In December 2015, the FIFA president Joseph (Sepp) Blatter and UEFA president Michel Platini were suspended and barred from sport for bribery and money laundering allegations. Following the implosion of FIFA's ruling circle, the demands for structural reforms were intense (Hoberman, 2015). Earlier that year, in November 2015, the president of the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) Lamine Diack faced allegations of bribery in exchange for deferring sanctions against Russian drugs cheats (British Broadcasting Corporation, 5/10/2015) which resulted in the temporary exclusion of the Russian Federation of Athletics from IAAF (sports.in, 14/11/2015). These incidents have generated serious doubts whether sport can be self-regulated and remain autonomous or, on the contrary, whether additional EU regulation is required in order to ensure better governance for the sector (Prochaska, 2013).

EU intervention in sport has both raised concerns and expectations among sport stakeholders, thus EU institutions have been engaged in broad consultations with sport organisations and interest groups (Chatzigianni, 2010). Currently, the EU approach to good governance in sport is driven by the 2007 White Paper on sport, the 2011 Communication on Developing the European dimension in sport and the 2011-14 and 2014-17 Work Plans for Sport (European

Council 2011, 2014). The EU approach is based on structured dialogue<sup>47</sup> with international and European sport organisations and other sport stakeholders, on political dialogue with Member States and on the support for projects and networks related to sport (Halleux, 2015a). More specific, the Commission aims to facilitate the coordinating collaboration between international sport organisations for better governance in sport, providing knowledge, resources and favourable conditions for joint actions (Geeraert, 2013). Consequently, the challenge at EU level is to maintain a balance approach between allowing total autonomy to sport bodies and establishing an extensive framework for government intervention (Geeraert, 2013).

The autonomy of sport bodies is a matter of concern also in the case of Greece. Phenomena of corruption and violence at national football led to government intervention. For instance, in light of charges of corruption, bribes and match fixing led the leadership of the National Football Federation to call for a new sport law. Indeed, the draft of a new Sport Law, presented by the Deputy Minister for Sport Stavros Kontonis, challenged the competences of self-regulation and autonomy in sport bodies. After extensive conflicts and negotiations with FIFA, UEFA and the national Football Association, the content of the new Sport Law 4326/2015 (Gazzette of the Greek Government, 2015) was finalised and it included a provision for self-governance and autonomy of the National Football Federation (SKAI, 30/04/2015) emphasising that the national Football Federation operates in the framework of the Constitution, the laws of the state and fully in line with the charter of FIFA and UEFA. In brief, sport governance in football, at national level, seems to be influenced by Government intervention as well as by the interests and decisions of national sport bodies and international sport organisations.

Summarising, the more actors involved in sport governance, the greater the conflict of interests and the interplay between the various parties. Regarding the EU intervention in sport, discourse is mainly the political tool applied, encouraging new modes of governance such as the structured dialogue in sport. In terms of its regulatory role in sport, the EU has

---

<sup>47</sup> For instance, structured dialogue at EU level takes place in the EU Sport Forum and EU expert Groups. The 2012 meeting of the EU Sport Forum led to the adoption of the Nicosia Declaration on match-fixing. The EU Expert Group on Good Governance offers a platform for dialogue among experts from national governments, European and international sporting bodies and EU institutions related to sport. Such a dialogue led to a set of recommendations on principles of good governance in sport on the EU's role in combating match-fixing and on supervision of sports agents and transfers of players (Halleux, 2015a).

contributed to the establishment of a political framework that affects sport globally. This has generated conflicts questioning the traditional sport governance and autonomy of international sport organisations.

## **CHAPTER NINE: Conclusion**

The point of departure for this research is the multidimensional and challenging field of sport policy in the European arena. The different actors and institutions involved in the decision-making from multiple levels of governance, be it international, European, national or regional, create a complicated framework of European sport policy-making. There are two identified reasons for rendering this policy area unique and interesting: First, it is the special characteristics of sport, such as the very strong economic impact in conjunction with the great social and educational value sport generates. Second, it is the legislative framework for sport, where the sovereignty of the states, the autonomy of supranational sport organisations and the soft regulation of the European Union (e.g. cooperation, structured dialogue and subsidiarity) have to be harmonised in the decision-making for sport. In this context, the purpose of this thesis has been to explain the impact of European integration on sport policy and how Europeanisation, one of the integration's outcomes, influences domestic levels of sport policy. It is defined that, for the purposes of this study, sport policy-making in the EU refers to its social and educational function and not to its economic activity, and the term sport refers to 'Sport for All', grassroot or amateur sport and not to professional or competitive sport.

This study uses the concept of Europeanisation in order to explore the domestic impact of European Union on aspects of the Greek sport policy-making. In this context, it focuses on the social and educational dimension of sport, as it is outlined in the 2007 White Paper on Sport. With regard to Europeanisation, the EU influence on national level is examined in terms of national participation in EU sport-related initiatives as well as in other policies that incorporate physical activity in their actions, promoting the social and educational values of sport. In addition, the present study analyses the contribution of sport in public health, education and training, volunteering, social inclusion, prevention against racism and xenophobia and the fight against violence and doping.

The theoretical framework for the analysis of the EU impact at national level was chosen based on the assumption that the national implementation of EU initiatives is an example of Europeanisation that generates changes in the Greek sport context. The main research question was "whether change in national sport policy during the period of investigation

(2007-2013) was due to EU pressures in terms of the social and educational function of sport”. The subsequent analysis relied on empirical evidence linking change in Greek sport policy to actions recommended by the EU for Member States. In practice, for the requirements of this thesis, the EU documents ‘White Paper on Sport’ and the Action Plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ provided the structural framework for studying EU intervention in the social and educational aspects of sport, while EU initiatives were discussed as soft instruments of Europeanisation. The EU impact on sport policy has been examined under the various levels of institutions and actors involved in the decision-making process. The concept of Europeanisation provided the theoretical basis for identifying and analysing the degree of change and the mechanisms of EU influence at national level.

Regarding the methodology of this case study research, the qualitative analysis of soft-law EU instruments, EU and domestic sport-related records and in-depth interviews with national sport policy-makers provided valuable information in order to investigate the impact of the European sport-related actions on Greek sport policy. The lack of relevant Greek literature as well as the restricted access to primary data at domestic level -partially due to the unstable political environment in Greece and the changes in sport policy institutions after the first signs of the economic crisis in 2009- were the main limitations for this study. Additionally, the limited timeframe of this research did not allow the researcher to investigate the overall impact of the EU actions in a long-term run.

The concept of Europeanisation used in this research is heavily influenced by several theoretical approaches including new institutionalism and policy network analysis. In particular, the ‘learning’ process of Europeanisation is compatible with sociological institutionalism and its focus on the change in the attitudes, the values and the concepts of the people involved in the decision-making due to practices of ‘social learning’ or socialisation. This socialisation is expected to lead to cultural changes in the perception of national actors and the norms of national institutions and ultimately lead to the building of European identity and the sharing of ‘European values’ through sport policy-making.

The key components of policy network analysis are interactions of institutions accompanied by negotiations of actors’ expectations and interests. With regard to sport, there are numerous networks operating at European level (such as the EU Sport Forum, EU Platform for Sport, Experts Groups and EU Working Groups) with a social and educational interest in sports,



which are involved in the decision-making for sport and influence the national policy-making. What is achieved is collective decision-making, exchange of ideas and sharing of information and resources which are the elements of the 'policy transfer' outcome of Europeanisation.

One of the main cognitive tools for policy formulation is the Open Method of Coordination (OMC). The OMC is a mechanism of policy transfer and diffusion through a process of mutual learning (Hodson & Maher 2001; Radaelli 2000), generating changes in the key policy actors' behaviour. It is commonly used in policy areas that maintain the Member States' sovereignty and EU intervenes with soft regulation, such as in sport. The OMC fosters policy convergence through learning processes, spreading best practices and exchanging ideas for national policies and structures. Such an example of OMC is the structured dialogue among EU, Member States and sport stakeholders in order to meet common goals for sport.

Europeanisation is examined as a horizontal process due to the position of sport (as a social-related factor) within the EU legislative framework. Given that the EU only has a supporting role in sport policy-making through declarations, recommendations, decisions and subsidising, it is argued that EU initiatives for the social aspects of sport, recommended in the White Paper on Sport, consist a soft-law approach to Europeanisation. It is therefore claimed that adaptational (that could be called institutional or cultural) changes took place as a result of a 'misfit' between EU and Greek processes, institutions and perceptions for sport. In the case of Greece, change in sport policy took the form of 'absorption' based on mimetic mechanism of Europeanisation.

An important factor for exerting EU pressure at national level is funding. Subsidies are increasingly seen as ways of attracting partners and supporting them in the execution of a policy which is outlined by the EU. In this context, the current study supports that EU-funded programmes run as 'facilitating factors' to adapt to EU pressures for the inclusion of sport in other policies at national level such as education and training, public health, youth, citizenship, social inclusion, fight against racism and environmental protection. It is apparent that in the above areas, EU actions provide a platform for exchange and dialogue among sport stakeholders, spreading good practice and promoting the development of European networks in the field of sport. Concluding, European Community funding Programmes consist valuable Europeanisation instruments. They promote changes which are agreed on supranational level

and implemented at national levels, by supporting the development of common policies and activities in the field of sport.

In the case of EU-funded programmes, it is evident that EU has developed new modes of cooperation with national sport authorities in order to get closer to European citizens through sport. As one of the main objectives of the EU programmes is to develop a European identity and European citizenship through sport, EU also promotes the participation of Member-States in transnational projects which foster the exchange of ideas, the co-operation and generally bring a greater 'matching' in cultures. On the other hand, through transnational projects, national actors participate in diverse sport-related policy networks in order to influence and/or adjust to supranational policy arena and increase their capacity to absorb EU funds. This can be described as a relationship of mutual sport-related interests, whereby both the EU and Member States interact in the EU funding process.

In brief, in the area of sport policy, EU operates within the competencies provided by the Treaty and according to the principle of subsidiarity. The EU political position and strategic orientation in the social and educational field of sport were formulated in the 'White Paper on Sport' and the accompanied document 'Action Plan Pierre de Coubertin'. Within this framework, the EU intervention in the social dimension of sport has two dimensions: as a form of financial support through funding Programmes and as a new mode of Governance such as the OMC. European Programmes were examined as instruments of Europeanisation, which support the development of common policies and activities in the field of sport. Additionally, EU provides the platform for dialogue and cooperation among sport stakeholders, Member States and European institutions in order to enhance policy transfer which leads inevitably to policy convergence. In the framework of the OMC, structured dialogue and policy cooperation for sport at EU level can be considered mediating factors to apply EU pressure at national sport actors.

Within this concept, the study argued on the relation of sport with cultural and public policies and it acknowledged its contribution to the integration process. The recent developments of sport in the European Union, especially after the landmark of the '1995 Bosman case', have been discussed in order to describe the legal and policy framework of sport in Europe. In brief, although the European Union has been increasingly involved in the regulation of certain aspects of sport during the last 30 years, it could only apply already established EU

law principles and practices while EU sport-related actions were supported by other EU policies promoting, among others, the social and educational function of sport. Only in 2009, the Treaty of Lisbon provided a legal EU competence for sport, thus paving the way towards an EU sport policy.

In the concluding part of this dissertation there is a wish to answer shortly the research questions set at the beginning of this study and analysed during the investigation.

*1) Why the EU has an interest in the social and educational function of sport? What are the main social problems Europe is facing and how they can be comforted through the social and educational instruments of sport?*

The EU is a unique case of polity formation and its mission is the preservation of peace as well as the economic prosperity in Europe. In order to reach those goals, the EU is trying to strengthen the European integration process through different policy fields that gain importance on the EU policy agenda, such as sport. Acknowledging the multidimensional role of sport in contemporary society, the European Union has enhanced its actions to be involved in sport matters and to exploit the opportunities and the special characteristics of sport in order to accomplish EU strategic goals as well as to deal with sport-related threats such as doping, racism and violence. Sport has also served as a tool to fight other negative phenomena such as obesity, health issues and social exclusion. Besides, EU had to regulate the economic dimension of professional sport in order to bring sporting rules in line with EU law. Consequently, during the last three decades, sport has attracted great interest in European Union and has been a challenging issue on the EU agenda with the purpose to form an EU-level sport policy. The 2007 White Paper on sport and the ratification of the 2009 Lisbon Treaty were fundamental for the current framework of the European sport policy and governance.

*2) How does EU intervene in sport linked to the promotion of its social and educational role? What difference did the White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty make in the EU sport policy-making? What are the EU actions recommended in the White Paper on Sport?*

Before the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty, the EU had no jurisdiction in the area of sport. The EU policy for sport was the result of relevant European Court of Justice (ECJ) decisions. The regulation safeguarding the four freedoms (the free movement of goods, services, capital and persons) provided the legal basis for influencing the nature of sport-related policies.

Sporting issues were regulated as an economic activity that falls under EU economic principles. Additionally, sport was used as an instrument for further socio-political integration and it was included in other policy areas such as culture, education, social inclusion, health, youth, etc.

In 2007 the European Commission adopted the ‘White Paper on Sport’, as a comprehensive framework for sport in the EU that covers the social, economic and organisational function of sport. The objective of this initiative was to enhance the visibility of sport in EU policy-making, to ensure that the specificity of sport is taken into consideration in the development and implementation of EU policies and to promote and support financially sport-related action at EU level, while respecting the principle of subsidiarity, the autonomy of sport organizations and the legislative framework of EU (Commission of the European Communities, 2007c). More specifically, the White Paper on Sport and the accompanying Action Plan ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ were essential soft-law instruments for the promotion of sport through other policy areas, suggesting a number of actions to be implemented at EU level and a series of European Community Programmes that support sport -not only financially- through other policies improving Member States’ cooperation and strengthening structured dialogue on sport.

*3) What is the context of the EU sport policy? Who are the key EU institutions and sport stakeholders in the European policy arena and what is their role in shaping the sport policy at European level?*

The current legislative framework for sport indicates that EU level sport policy has no specific legal base and is therefore currently governed by general provisions of the Treaty on the internal market, the jurisprudence of the ECJ and the decisions of the European Commission. The 2009 Treaty of Lisbon goes even further in recognising sport as a strand of EU policy field. It includes sport among the areas in which the EU can take supporting, coordinating or complementary action and again makes specific reference to its social and educational functions. It can therefore be stated that sport, whenever it represents an economic activity, falls under the scope of EC rules. Whenever EU deals with the social, educational and cultural aspects of sport, it acts under the various Treaty provisions and Declarations, exerting pressure on national sport policies.

Although the Lisbon Treaty does not provide EU with an explicit power in the area of sport, it does offer the EU a competence to directly carry out actions to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States in the field of sport. Most importantly, the Treaty gives the EU the possibility to define a sport policy, to incorporate sport into the work of the Council of Ministers and to fund an EU Sport programme (Siekmann, 2012), while sport organisations and Member States still have the main responsibility for implementing sporting issues and defining sport rules as there is so far no legal framework for sport.

Sport has gained an important share in EU policy agenda and various European and international sport actors are involved in the decision-making for sport. Regarding the EU institutions, the Commission and specifically the Directorate-General for Education and Culture is the primary initiator regarding sport policy in the EU. The Council of Ministers and the Member States have played a more dominant role regarding the formal process of policy harmonisation, holding primary and secondary law-making functions and power of soft-law and agenda-setting (Parrish, 2003a). More recently, the European Parliament and particularly the Committee of Culture and Education, which holds legislative, scrutiny and budgetary power, has been strongly involved in sport policy-making promoting the social and educational dimensions of sport. Lastly, the role of the European Court of Justice is vital as long as sport consists and economic activity and falls within the scope of competition law. Other international sport stakeholders such as the sport movement, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the European Olympic Committee (EOC), International sport Federations and especially FIFA and UEFA also play a key role in lobbying and networking for the representation of their interest in the sport platform. In the context of the negotiation process, conflicts and alliances occur in order to safeguard the sovereignty in professional sport, to promote the specificity of sport, to integrate the social and educational value of sport in other policies and to harmonise the social and economic interests in sport.

#### *4) What is the policy framework for the EU and Member-States' interaction?*

The multi-layered structure of the EU has stimulated the involvement of various national, supranational and EU institutions in the decision-making for sport. The growth of lobbying and the structural complexity of the decision-making process within the Union, which facilitates the 'open access' to EU agenda-setting for sport, indicates that Europeanisation of policy is occurring (Matthews, 1999). Under the Europeanisation mechanism of the Open Method of Coordination, Member States engage in cooperative and structured dialogue. EU

and sport stakeholders are the main instruments for policy diffusion, mutual learning and change in the beliefs and perceptions and they are the main actors in the process leading to sport policy convergence. The operation and interrelation of EU institutions, policy networks and national governments in sport policy-making reveal the horizontal patterns of Europeanisation when EU sport initiatives are employed in national sport policies.

*5) How sport policy is structured in Greece? Who are the key national sport policy-makers?*

In Greece, the regulatory framework of sport and the obligations of the State are determined by Presidential Decrees. The Parliamentary Standing Committee of Educational Affairs has an important role in planning and directing sport policy in Greece and setting the legislative framework for sport. It is responsible for supervising the implementation of policies and programmes of the respective Ministry and its agencies such as the General Secretariat of Sport (GSS).

Sport is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Culture<sup>48</sup> while it is supervised by the General Secretariat of Sport (GSS). The Ministry's role in sport is supportive without any direct involvement in planning the development of sport. Its function is to determine and administer the GSS's grants and to establish the general sport policy framework. The GSS is the top state authority for sport with specific competences. As an administrative body, its goal is to support sport bodies financially and organizationally, contributing to the formation and implementation of the national sport policy. The GSS supervises the local sports organizations and supports the national federations and the sport clubs of amateur or professional activity. Actually, national sport federations are the supreme regulatory and disciplinary body of the sport within their national territory and are in charge of the administration of sport at national level, including national competitions.

The main areas of regulation at national level except professional and amateur sport are school sport, physical education curriculum, sport for people with disabilities, 'Sport for All' and the fight against doping and violence in sport. This study also sheds light on the role of other Governmental Bodies including: a) the National Council to Combat Doping, which

---

<sup>48</sup> At the time of submission of this dissertation, the competent authority for sport was the Ministry of Culture, Education and Religion that was established on 27/1/2015. The new Ministry merged responsibilities of the former Ministry of Education and Religion and the former Ministry of Culture and Sport. Since January 2015 and until the time of submission of the thesis (end of 2016), the Minister for Sport is Mr. Stavros Kontonis.

implements anti-doping actions and programmes at national level, b) the Standing Committee to Combat Violence, which prevents the violence in sport and c) the National Council of Sport Planning, which consults the Minister responsible for sport in designing the national sport strategy. Additionally, the GSS cooperates with non-Governmental Sport Bodies, such as the National Olympic Committee (NOC), the International Olympic Academy (IOA), the National sport Federations (NFs), the Sport Clubs and the Local Authorities. Finally, in the case of Greece, the ministries of culture, education, health and social affairs and their relative agencies seem to be the key decision-makers for the implementation or else adoption at national level of the EU policies or initiatives related to sport.

*6) Does the EU exert pressure on Member States for policy convergence in the field of sport and if yes, how? What are the relevant policy instruments and mechanisms?*

The EU intervention in the area of sport has many implications. The current study claims that the EU pressure for policy convergence is exerted through EU initiatives, as recommended in the White Paper on Sport. Consequently, the EU impact has been examined in terms of the Greek participation in the following EU sport-related initiatives: Sport Ministers' and Directors' Meetings, the European Sport Forum, EU sport-related working Groups, the European Community funding Programmes, studies on sport aspects, Eurobarometer, structured dialogue and cooperation with Member States. As mentioned previously, the OMC, through structured dialogue and cooperation as well as the EC funding Programmes are treated in this study as instruments of Europeanisation as they exert adaptational pressure to Member States and reinforce the process of policy transfer, mutual learning and diffusion of ideas and best practices. From another perspective, mimesis is another tool of EU adjustment for a dynamic approach to institutional change which is also an effect of Europeanisation.

In general, these tools of EU adjustment can change the key sport actors' behaviour and perception. This illustrates that the EU provokes change not only on policy and institutions but also on the ideas and values of sport policy-makers. In this context, the Europeanisation of Greek sport policy was examined in terms of '*framing domestic beliefs and expectations*', as the EU does not have an institutionalised sport policy for social and educational aspects and EU decisions have more a form of recommendation rather than a regulatory base. Furthermore, the EU institutions have mainly a supporting role whereas national governments

control the policy-making in sport at national level, thus this mechanism is expecting to influence the ideas of national sport actors and the policy practices.

*7) Which European funding Programmes are applied to sport and which are the goals to be accomplished? How these programmes are implemented by Member States and especially in Greece?*

The European Programmes were examined in this work as instruments of Europeanisation, implemented at national level. They refer to national and transnational projects which aim to identify and test suitable networks and good practices in the field of sport promoting the social and educational dimension of sport. The overall goal of EC Programmes is to develop a European dimension in sport by promoting active citizenship, social cohesion and a sense of European identity.

According to the White Paper on Sport, the EU recommends the adoption of actions in several social-oriented areas of sport such as public health and physical activity, fight against doping, education, volunteering in sport, active citizenship, social inclusion, fight against violence and racism and sustainable development. Under these areas of social concern, the European Programmes promoted for the period 2007-2013 are: the Public Health Programme (for health), the Lifelong Learning Programme (for education), the Youth in Action Programme (for volunteering), the Europe for Citizens Programme (for active citizenship), the Progress Programme (for social inclusion), the Fundamental Rights and Citizenship and the Daphne III (for the fight against violence and racism) and last, the Life+ Programme (for the environment). Needless to say that any social field of sport can be incorporated and supported by more than one Programmes. Additionally, the 'Preparatory Action in the field of sport' (2009-2013) is another funding initiative that promoted all the above areas of social concern with the intention to prepare possible future EU actions for sport in the view of the implementation of the Lisbon Treaty. In the case of Greece, national coordinating bodies intervene in order to promote, support and implement the programmes at domestic level. From the research findings it is revealed that the Greek participation in the European Programmes, which is an indicator of Europeanisation, is representative. Additionally, the Erasmus+ Programme (2014-2020) is a well-promising programme that supports pure sport projects in order to enhance the value of sport in the society, incorporate sport in public policy actions and boost sport policy initiatives at national level. Erasmus+ Programme is a significant mechanism for policy transfer and mutual learning and it consists a valuable



instrument of Europeanisation. As Erasmus+ has generated a great interest for participation from the national organisations, it would be interesting to see the outcome of such an involvement in the future.

*8) What is the impact of the EU level sport policy at national level and especially in the case of Greece? Is there a change in the Greek sport policy as a result of EU sports-related interventions (pressures)?*

As it is argued in this study, the Europeanisation of sport policy is regarded as a learning process about a good policy practice where EU offers a forum for discussion and a platform for policy transfer among Member States (Bulmer & Radaelli, 2004). The domestic impact of Europeanisation is approached as a process of socialization, discourse or else ‘policy learning’ which leads to cognitive convergence. In line with the policy learning process of Europeanisation, Member States adopt best practices, and virtually change their domestic policies in order to achieve convergence with EU requirements. Change occurs through a process of learning and policy-transfer among Member States, depending on the horizontal mechanisms of Europeanisation. In the case of the Greek social and educational-oriented sport policy, change is less apparent in sport policies, institutions, rules and procedures and more in the perceptions, expectations, preferences, ideas and values of national key sport actors. In the case of sport, ‘learning’ opportunities are offered at European level through ad hoc meetings, forums, networks, structured dialogue and cooperation among stakeholders and key decision-makers. The degree of domestic change in the case of the Greek sport policy can be characterized as ‘absorption’ where Greece incorporates selectively the European requirements and/or initiatives into the national sport institutions and policies without substantial modifications of existing structures. This is because sport policy in the European arena is still ‘indirect’ or else ‘supportive’ and national governments still maintain their sovereignty in the field of sport.

The interest of the Greek sport leadership for greater involvement in EU activities can be explained by the opportunities rising after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty. Specifically, the new EU sport Programme ‘Erasmus+’, the cooperation with other Member States and the participation in sport affairs at European level, offer funding, networking, organizational and institutional opportunities at national level.

Summarising the content of this thesis, the Europeanisation in sport policy was examined as a cross-loading channel of policy transfer and social learning within the European arena and among Member States, where Greece is a part of the chain. It is claimed that this socialisation has led Greece to cultural changes. These changes are less obvious in institutional norms and more evident in the actors' perceptions. For instance, sport policy-making is particularly relevant for building a European identity and sharing 'European values'. Moreover, under the lenses of new modes of governance, such as the Open Method of Coordination, it is recognised that the EU has a coordinating function in bringing together various levels of governmental and European institutions to accomplish common goals such as the development of a European identity through sport and the promotion of the social and educational values of sport.

Europeanisation is approached as a horizontal process for a soft-law policy such as sport where the misfit between European and national policy leads to EU pressures for domestic change. This is because the educational and social dimension of sport policy is applied to soft regulation without direct adaptational pressure. It is mainly exerted through the Open Method of Coordination and the promotion of funding opportunities that act as facilitating tools for policy change reinforcing policy transfer, cooperation, collective learning, diffusion of ideas and best practices.

In conclusion, the research results indicate that, although it is too early to make assumptions on the Europeanisation of the sport policy, as it is a policy area that is still being formed at EU level, during the period 2007-2013 the EU influence in the Greek sport policy has gradually grown. The White Paper on Sport and the Lisbon Treaty have created new opportunities for the social dimension of sport, that could not leave Greek sport policy unaffected. Although, the EU pressure for change in the sport-related policy-making rely on weak and indirect mechanisms, such as cooperation, networking, policy transfer, discourse and funding incentives, the EU impact is mainly apparent in the national sport actors' beliefs, perceptions and expectations and less in the institutional and administrative structures and in the construction of new rules and procedures. It seems that Greece applies a selective adoption of EU initiatives and recommendations in order to accomplish particular goals, meet national priorities and gain particular benefits, in light of the new competence for sport after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty.

A significant area for further investigation is the new EU sport Programme. The new provisions of the Lisbon Treaty enable the set-up of a specific EU sport funding programme, called 'Erasmus+' (2014-2020), which will enhance the mainstreaming of sport into existing EU funding programmes (education, culture, youth, citizenship, environment, rural and urban development, humanitarian assistance, social issues, etc.). The great significance of this sport programme for the future of the European sport policy field is reflected in the dissemination of best practices and the development of comparable data, which provide evidence that network partnerships raise awareness of EU law in the sport sector, thus ensuring greater legal certainty for European sport. An additional field for further research could be the contribution of sport in the achievement of the objectives of the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth by improving employability and mobility, notably through actions promoting social inclusion in and through sport, supporting education and training and providing European guidelines for physical activity.

Providing some insights for further research as they appear from the weaknesses of this study, it is suggested that the notion of structured and social dialogue merits great attention for its implications in shaping the EU sport policy. Another area for further investigation is the notion of agenda-setting in EU studies in relation to the social function of sport in order to improve the understanding of the EU political system and the interest in sport. With regards to the process of Europeanisation, useful information could arise from comparative analysis of the European integration process in Northern and Southern Europe and its impact on the social-oriented policy-making for sport in the respective subregions. Moreover, there is a lack of academic investigation regarding the social value of sport policy as a process of vertical Europeanisation with 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' influences. Also, in light of the completion of the EC Programmes (2007-2013), the analytical assessment of the Greek participation in funding opportunities in terms of the output, alliances and coalitions, processes, obstacles and opportunities would be a valuable source of knowledge, which could allow better preparation for future funding programmes. Finally, another interesting topic for sport policy would be the agenda-setting, the sport policy strategy and the opportunities arouse -if any- at national level from the 2014 Greek presidency of the Council of the European Union.

Completing this study, it is important to mention that further consideration should be given to the developments in sport after the recent scandals in the leadership of sport organisations

such as bribery, match fixing and doping (see 8.5 section). These events have influenced sport governance creating ground for conflict of interests and interplay between international sport organisations, European institutions, national governments and sport bodies.

## REFERENCES

- Abercrombie, N., Hill, S. and Turner, B. (1984). *Dictionary of Sociology*. Armondsworth: Penguin.
- Acosta Hernández, R. (2002). *Managing sport organizations*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Adonnino, P. (1985). A People's Europe. Reports from the ad hoc Committee. *Bulletin of the European Communities*, Supplement 7/85.
- Alexopoulos, A. (2007). *Sport in the European Union from a Cypriot perspective*. Doctoral Thesis, Faculty of Physical Education and Sport Sciences, Semmelweis Hungary: University of Budapest. Retrieved on May 3, 2012, from [http://phd.sote.hu/mwp/phd\\_live/vedes/export/antonisalexopoulos.d.pdf](http://phd.sote.hu/mwp/phd_live/vedes/export/antonisalexopoulos.d.pdf)
- Andersen, S. and Eliassen, K. (1995). EU lobbying: the new research agenda. *European Journal of Political Research*, 27(4), 427–41.
- Anderson, B. (1990). Skeptical Reflections on a 'Europe of Regions': Britain, Germany, and the European Regional Development Fund. *Journal of Public Policy*, 10(4), 417-447.
- Arnaut, J. (2006). *Independent European Sport Review*. Retrieved on May 10, 2014, from [http://www.ethicsandsport.com/public/uploads/files/documentatie/Independent%20European%20Sport%20Review%202006%20Full\\_Report\\_EN.pdf](http://www.ethicsandsport.com/public/uploads/files/documentatie/Independent%20European%20Sport%20Review%202006%20Full_Report_EN.pdf)
- Armstrong, K. (2010). *Governing Social Inclusion Europeanization through Policy Coordination*. Oxford: Oxford Studies in European Law.
- Awesti, A. (2007). The European Union, New Institutionalism and Types of Multi-Level Governance. *Political Perspectives EPRU*, 2(8), 1-23.
- Bache, I. (2005). Europeanization and Britain: Towards Multi-Level Governance? *European Union Studies Association, Biennial Conference (9th), March 31-April 2, 2005*, Austin, Texas. Retrieved on September 15, 2013, from <http://aei.pitt.edu/3158/>
- Bache, I. (2006). *Europeanisation and Multi-Level Governance: Cohesion policy in the European Union and Britain*. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bache, I. and Jordan, A. (2006). Europeanization and Domestic Change. In Bache, I. and Jordan, A. (eds) *The Europeanization of British Politics*, pp. 17–36. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bailey, D., Malina, R. & Mirwald, R. (1986). The child, physical activity and growth. In Falkner F. and Tanner J. (eds) *Human Growth: Postnatal growth, neurology*, Vol. 2, pp. 147-170. New York: Plenum Press.
- Balley, S., Bucher, B., Petrelli, D., Ruas, A., van Kreveld, M., Sanderson, M. & Sester, M. (2004). *User Requirements Specification Reassessment*. Retrieved on June 12, 2012 from [www.geo-spirit.org/publications/SPIRIT\\_WP7\\_D3.pdf](http://www.geo-spirit.org/publications/SPIRIT_WP7_D3.pdf)
- BeActive FlashMOVE (2015, September 8). Retrieved on Aug 1, 2016 from <http://www.enallaktikos.gr/ar27874el-beactive-flashmove-xiliades-eyrwpaioi-tha-xorepsoyn-taytoxrona-poes-ellinikes-poleis-tha-symmetexoy.html>

- Becker, R. (2013). World Cup 2026 Now Accepting Bribes: A Fundamental Transformation of FIFA's World Cup Bid Process. *International Sports Law Journal*, Vol. 13 (1-2), p.p.132-147.
- Bell, J. (1999). *Doing your research project: A guide for first-time researchers in education and social science*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Blanpain, R, Colucci, M. and Hendrick, F. (2008). *The Future of Sports Law in the European Union: Beyond the EU Reform Treaty and the White Paper*. Kluwer Law International.
- Borrás, S. and Jacobsson, K. (2004). The Open Method of Co-ordination and New Governance Patterns in the EU. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 11(2), 185–208.
- Börzel T. (1997). What's so special about policy networks? An exploration of the concept and its usefulness in studying European governance. *European Integration online Papers*, (1)16. Retrieved on May 14, 2010, from <http://eiop.or.at/eiop/texte/1997-016.htm>.
- Börzel, T. (1998). The Greening of a Polity? The Europeanisation of Environmental Policy-Making in Spain. *Southern European Society and Politics*, 2(1), 65-92.
- Börzel, T. (1999). Towards Convergence in Europe? Institutional Adaptation to Europeanisation in Germany and Spain. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 37(4), 573-596.
- Börzel, T. (2003). Shaping and Taking EU Policies: Member State Responses to Europeanization. *Europeanisation Online Papers*, 1. Queen's University Belfast.
- Börzel, T. (2005). Europeanization: How the European Union Interacts with its Member States. In Bulmer, S. and Lesquesne, C. (eds.) *The Member States of the European Union*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Börzel, T. and Risse, T. (2000). When Europe Hits Home: Europeanization and Domestic Change. *European Integration Online Papers (EIoP)*, 4(15).
- Börzel, T., and T. Risse (2003) Conceptualising the domestic impact of Europe. In Featherstone, K. and Radaelli, C. (eds.) *The Politics of Europeanization*, pp. 57-82. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bramham, P., Henry, L., Mommas, H. and Van der Poel, H. (1993). *Leisure Policies in Europe*. UK: CAB International, Wallingford.
- Briggs, C. (1986). *Learning how to ask: A sociolinguistic appraisal of the role of the interview in social science research*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- British Broadcasting Corporation (2015). Lamine Diack: Ex-athletics chief investigated in corruption inquiry. Accessed on Dec 2, 2015, retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/sport/athletics/34721317>
- Brown, A. (2000). European Football and the European Union: Governance, Participation and Social Cohesion - Towards a Policy Research Agenda. *Soccer and Society*, 1(2) Summer 2000, 129-150. London: Frank Cass.
- Bryman, A. (1989). *Research Methods and Organisation Studies*. U.K.: Routledge.

- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bulmer, S. (1994). The Governance of the European Union: a New Institutional Approach. *Journal of Public Policy*, 13(4), 351-380.
- Bulmer, S. (1998). New institutionalism and the governance of the Single European Market. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 5(3), 365-386.
- Bulmer, S. and Burch, M. (2001). The Europeanization of Central Government: the UK and Germany in historical Institutional Perspective. In Schneider, G. and Aspinwall, M. (Eds) *The Rules of Integration: Institutional Approaches to the Study of Europe*, pp. 73-98. European Policy Research Unit Series Manchester University Press.
- Bulmer, S. and Lequesne, C. (2005). *The European Union and its Member States: An Overview. The Member States of the European Union*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bulmer, S. and Radaelli, C. (2004). The Europeanization of National Policy?. *Europeanisation Online Papers, 1*. Queen's University Belfast.
- Caporaso, J. and Keeler J. (1995). The European Union and Regional Integration Theory. In Rhodes, C. and Mazey, S. (ed), *The State of the European Union: Building a European Polity?*, pp. 29-62. Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Caramani, D. (2015). *The Europeanisation of Politics: The Formation of a European Electorate and Party System in Historical Perspective*. Cambridge University Press: N.Y.
- Cavanagh, S. (1997). Content analysis: concepts, methods and applications. *Nurse Researcher*, 4, 5-16.
- Chapman, R. (2005). *Community Sector Participation, Empowerment and Legitimacy: The Community Action Plan Approach in the EU Objective 1 Programme, 2000-2006*. South Yorkshire, Sheffield: The University of Sheffield.
- Chatzigianni, E. (2007). *Pressuring for decision. [Piezontas gia apofasi]*. Athens: Papazisi.
- Chatzigianni, E. (2010). Sport lobbying in the European Union: An empirical analysis. *Sport & EU review*, 2 (2), 4-24. Retrieved on Jan 20, 2012, from: [www.sportandeu.com/wp\\_content/uploads/2010/11/SportEU\\_Review2010](http://www.sportandeu.com/wp_content/uploads/2010/11/SportEU_Review2010)
- Chatzigianni, E. (2014). Pluralism and Corporatism in Sport Interest Representation. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 6(1), 19-36.
- Checkel, J. (1999). Social construction and integration. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 6(4), 545-560.
- Cheyne, C., O'Brien, M. and Belgrave, M. (2005). *Social Policy in Aotearoa/New Zealand: A Critical Introduction*, 3rd edition. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Christodoulos, A., Douda, H., Polykratis, M. and Tokmakidis, S. (2006). Attitudes towards exercise and physical activity behaviours in Greek schoolchildren after a year long health education intervention. *Br J Sports Med*, 40(4), 367-71.

- Chrysochoou, D. (2009). *Theorizing European Integration*, (2nd edition). London and New York: Routledge.
- Chrysochoou, D., Tsinisizelis, M., Stavridis, S. and Ifantis, K. (2003). *Europe in Change: Theory and Reform in the European Union*, (2nd edition). Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Chrysochoou, D. (2001). *Theorizing European Integration*. London: SAGE Publications LTD.
- Cini, M. (2003). *European Union Politics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cobb, R., Jeannie, K. and Marc, H. (1976). Agenda Building as a Comparative Political Process. *American Political Science Review*, 70(1), 126-138.
- Commission of the European Communities (1998a). *The development and prospects for community action in the field of sport*, Commission staff working paper. Brussels: European Commission.
- Commission of the European Communities (1998b). *The European model of sport: consultation document of DG X*. Brussels: European Commission.
- Commission of the European Communities (1998c). *Commission communication: A People's Europe*. (COM(88) 331 final) of 24 June 1988.
- Commission of the European Communities (1999). Report from the European Commission to the European Council with a view to safeguarding current sports structures and maintaining the social function of sport within the community framework - the Helsinki Report on Sport – COM(1999) 644 final. Brussels, 10.12.1999.
- Commission of the European Communities (2001). *Involving experts in the process of national policy convergence*. Report by Working Group 4a preparing the White Paper on European Governance, June 2001.
- Commission of the European Communities (2005). Commission Staff Working Document, Annex to the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: *The EU action in the field of Education through Sport: building on EYES 2004 achievements* (Article 12 of Decision 291/2003/EC) {COM(2005)680 final} Brussels, 22.12.2005, SEC(2005) 1741.
- Commission of the European Communities (2007a). *White Paper on Sport*. (COM [2007] 391 final).
- Commission of the European Communities (2007b). *Action plan Pierre de Coubertin, accompanying document to the White Paper on Sport*. SEC (2007) 934.
- Commission of the European Communities (2007c). *Commission Staff working document. The EU and sport: background and context, accompanying document to the White Paper on Sport*. SEC (2007) 935.
- Commission of the European Communities (2007d). *The White Paper on Sport: frequently asked questions*, MEMO/07/290.



- Commission of the European Communities (2007e). Commission Staff working document. Impact assessment accompanying document to the White Paper on Sport. SEC(2007) 932/2.
- Commission of the European Communities (2007f). White Paper on a Strategy for Europe on Nutrition, Overweight and Obesity related health issues. (COM(2007) 279 final).
- Coopers & Lybrand (1995). *Report: The Impact of European Union Activities on Sport*. Brussels: European Commission. 17 Loy. L.A. Int'l & Comp. L. Rev. 245. Retrieved on March 3, 2011, from <http://digitalcommons.lmu.edu/ilr/vol17/iss2/1>
- Corbett, R., Jacobs, F. and Shackleton, M. (2005). *The European Parliament* (6<sup>th</sup> edition). London: John Harper.
- Council of Europe (2001). *The European Sport Charter* (revised). Brussels.
- Council of Europe Committee of Ministers (1992). Recommendation No. R (92) 13 Rev of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on the Revised European Sports Charter.
- Council of the European Union (2010). Press Release 9456/10, 3013th Council meeting Education, Youth and Culture, 10-11 May, 2010. Brussels.
- Craig, P. and De Búrca, G. (2003). *EU Law: Text, Cases and Materials* (3rd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- DaCosta, L. and Miragaya, A. (2002). *Worldwide Experiences and Trends in Sport for All*. Oxford: Meyer & Meyer Sport.
- Dale, A., Arber, S. and Proctor, M. (1988). *Doing Secondary Analysis*. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Dale, R. (1999). Specifying globalization effects on national policy: a focus on the mechanisms. *Journal of Education Policy*, 14(1), 1–17.
- De Wolff, M. (2016). Playing for the same team? The trio Presidency and agenda-management in European Union sport policy. *Doctoral Thesis*. Loughborough University.
- De Wolff, M. (2013). EU sport policy after Lisbon: The implementation of Article 165 TFEU. *14th Annual UACES Student Forum Research Conference, 8-9 July 2013*. Loughborough University.
- Denscombe, M. (2000). *The Good Research Guide for Small-Scale Social Research Projects*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. (1983). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48, 147-160.
- Dimitrakopoulos D. and Passas, A. (2004). *Greece in the European Union*. New York: Routledge.

- Dyson, K. (2000). EMU as Europeanization: Convergence, Diversity and Contingency. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 38/4, 645-666.
- Dyson, K. and Goetz, K. (2003). Living with Europe: Power, Constraint and Contestation. In Dyson, K., and Goetz, K. (eds) *Germany, Europe and the Politics of Constraint*, pp. 3-37. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Egeberg, M. (2001). How federal? The organizational dimension of integration in the EU (and elsewhere). *Journal of European Public Policy*, 8(5), 728- 746.
- Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14(4) Oct, 532-550.
- Elo S. & Kynga S. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107–115.
- EU Sport Platform (2013). Retrieved on 25 June, 2013, from <http://www.eusportsplatform.eu/>
- European Commission (1996). Note de la DG4 présentée à la Commission: Conséquences de l'arrêt Bosman; affaire C 414/93 de la Court de Justice. SEC (1996) 212/1, 1st February.
- European Commission (2006). *Youth in Action Programme guide*. Retrieved on November 5, 2010, from [http://ec.europa.eu/youth/tools/documents/guide13\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/youth/tools/documents/guide13_en.pdf)
- European Commission (2009a). Official website. Retrieved on June 14, 2009, from [http://ec.europa.eu/sport/who-we-are/doc129\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/sport/who-we-are/doc129_en.htm)
- European Commission (2009b). Official website. Retrieved on June 14, 2009, from [http://ec.europa.eu/sport/consultation-cooperation/doc77\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/sport/consultation-cooperation/doc77_en.htm)
- European Commission (2009c). Official website. Retrieved on June 14, 2009, from [http://ec.europa.eu/sport/information-center/information-center157\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/sport/information-center/information-center157_en.htm)
- European Commission (2009d). Commission Decision C(2009)1685 of 16 March 2009 adopting the '2009 annual work programme on grants and contracts for the preparatory action in the field of sport and for the special annual events'. Retrieved on June 14, 2010, from [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education\\_culture/calls/docs/sport09.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/calls/docs/sport09.pdf)
- European Commission (2010). *Special Eurobarometer 334, Sport and Physical Activity*. Eurobarometer 72.3., Belgium.
- European Commission (2011). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions *Developing the European dimension in sport*. COM/2011/0012 final, Brussels, 18.1.2011.
- European Commission (2012). *Erasmus for All*. Retrieved on May 20, 2012, from <http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus-for-all/>

- European Commission (2014a). *Erasmus+ Programme Guide*. Retrieved on November 30, 2014, from [http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/documents/erasmus-plus-programme-guide\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/documents/erasmus-plus-programme-guide_en.pdf)
- European Commission (2014b). *Report from the Commission on the implementation of the European Union Work Plan for Sport 2011-2014*. COM(2014) 22 final.
- European Commission (2015). *BeActive: 2015 European Week of Sport. Evaluation Report*. Directorate-General for Education and Culture.
- European Commission (2016). *DG EAC: Our Management*. Retrieved on Aug 1, 2016 from [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education\\_culture/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/index_en.htm)
- European Council (1993). Decision 93/136/EEC Establishing a Third Community Action Programme to Assist Disabled People (Helios II 1993 to 1996). *Official Journal of European Communities*. Publications Office European Communities; Brussels, Belgium.
- European Council (2000). Nice Declaration: Declaration on the specific characteristics of sport and its social function in Europe. Conclusions of the Presidency, Annex VI.
- European Council (2001). Intergovernmental Conference, Declaration on the Future of the European Union, or Laeken Declaration.
- European Council (2010). Official website. Retrieved June 14, 2010, from <http://www.european-council.europa.eu/the-president?lang=en>
- European Council (2011). Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on a European Union Work Plan for Sport for 2011-2014 [OJ C 162 of 1.6.2011].
- European Council (2014). Resolution of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on a European Union Work Plan for Sport for 2014-2017 [OJ C 183/12 of 14.6.2014].
- European Olympic Committee-EU Office (2011). Guide to EU sport policy. Retrieved June 2015, from [http://www.euoffice.eurolympic.org/files/guide\\_to\\_eu\\_sport\\_policy\\_final\\_versionwithlinks.pdf](http://www.euoffice.eurolympic.org/files/guide_to_eu_sport_policy_final_versionwithlinks.pdf)
- European Parliament (2007). REPORT on the role of sport in education (2007/2086(INI)) Committee on Culture and Education, Rapporteur Pal Schmitt.
- European Union (1992). Treaty of Maastricht, Amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties Establishing the European Communities and Certain Related Acts. *Official Journal of the European Union* 1992/C 191 of 29 September 1992.
- European Union (1999). Treaty of Amsterdam Amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties Establishing the European Communities and Certain Related Acts. *Official Journal of the European Union*, 1997/C 340 of 10 November 1997.
- European Union (2000). Treaty of Nice, Amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties Establishing the European Communities and Certain Related Acts, 11 December 2000, *Official Journal of the European Union* 2001/C 80 of 10 March 2001.

- European Union (2007). Treaty of Lisbon Amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty Establishing the European Community, *Official Journal of the European Union* 2007/C 306 of 17 December 2007.
- European Year of Education through Sport (2004). *Sport as a vehicle for Europeanisation*. Vivian Reding EU-Commissioner for Education and Culture and patron of the EYES 2004. Retrieved on 10 Sept 2011, from [http://web18.s112.typo3server.com/fileadmin/press\\_releases/MonthlyTopicMay.pdf](http://web18.s112.typo3server.com/fileadmin/press_releases/MonthlyTopicMay.pdf)
- EY ZHN, (2010). Official website. Retrieved on May 10, 2010, from [http://eyzin.minedu.gov.gr/Pages/Teachers/Teachers\\_Actions\\_Conferences.aspx](http://eyzin.minedu.gov.gr/Pages/Teachers/Teachers_Actions_Conferences.aspx)
- Featherstone, K. (1998). 'Europeanization' and the centre periphery: the case of Greece in the 1990s. *South European Society and Politics*, 3(1), 23-39.
- Featherstone, K. and Kazamias, G. (2001). Introduction: southern Europe and the process of "Europeanization". In Featherstone, K. and Kazamias, G. (eds.) *Europeanization and the Southern Periphery*, pp.1-24. London: Frank Cass.
- Featherstone, K. and Radaelli, C. (2003). The Europeanization of Public Policy. In Featherstone K, and Radaelli C (eds) *The Politics of Europeanization*, pp. 27-56. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Field, H. (1998). *EU Cultural Policy and the Creation of a Common European Identity*. Retrieved on May 16, 2011, from <http://www.pols.canterbury.ac.nz/ECSANZ/papers/Field.htm>
- Finn, M. (2000). *Tourism and leisure research methods: data collection, analysis and interpretation*. Harlow: Longman.
- Flesch, C. (1996). Speech delivered by Colette Flesch, Director-General 'Audiovisual, Media, Information, Communication and Culture', in Implications of European Community Directives on Sports, Luxembourg 16 and 17 November 1993, Luxembourg Antenna of the European Institute of Public Administration. Luxembourg.
- Fletcher, M. (2003). EU Governance Techniques in the Creation of a Common European Policy on Immigration and Asylum. *European Public Law*, 9, 533-563.
- Fox, K. (1997). The physical self and processes in self-esteem development. In K.R. Fox (Ed.), *The Physical Self: From Motivation to Well-Being*, pp. vii-xiii. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Garcia, B. (2006). The European Union and Sport, rescuing the nation-state?. In *ECPR Joint Sessions of Workshops*, Workshop 'Sport, Politics and Public Policy', Nicosia, Cyprus, 202-223.
- García, B. (2007). From Regulation to Governance and Representation: Agenda-Setting and the EU's involvement in Sport. *Entertainment and Sports Law Journal*, 5(1), 1-13.
- García, B. (2008). *The European Union and the Governance of Football: A Game of Levels and Agenda*, Doctoral thesis. UK: Loughborough University.

- Gargalianos, D. and Asimakopoulos, M. (2006). *Structure and Organisation of Greek Sport*. Athens: Klidarithmos.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1975a). Charter of Greece.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1975b). Legislative Decree 3769/1957 “Measures for organizing Extracurricular Sport”.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1975c). Law 75/1975 (ΦΕΚ 138 Α'). Legislative Framework for Extracurricular Sport.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1985a). Presidency Decree 77/1985 (ΦΕΚ 28 Α'). Organising the General Secretariat of Sport.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1985b). Law 1566/1985 (ΦΕΚ 121 Α'). Amateur and Professional Sport and other provisions.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (1999). Law 2725/1999 (ΦΕΚ 167 Α'). Physical Education in Primary and Secondary Education.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2002). Law 3057/2002 (ΦΕΚ 239 Α'). Modification of Law 2725/1999.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2005). Law 3372/2005 (ΦΕΚ 187 Α'). Modification of Law 2725/1999.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2008). Law 3708/2008 (ΦΕΚ 210 Α'). Fight against violence in occasion of sporting events and other provisions.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2010a). Presidency Decree 96/2010 (ΦΕΚ 170 Α'). Reallocation of Ministries' responsibilities.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2010b). Law 3852/2010 (ΦΕΚ 87 Α'). The new architecture of the governmental and decentralized administration–Programme Kallirates.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2012). Law 4049/2012 (ΦΕΚ 35 Α'). Fight against violence in sport arenas, doping, match fixing and other provisions.
- Gazette of the Greek Government (2015). Law 4326/2015 (ΦΕΚ 49 Α'). Fight against violence in sport and other provisions.
- Geeraert, A. (2013). *The role of the EU in better governance in international sports organisations*. Play the Game/Danish Institute for Sport Studies.
- General Secretariat of Sport (2016). Press Release, Official Website. Retrieved on June 25, 2013, from <http://www.gss.gov.gr/index.php/grafeio-tupou/deltia-tupou/>
- Geyer, R. (1996). EU Social Policy in the 1990s: Does Maastricht Matter? *Journal of European Integration*, 20(1), 5–33.
- Governmental Council of Reform (2013). *Reform Actions: Ministry of Education, Religion, Culture and Sport*. Retrieved on Sept 10, 2014 from [http://www.alfavita.gr/sites/default/files/attachments/organogramma-upoyrgeiou\\_paideias.pdf](http://www.alfavita.gr/sites/default/files/attachments/organogramma-upoyrgeiou_paideias.pdf)

- Gowland, D., O'Neill, B. and Reid, A. (1995). *The European Mosaic: contemporary politics, economics and culture*. London: Longman.
- Graziano, P. and Vink, M. (2007). *Europeanization: New Research Agendas*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Greek Ministry of Education (2010). Report of the Public Consultation on the development of the National Qualification Framework. Retrieved on Nov 5, 2010 from <http://www.opengov.gr/ypepth/?p=43>.
- Greenwood, J. (2003). *Interest Representation in the European Union*. Basingstoke: Palgrave. Macmillan.
- Gyss, N. (2008). Towards a European sport policy? *The Independents' Voice, KEA Newsletter*, (15). Retrieved on Oct 2, 2010 from <http://www.keanet.eu/news/sport%20in%20europe%20gb15.pdf>
- Haas, E. (1964). *Beyond the Nation-State: Functionalism and International Organization*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Haas, E. (1968). *The Uniting of Europe: Political, Social, and Economic Forces, 1950-1957*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Hall, P. and Taylor, R. (1996). Political Science and the Three New Institutionalisms. *Political Studies*, 44, 936-957.
- Halleux, V. (2015a). Anti-corruption measures in EU sports policy. At a glance, *European Parliamentary Research Service (EPRS)*.
- Halleux, V. (2015b). *EU sport policy: An overview*. European Parliamentary Research Service, Sept 2015.
- Hatzigeorgiadis, A., Morela, E., Elbe, A., Kouli, O. and Sanchez, X., (2013). The integrative role of sport in multicultural societies. *European Psychologist*, 18(3), 191-202.
- Haverland, M. (2003). The impact of the EU on environmental policies. In K. Featherstone and C. M. Radaelli (eds.) *The Politics of Europeanisation*, pp. 203-221. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hay, C. (2006). Constructivist Institutionalism. In Rhodes, R., Binder, S. and Rockman, B. (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of Political Institutions*, pp. 56-74. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hedetoft, U. (1995). National Identities and European Integration 'From Below': Bringing People Back In. *European Integration online Papers (EIoP)*, 6(1).
- Hill, A. (1997). *Understanding social policy* (5th edition). London: Blackwell publishers, Ltd.
- Hix, S. (1999). *The Political System of the European Union*. London: Palgrave.
- Hodson, D. and Maher, I. (2001). The open method as a new mode of governance: The case of soft economic policy co-ordination. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 39(4), 719-746.

- Hooghe, L. and Marks, G. (2001). *Multi-level governance and European integration*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Hooghe, L. (1996). *Cohesion Policy and European Integration: Building Multi-Level Governance*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hooliham B. (2005). Public Sector Sport Policy: Developing a Framework for Analysis. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 40, 163-185.
- Howell, K. (2004a). Conceptualisations of Europeanization: Developing Methodological Approaches. *Queens University On-Line Journal*, Paper 3, 1-15. Retrieved on Jun 20, 2011, from <http://www.qub.ac.uk/schools/SchoolofPoliticsInternationalStudiesandPhilosophy/Research/PaperSeries/EuropeanisationPapers/PublishedPapers/>
- Howell, K. (2004b). Up-loading, Downloading or European Integration? The Europeanization of Financial Services Regulation. *Politics*, 24(1), 20-25. Political Studies Association, Blackwell.
- Hoberman, J. (2015). What the FIFA Scandal Can Teach Us About World Sport and Global Governance. *UTNEWS*, University of Texas at Austin. Accessed on Dec 2, 2015, retrieved from <http://news.utexas.edu/2015/06/15/what-the-fifa-scandal-can-teach-us>
- Huberman, M. and Miles, M. (2002). *The Qualitative Researcher's Companion*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Hungarian School Sport Federation (2016). *European School Sport Day Toolkit*. Retrieved on Aug 1, 2016 from <http://www.essd.eu/downloads/>
- Ingham, A and Loy, J. (1993). *Sport in Social Development: Traditions, Transitions and Transformations*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- International Olympic Committee (2003). *Sport at the heart of European Union's new constitution*. Press release PR026/03/DC, 17 May, Lausanne.
- International Olympic Committee (2007). *Report of the IOC Panel of Experts: 1<sup>st</sup> Summer Youth Olympic Games in 2010*, 8 November 2007, Lausanne.
- International Olympic Committee, (2010). Common position of the Olympic and Sports Movement on the implementation of the new Treaty on the functioning of the European Union (TFEU) on sport (Lisbon Treaty). *Sport Forum 2010*, p. 4.
- International Olympic Committee (2011). *Olympic Charter in force as from 8 July 2011*, Lausanne.
- Ioakimidis, P. (1996). Contradictions in the Europeanisation Process. In Featherstone, K. and Ifantis, K. (eds.) *Greece in a Changing Europe: Between European Integration and Balkan Disintegration*, pp. 33–52. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Jacobsson, K. (2001). Employment policy co-ordination. A new system of EU governance. Paper for the Scancor workshop on “*Transnational regulation and the transformation of states*”. Stanford University, 22-23 June 2001.

- Jacobsson, K. (2002). Soft Regulation and the Subtle Transformation of States. The Case of EU Employment Policy. *SCORE Research Report*, 2002(4).
- Jones, S. (1985). The analysis of depth interviews. In Walker R. (ed.) *Applied qualitative research*, pp. 56-70. Gower: Aldershot.
- Jupille, J. and Caporaso, A. (1998). States, Agency, and Rules: The European Union in Global Environmental Politics. In Rhodes, C. (ed.) *The European Union in the World Community*, pp. 213–229. Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, Inc.
- Kallestrup, M. (2002). Europeanisation as a Discourse: Domestic Policy Legitimation through the Articulation of a Need for Adaptation. *Public Policy and Administration*, 17(2), 110–23.
- KEA European Affairs (2006). *The Economy of Culture in Europe*, European Commission. Study prepared for the European Commission (Directorate-General for Education and Culture), October 2006.
- Kingdon, J. (1995). *Agendas, Alternatives and Public Policies*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Kirk, J. and Miller, M. (1986). *Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Kleinman, M. (2002). *A European Welfare State? European Union social policy in context*. Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Knill, C. and Lehmkuhl, D. (1999), How Europe Matters. Different Mechanisms of Europeanization, *European Integration online Papers (EIoP)*, 3(7).
- Knill, C. and Lehmkuhl, D. (2002). The National Impact of European Union Regulatory Policy: Three Europeanization Mechanisms. *European Journal of Political Research*, 41(2), 255–280.
- Knill, C. and Lenschow, A. (2000). *Implementing EU Environmental Policy: New Directions and Old Problems*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Kohler-Koch B. and Eising A. (1999). *The Transformation of Governance in the European Union*. London: Routledge.
- Kohler-Koch, B. (1996): Catching Up With Change. The Transformation of Governance in the European Union, *Journal of European Public Policy*, (3)3, 359–380.
- Kohler-Koch, B. (1999). The Evolution and Transformation of European Governance. In Kohler-Koch, B. and Eising, A. (eds) *The Transformation of Governance in the European Union*, pp. 14-35. London: Routledge.
- Kourtikakis, K. (1997). Isomorphous Pressures and the European Union: Why Public Accountability Mechanisms Develop at the Supranational Level. *Doctoral Thesis*. University of Pittsburgh.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.



- Ladi, S. (2007). Europeanization and Policy Transfer: A Comparative Study of Policy Change in Greece and Cyprus”, 8th Mediterranean Research Meeting, *European University Institute*, Florence, Italy 21-25 March 2007.
- Ladi, S. (2006) “Globalisation and Europeanization: A Two Way Relationship”. In D. Xenakis and M. Tsinisizelis (ed.), *Global Europe: The International Dimensions of the EU*, p. 101-118. Athens: Sideris (in Greek).
- Ladi, S. (2005), Europeanization and Environmental Policy. *Policy and Society*, 24(2), 1-15.
- Laffan, B. (2002). 'Lisbon Europe': Experimental arrangements and new modes of governance. Paper presented at the *Conference on 'Policies, institutions and citizens in the knowledge society'*, Barcelona 6-7 May, 2002.
- Larionova, M. (2007). EU Education Policy Development Dynamics and Tools of the Open Method of Coordination. *UACES 38th Annual Conference*, 1-3 September 2008, Edinburgh. Retrieved on Dec 3, 2012, from [http://uaces.org/documents/papers/0801/2008\\_Larionova.pdf](http://uaces.org/documents/papers/0801/2008_Larionova.pdf)
- Lavdas, K. (1997). *The Europeanization of Greece: Interest Politics and the Crisis of Integration*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Lawton, T. (1999). Governing the Skies: Conditions for the Europeanisation of airline policy. *Journal of Public Policy*, 19(1), 91-112.
- Leibfried, S. (2005). European Social Policy: Left to Judges and the Market? In Wallace, H. Wallace, W. and Pollack, M. (eds.) *Policy-Making in the EU* (5th ed), pp. 245-278. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lindberg, L. (1963). *The political Dynamics of European Economic Integration*, Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Lodge, M. (2000). Isomorphism of National Policies? The ‘Europeanisation’ of German Competition and Public Procurement Law. *West European Politics*, 23(1), 89-107.
- Lowndes, V. (2010). The Institutional Approach. In Marsh, D. and Stoker, G. (eds.) *Theories and Methods in Political Science*, pp. 60-79. Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Macdonald, K. and Tipton, C. (1993). Using Documents. In N. Gilbert (ed.), *Researching Social Life*, pp. 135-153. London: Sage Publications.
- Maguire, J. (2011). Globalization and Sport: Beyond the Boundaries? *Sociology*, 45, 923-929.
- Major, C. (2005). Europeanization and Foreign and Security Policy: Undermining or Rescuing the Nation State. *Politics*, 25(3), 175-190.
- Marchand, J. (1990). *Sport for All in Europe*. London: HMSO.
- Marks, G. (1993). Structural Policy and Multilevel Governance in the EC. In Cafruny, A. and Rosenthal, G. (eds.) *The State of the European Community: The Maastricht Debates and Beyond*, Vol 2, pp. 391-410. Boulder Colorado: Lynne Rienner and London: Logman.

- Marks, G., Hooghe, L. and Blank, K. (1996). European integration from the 1980s: state-centric v. multi-level governance. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 34(3), 341–378.
- Marsh, D. and Rhodes, R. (1992). *Policy Networks in British Government*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Matthews, N. (1999). Sport, policy and Europeanisation: process and interest mediation in European Union decision making. *Doctoral Thesis*. Loughborough: Loughborough University. Retrieved on Jan 25, 2012, from <http://hdl.handle.net/2134/7267>
- McDonough, J. and McDonough, S. (1997). *Research Methods for English Language instructors*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Melograno, V. (1997). *Designing the physical education curriculum*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Miles, M. and Huberman, M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A source book for new methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miles, M. and Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An expanded Sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ministry of Education (2010). Official Website. Retrieved on June 14, 2010, from [http://www.opengov.gr/yypepth/?#comment\\_on](http://www.opengov.gr/yypepth/?#comment_on).
- Ministry of Education (2014). *Institutionalisation of the Greek national Sport School Day*. 143571/Γ4/10-09-2014/YPIAIΘ
- Ministry of Culture and Sport (2013). Press release 28/11/2013. Retrieved on Sept 10, 2014, from [http://www.yppo.gr/2/g22.jsp?obj\\_id=55473](http://www.yppo.gr/2/g22.jsp?obj_id=55473)
- Mogalakwe, M. (2006). The Use of Documentary Research Methods in Social Research. *African Sociological Review*, 10(1), 221-230.
- Moore, N. (1999). *How to Do Research: The Complete Guide to Designing and Managing Research Projects*. (3<sup>rd</sup> Revised ed). London: Library Association Publishing.
- Moravcsik, A. (1991). Negotiating the Single European Act: National Interests and Conventional Statecraft in the European Community. *International Organization*, 45(1), 19–56.
- Moravcsik, A. (1993). Preferences and power in the European Community: A liberal intergovernmentalist approach. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 31(4), 73–524.
- Moravcsik, A. (1998). *The Choice for Europe, Social Purpose and State Power from Messina to Maastricht*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Mplounas, T. (2014). Criminal prosecution for criminal organization. Accessed on Oct 10, 2015, retrieved from <http://www.kathimerini.gr/794495/article/epikairothta/a8lhtismos/poinikh-diw3h-gia-egklhmatikh-organwsh>

- Nassis, P. (1993). Analysis of Sports Policy in Greece, through a Strategic Relations Perspective 1980-93. *Doctoral Thesis*. Loughborough: Loughborough University.
- Nielsen, H. (2008). The Impact of Europeanization on Social Policy: A comparative analysis of social inclusion policies in Denmark and France 1998 – 2008. *Doctoral Thesis*. Denmark: Roskilde University.
- NowWeMove (2015, September, 10). Retrieved on Aug 1, 2016 from <http://www.nowwemove.com/about-nowwemove/>
- Nugent, N. (2006). *The Government and Politics of the European Union* (6th edition). Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillan.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2001a). Decision No 1350/2007/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 October 2007 establishing a second programme of Community action in the field of health (2008-2013).
- Official Journal of the European Union (2001b). Council Decision 2001/903/EC on the European Year of People with Disabilities.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2002). Council Decision 2002/348/JHA of 25 April 2002 concerning security in connection with football matches with an international dimension.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2003a). Decision No 291/2003/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing the European Year of Education through Sport 2004. *Office for Official Publications of the European Communities*, Brussels.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2003b). Commission Regulation (EC) No 622/2003 laying down measures for the implementation of the common basic standards on aviation security.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2006a). Decision No 1349/2008/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 December 2008 amending Decision No 1719/2006/EC establishing the 'Youth in Action' programme for the period 2007 to 2013.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2006b). Decision No 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 November 2006 establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2006c). Decision No 1904/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 12 December 2006 establishing for the period 2007 to 2013 the programme 'Europe for Citizens' to promote active European citizenship.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2006d). Decision No 1672/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 24 October 2006 establishing a Community Programme for Employment and Social Solidarity — Progress.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2007a). Decision No 779/2007/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 June 2007 establishing for the period 2007-2013 a specific programme to prevent and combat violence against children, young people and women and to protect victims and groups at risk (Daphne III programme) as part of the General Programme Fundamental Rights and Justice.

- Official Journal of the European Union (2007b). Council Decision 2007/252/EC of 19 April 2007 establishing for the period 2007-2013 the specific programme "Fundamental rights and citizenship" as part of the General programme "Fundamental Rights and Justice".
- Official Journal of the European Union (2007c). Regulation (EC) No. 614/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 May 2007 concerning the Financial Instrument for the Environment (LIFE+) - Commission statement.
- Official Journal of the European Union (2008). Decision No 1098/2008/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 22 October 2008 on the European Year for Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion (2010).
- Official Journal of the European Union (2013). Regulation no 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing 'Erasmus+': the Union programme for education, training, youth and sport. L 347/50, 20.12.2013.
- Olsen, J. (1996). Europeanization and nation-state dynamics. In Leif Lewin & Sverker Gustavsson (ed.), *The Future of the nation state: essays on cultural pluralism and political integration*, pp. 245-276. Routledge.
- Olsen, J. (1997). European Challenges to the Nation-State. In Bernard Steunenbergh & Frans Van Vught (ed.), *Political institutions and public policy: Perspectives on European decision making*, pp. 157-188. Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Olsen, J. (2002). The Many Faces of Europeanization. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 40, 921-952.
- Oppenheim, A. (1992). *Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement*. U.K: Pinter Publishers.
- Ostlinning, F. (2011). *Running for Europe: EU Sport Policy and the Role of Civil Society*. Germany: Nomos Publisher.
- Papadimitriou, D. and Phinnemore, D. (2003). Exporting Europeanisation to the Wider Europe: The twinning exercise and administrative reform in the candidate countries and beyond. *Journal of Southeast European and Black Sea Studies*, (3)2, 1-22.
- Papaioannou, A. (1997). Perception of motivational climate, perceived competence, and motivation of students of varying age and sport experience. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 85, 419-430.
- Papaloukas, M. (2007). Sport Law and the European Union. *Choregia: Sport Management International Journal*, Vol. 3(2), p. 39-49.
- Papcke, S. (1992). Who needs European Identity and What could it be? In: Nelson, B., Roberts, D. and Veit, W. (ed.), *The Idea of Europe: problems of national and transnational identity*, pp. 55-60. Berg: New York.
- Parrish, R. and McArdle, D. (2004). Beyond Bosman: The European Union's influence upon professional athletes' freedom of movement. *Sport in Society*, 4, 403-419.
- Parrish, R. (2001). Sports regulation in the European Union: a new approach?. *Managing Leisure*, 6, 187-200.

- Parrish, R., (2003a). *Sports law and policy in the European Union*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Parrish, R., (2003b). The Politics of Sports Regulation in the EU. *Journal of European public policy*, 10(2), 246-262.
- Parrish, R., Garcia, B., Miettinen, S. and Siekmann, R. (2010). *The Lisbon Treaty and EU sports policy: study*. Brussels: European Parliament.
- Parry, J. (1998). Physical education as Olympic education. *European Physical Education Review*, 4(2), 153-167.
- Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pentland, C. (1973). *International Theory and European Integration*. London: Faber and Faber, Don Mills: Oxford University Press.
- Peräkylä, A. (1997). Reliability and validity in research based on tapes and transcripts. In Silverman, D. (ed.), *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice*, pp. 201-219. London: Sage.
- Peters, B. (1998). Policy networks: myth, metaphor and reality. In Marsh, D. (ed.) *Comparing Policy Networks*, pp. 21-32. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Peters, B. (2001). Agenda-Setting in the European Union. In Richardson J. (Ed), *European Union, Power and Policy Making*, 2nd edition, pp. 77-94. London: Routledge.
- Peterson, J. (1995). Decision-making in the European Union: towards a framework for analysis. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 2(1), 69–93.
- Pollack, M. (1996). The New Institutionalism and EU Governance: The Promise and Limits of Institutional Analysis. *Governance*, 9(4), 429-458.
- Pollack, M. (2004). New institutionalism and European Integration. In Wiener A. and Diez T. (eds.) *European Integration Theory*, pp. 137-156. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Potter, W. (1996). *An Analysis of Thinking and Research about Qualitative Methods*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Princen, S. and Rhinard, M. (2006). Crashing and Creeping: Agenda setting dynamics in the European Union. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 13(7), 1119-1132.
- Prochaska, J. (2013). What is the influence of discourse on political change in EU Sport Governance?. Conference paper, *UACES*.
- Putnam, R. (1988). Diplomacy and Domestic Politics: The Logic of Two-Level Games. *International Organization*, 42, 427–460.
- Radaelli, C. (2000). Whither Europeanization? Concept Stretching and Substantive Change. *European Integration online Papers (EIoP)*, 4 (8).

- Radaelli, C. (2003). *The Open Method of Coordination: A New Governance Architecture for the European Union*. Swedish Institute for European Policy Studies, Report No. 1. Stockholm.
- Radulova, E. (2011). *Europeanization through Framing: an Inquiry into the Influence of the Open Method of Coordination on Childcare Policy in the Netherlands*. Maastricht: Maastricht University. Prom./coprom.: Blom, T.
- Rhodes, M. (2005). Employment Policy: Between Efficacy and Experimentation. In Wallace, H., Wallace W. and Pollack, M. (Eds.) *Policy-Making in the European Union* (5th ed.), pp. 279-304. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rhodes, R. (1997). *Understanding Governance. Policy Networks, Governance, Reflexivity and Accountability*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Richie, J. and Spencer, L. (1994). Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In Bryman, A. and Burgess, R. (eds.) *Analysing Qualitative Data*, pp.173-194. London: Routledge.
- Rometsch, D. and Wessels, W. (1996). *The European Union and member states: Towards institutional fusion?*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Rosamond, B. (2000). *Theories of European Integration*. UK: MacMillan Press.
- Rosamond, B. (2006). New Theories of Integration. In Cini, M. (ed), *European Union Politics* (2nd ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sakka, S. and Chatzigianni, E. (2012a). Europeanizing the Social Aspects of the Greek Sport Policy. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 05/2012, 36(2), 195-222.
- Sakka, S. and Chatzigianni, E. (2012b). Enhancing Europeanisation through European sport-related Programmes: The case of Greece. *Choregia SMIJ*, 8(2), pp. 33-56.
- Sarakinioti, A. and Tsatsaroni, A. (2015). European education policy initiatives and teacher education curriculum reforms in Greece. *Education Inquiry*, 6(3), 259-288.
- Scharpf, F. (1999). *Governing in Europe. Effective and Democratic*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Schmidt, V. (2002). Europeanization and the Mechanics of Economic Policy Adjustment. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 9(6), 894-912.
- Schmidt, V. (2008). Discursive institutionalism: The explanatory power of discourse. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 11, 303–326.
- Schmidt, V. and Radaelli, C. (2004). Policy Change and Discourse in Europe: Conceptual and Methodological Issues. *West European Politics*, 27(2), 183-210. London; Routledge.
- Schmitter, P. (2004). Neo-neo-functionalism: déjà vu, all over again? In Wiener, A. and Diez, T. (eds.) *European Integration Theory*, pp. 45-74. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Scott, J. (1990). *A Matter of Record, Documentary Sources in Social Research*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

- Scott, R. (2001). *Institutions and Organizations* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Seary, B. (1992). *Brussels in Focus*. Sports Council: London.
- Seidman, E. (1991). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research: A Guide for Researchers and Social Sciences* (1<sup>st</sup> ed), U.S.A: Teachers College Press.
- Shipman, M. (1988). *The limitations of social research*. London: Longman.
- Siekman, R. (2008). Is Sport ‘Special’ in EU Law and Policy?, in: Roger Blanpain (Ed.), *The Future of Sports law in the European Union - Beyond the EU Reform Treaty and the White Paper*, Alphen aan den Rijn, pp. 37-49.
- Siekman, R. (2012). *Introduction to International and European Sports Law: Capita Selecta*. Hague: T.M.C, Asser Press.
- Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A practical Handbook*. U.K: Sage Publications.
- Širok, K. and Košmrlj, K. (2011). Lifelong Learning Programme as mechanism of change at national level: Case of Slovenia. Retrieved on Apr 3, 2013, from <http://www.issbs.si/press/ISBN/978-961-92486-3-8/papers/ML11-42.pdf>
- SKAI (2015). Regulation for the self-governance of the National Football Federation was added in the draft of the New Sport Law (30/4/2015). Accessed on Dec, 4, 2015, retrieved from <http://www.skai.gr/news/sports/article/280640/apagoreusi-askisis-epaggelmatos-se-3-diaitites-gia-ti-drasi-tis-eglimatikis-organosis/#ixzz3xsJQUGw5>
- Skille, E. (2009). Sport as social policy: A conceptual reflection about policy making and implementation through the case of the Norwegian Sports City Programme. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 9(1), 63-79.
- Snow, D. and Anderson, L. (1991). Researching the homeless: The characteristic features and virtues of the case study. In Feagin, J., Orum, A. and Sjoberg, G. (eds.) *A case for the case study*, pp. 143-173. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.
- Spanou, C. (1998). European Integration in Administrative terms: a Framework for Analysis and the Greek Case. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 5(3), 467- 484. Retrieved on Sept 14, 2012, from [spirit.org/publications/SPIRIT\\_WP7\\_D3.pdf](http://spirit.org/publications/SPIRIT_WP7_D3.pdf)
- Sports.in (2015). Temporary exclusion of the Russian Federation of Athletics from IAAF (14/11/2015). Accessed on Dec 4, 2015, retrieved from <http://sports.in.gr/stivos/article/?aid=1500039251>
- Srivastava, A. & Thomson, S. (2009). Framework Analysis: A Qualitative Methodology for Applied Research. *JOAAG*, 4(2).
- Stake, R. (2008). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.) *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (3rd ed), pp. 119–150. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stone, S. (1984). *Interviews*. Sheffield: Centre for Research on User Studies.

- Stone, S. and Harris, C. (1984). *Basic social research techniques*. Sheffield: Centre for Research on User Studies.
- Symon, G., & Cassell, C. (1998). *Qualitative methods and analysis in Organizational research: A practical Guide*. London: Sage Publications.
- TAFISA (2015). *#BeActive European Week of Sport: Focus Theme Education - Tips, Recommendations & Good Practices*. Retrieved on Aug 1, 2016, from [http://ec.europa.eu/sport/week/docs/handbook-focus-theme-education\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/sport/week/docs/handbook-focus-theme-education_en.pdf)
- Tellis, W. (1997). Application of a Case Study Methodology. *Qualitative Report*, 3(3).
- Terzakis, D. (2008). *Sport tourism and the European sport policy today*. Retrieved on Jan 20, 2011, from [http://www.chania-nfo.gr/index.php?option=com\\_content&task=view&id=450&Itemid=142](http://www.chania-nfo.gr/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=450&Itemid=142)
- Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*. New York: Falmer Press.
- Thomas, G. (2011). A typology for the case study in social science following a review of definition, discourse and structure. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 17(6), 511-521.
- Tokarski, W., Steinbach, D., Petry, K. and Jesse, B. (2004). *Two Players-One goal? Sport in the European Union*. Oxford: Meyer & Meyer.
- Tranholm-Mikkelsen, J. (1991). Neofunctionalism: Obstinate or Obsolete? A Reappraisal in the Light of the New Dynamism of the EC. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 20(1), 1-20.
- Tsinisizelis, M. and Chrysochoou, D. (2006). International Theory and European Union. In D. Xenakis and M. Tsinisizelis (ed.), *Global Europe: The International Dimensions of the EU*, p.49-84. Athens: Sideris (in Greek).
- Tsinisizelis, M. (2001). *Quo Vadis Europa?* Athens: Contemporary Academic and Scientific Publications.
- United Nations (2003). *Resolution adopted by the General Assembly "Sport as a means to promote education, health, development and peace"* on the 17 November 2003, A/RES/58/5.
- Veal, J. (1997). *Research Methods for Leisure and Recreation: A Practical Guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). U.K: Pearson Professional Ltd.
- Venturelli Christensen, P. (2000). Identity, Space and Politics: The Europeanization Process Between Necessity and Personal Choice. A case study on the Danish and the Italian Customs Administration. Paper presented at the *UACES 3<sup>rd</sup> Anniversary Conference 6-8 April*, Budapest.
- Vermeersch, A. (2009). The Future EU Sports Policy: Hollow Words on Hallowed Ground?. *International Sports Law Journal*, 9(3-4), 3-7.
- WADA (2003). *World Anti-doping Code*, Retrieved on June 14, 2010 from [http://www.wada-ama.org/rtecontent/document/code\\_v3.pdf](http://www.wada-ama.org/rtecontent/document/code_v3.pdf)



- Walker, R. (1985). *Applied Qualitative Research*. Albershot: Gower Publishing Company.
- Wallace, H. (2005). *Policy-making in the EU*. London: Oxford.
- Wellington, J. (2000). *Educational Research: Contemporary Issues and Practical Approaches*. London: Continuum.
- Whitehead, J. and Corbin, C. (1997). Self-esteem in children and youth: The role of sport and Physical Education. In K.R. Fox (ed) *The Physical Self: From Motivation to Well-Being*, pp. 175-204. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Wilson, J. (2001). Unpublished lecture notes from the module "Research Methods". *Loughborough University*, U.K.
- Xenakis, D. and Tsinisizelis, M. (2006). "The problematic in Global Europe". In D. Xenakis and M. Tsinisizelis (ed.), *Global Europe: The International Dimensions of the EU*, p. 11-48. Athens: Sideris (in Greek).
- Yin, R. (1981). The case study crisis: Some answers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26(1), 58-65.
- Yin, R. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. (1993). *Applications of case study research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. (1999). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). U.K.: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Applications of case study research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Zartaloudis, S. (2007). Explaining Domestic Structural Reform of Employment and Pension Policy in Greece: Towards Europeanization? Paper prepared for the *3rd Hellenic Observatory PhD Symposium 'Contemporary Greece: Structures, Context and Challenges'* 14 & 15 June 2007, London School of Economics and Political Science.
- Zeitlin, J. (2005). Introduction: The Open Method of Co-ordination in Question. In Zeitlin, J., Pochet, P. and Magnusson, L. (eds.) *The Open Method of Co-ordination in Action: The European Employment and Social Inclusion Strategies*, pp.19-33. Brussels: Peter Lang.

### **Personal interviews:**

Ministry of Education, Director of the Department of Physical Education (April 13, 2010)

Standing Committee to Combat Violence, official (March 18, 2010)

Greek anti-doping Agency, official (March 17, 2010)

General Secretariat of Sport, political representative (March 17, 2010)

General Secretariat of Sport, official for 'Sport for All' (March 18, 2010)

General Secretariat of Sport, official for sport development (March 3, 2010)

General Secretariat of Sport, official for EU affairs (February, 8, 2010)

Member of the European Parliament, Manolis Mavrommatis (March 7, 2010).

## **APPENDICES**

## **APPENDIX 1**

### Methodological Implications

## APPENDIX 1

**Table 1:** Sources of data

*Source:* Yin (1994)

<b>SOURCES OF EVIDENCE</b>		<b>STRENGTHS</b>	<b>WEAKNESSES</b>
<b>Documentation</b>	Secondary Documents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Stable: can be reviewed repeatedly</li> <li>-Unobtrusive: not created as a result of the case study</li> <li>-Exact: contains exact names, references and details of an event</li> <li>-Broad Coverage: long span of time, many events and many settings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Retrievability can be low</li> <li>-Biased selectively if selection is incomplete</li> <li>-Reporting bias reflects (unknown) bias of author</li> <li>-Access may be deliberately blocked</li> </ul>
	Primary Documents / Archival Records	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-[the same as above for documentation]</li> <li>-Precise and quantitative</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-[the same as above for documentation]</li> <li>-Accessibility due to privacy reasons</li> </ul>
<b>Interviews</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Targeted: focuses directly on case study topic</li> <li>-Insightful: provides perceived casual inferences</li> <li>-Adaptable: a skilful interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate feelings and motives (Bell, 1993, p. 91)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Bias due to poorly constructed questions</li> <li>-Response bias</li> <li>-Inaccuracies due to poor recall</li> <li>-Reflexivity: interviewee gives what the interviewer wants to hear</li> <li>-Time consuming (Bell, 1993, p. 91)</li> </ul>

**Table 2:** Interview Types

**Source:** Finn (2000); p.75

<b>TYPE OF INTERVIEW</b>	<b>ADVANTAGES</b>	<b>DISADVANTAGES</b>
<b>Structured</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Interviewees answer same questions, increasing the comparability of the responses.</li><li>-Interviewer bias reduced.</li><li>-Data easily analysed using statistical techniques.</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Very little flexibility and the standardised wording may inhibit responses.</li><li>-Pre determined questions might not be relevant.</li></ul>
<b>Semi-structured</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Combines the flexibility of the unstructured interview with comparability of key questions.</li><li>-Respondents not constrained by fixed answers</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Bias may increase as interviewer selects questions to probe and may inhibit comparability of responses.</li><li>-Coding of answers may not be high in reliability</li><li>-Limits to generalisation</li></ul>
<b>Unstructured</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Interviewer responds in a flexible way to interviewee.</li><li>-Interviewer's role is minimal allowing interviewee to express ideas in his/her own words.</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Comparability is much reduced and data analysis is more difficult.</li><li>-Data quality depends on listening and communicating skills of the interviewer.</li></ul>

## **APPENDIX 2**

### Sample of Interview Questions

## **APPENDIX 2**

1. Ποια είναι η κατευθυντήρια γραμμή της ελληνικής αθλητικής πολιτικής και ποιους σκοπούς θέλει να επιτύχει;
2. Με ποιον τρόπο πιστεύετε ότι η Ε.Ε. επιδρά στην διαμόρφωση της ελληνικής αθλητικής πολιτικής; (π.χ στη διαδικασία λήψης αποφάσεων, στην δομή, στα όργανα, επιχορηγήσεις κλπ.) Σχολιάστε με ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον για την κοινωνική διάσταση του αθλητισμού. (Αθλητισμός για Όλους, για άτομα με αναπηρία, φαρμακοδιέγερση, βια, φυσική αγωγή).
3. Ποιες ήταν οι κυριότερες αλλαγές στην ελληνική αθλητική πολιτική κατά την περίοδο 1990-2013;
4. Τι πιστεύετε ότι πρόκειται να αλλάξει στην ελληνική αθλητική πολιτική μετά την επικύρωση της Συνθήκης της Λισσαβόνας;
5. Ποιοι είναι οι φορείς που διαμορφώνουν την ελληνική αθλητική πολιτική; Ποιοι συμμετέχουν στη διαδικασία λήψης αποφάσεων; Πως λαμβάνονται οι αποφάσεις;
6. Πως η Ελλάδα συμμετέχει στη διαβούλευση για θέματα αθλητισμού στην Ε.Ε.;
7. Πως η πολιτική ηγεσία δραστηριοποιείται στο Συμβούλιο των Υπουργών και στις σχετικές Συσκέψεις για θέματα αθλητισμού; Σε ποιο βαθμό, με ποιον τρόπο, ποιο είναι το είδος συνεργασίας, και για ποια επιμέρους θέματα;
8. Πως τίθεται η ατζέντα των θεμάτων συζήτησης για τον αθλητισμό στις Συσκέψεις Υπουργών;
9. Πως η ΓΓΑ δραστηριοποιείται στις Συσκέψεις Διευθυντών για θέματα αθλητισμού; Η αρμόδια Διεύθυνση έχει καταθέσει κάποια πρόταση; Στη συνέχεια η αρμόδια Διεύθυνση έχει προβεί επίσημα σε διάχυση πληροφοριών (Διευθύνσεις, Γενικό Γραμματέα Αθλητισμού, Υπουργό αρμόδιο για θέματα αθλητισμού, άλλα Υπουργεία)



10. Η ΓΓΑ συνεργάζεται με το Ευρωπαϊκό Κοινοβούλιο για θέματα αθλητισμού;
11. Πως η Ελλάδα συμμετέχει στο European Sports Forum;
12. Πως η Ελλάδα συμμετέχει στις ομάδες εργασίας για θέματα αθλητισμού; (Φαρμακοδιέγερση και Αθλητισμός, Υγεία και Αθλητισμός, Εκπαίδευση και Κατάρτιση στον Αθλητισμό).
13. Γνωρίζετε αν και με ποιο τρόπο η ΓΓΑ συμμετέχει σε έρευνες που γίνονται από την Ε.Ε. για θέματα αθλητισμού; (έρευνα για τον εθελοντισμό, έρευνα για την ‘εκπαίδευση και κατάρτιση των αθλητών στην Ευρώπη’ ,έρευνα για τους ‘Μάνατζερς αθλητών στην Ευρωπαϊκή Ένωση’, έρευνα για τον ‘τρόπο ζωής των νέων και την καθιστική ζωή’).
14. Γνωρίζετε κάποιον άλλον τρόπο με τον οποίο η ΓΓΑ συνεργάζεται με την Ε.Ε.;
15. Πως η Ελλάδα ανταποκρίνεται στις νομοθετικές πρωτοβουλίες της Ε.Ε. για τον αθλητισμό και συγκεκριμένα στη Λευκή Βίβλο για τον Αθλητισμό και στο Σχέδιο Δράσης ‘Pierre de Coubertin’? (φαρμακοδιέγερση, υγεία, κοινωνική ενσωμάτωση, ρατσισμός, βία, φυσική αγωγή, εθελοντισμός και ιδιότητα του πολίτη).
16. Πιστεύετε ότι τα Ευρωπαϊκά προγράμματα, όπως προτείνονται από το Σχέδιο Δράσης ‘Pierre de Coubertin’ για την προώθηση της κοινωνικής διάστασης του αθλητισμού, αξιοποιούνται στην Ελλάδα για την επίτευξη του κοινωνικού στόχους τους; Με ποιον τρόπο συμμετέχει η ΓΓΑ προς αυτήν την κατεύθυνση;
17. Τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την προώθηση του εθελοντισμού στον αθλητισμό;
18. Τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την προαγωγή της υγείας μέσω της σωματικής άσκησης; Υπάρχει συνεργασία με το αρμόδιο Υπουργείο και σε ποια περίπτωση;
19. Ποια είναι η πολιτική και τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την προώθηση του σχολικού αθλητισμού; Υπάρχει συνεργασία με το αρμόδιο Υπουργείο και σε ποια περίπτωση;

20. Ποια είναι η πολιτική και τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την καταπολέμηση της βίας στα γήπεδα; Υπάρχει συνεργασία με κάποιον άλλο φορέα και με ποιον τρόπο;

21. Ποια είναι η πολιτική και τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την καταπολέμηση της χρήσης απαγορευμένων ουσιών στον αθλητισμό; Υπάρχει συνεργασία με κάποιο άλλο φορέα και με ποιον τρόπο;

22. Ποια είναι η πολιτική και τι ενέργειες γίνονται από την ΓΓΑ για την προώθηση του αθλητισμού ως μέσω κοινωνικής ένταξης των ευπαθών κοινωνικών ομάδων; Υπάρχει συνεργασία με το αρμόδιο Υπουργείο και σε ποια περίπτωση; Σχολιάστε για τον αθλητισμό στα άτομα με αναπηρία.

23. Ποια είναι η πολιτική για τον «Αθλητισμό για Όλους», τι σκοπούς εξυπηρετεί και τι ενέργειες γίνονται για την προώθηση του; Ποια είναι η συνεργασία σας με την Τοπική Αυτοδιοίκηση;

24. Γνωρίζετε με ποιους άλλους φορείς συνεργάζεται η Ελλάδα σε ευρωπαϊκό επίπεδο για τη διαβούλευση σε θέματα αθλητισμού; (Συμβούλιο της Ευρώπης, ΔΟΕ, UNESCO, WADA, TAFISA, WADA)

25. Με ποιους εθνικούς φορείς συνεργάζεται η ΓΓΑ για την ανάπτυξη του αθλητισμού και ιδιαίτερα της κοινωνικής του διάστασης και με ποιον τρόπο; (ΕΚΑΕ, Πανεπιστήμια, Ε.Ο.Ε., Δ.Ε.Α.Β., Ε.Σ.Κ.ΑΝ., Αθλητικές Ομοσπονδίες, Άλλα Υπουργεία, Αθλητικοί Φορείς)

26. Ποιος είναι κατά τη γνώμη σας ο αντίκτυπος της διοργάνωσης των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων το 2004 και άλλων διεθνών αθλητικών διοργανώσεων από τη χώρα μας για την προώθηση της κοινωνικής διάστασης του αθλητισμού;

27. Με ποιον τρόπο γίνεται ο σχεδιασμός του προϋπολογισμού και η διάθεση οικονομικών πόρων για τον αθλητισμό και ιδιαίτερα για τον αθλητισμό για όλους, για τον σχολικό αθλητισμό και για τον ειδικό αθλητισμό;

## **Translation of interview questions**

1. What are the guidelines of the Greek sport policy and what are the main objectives?
2. How the EU affects the Greek sports policy-making? (as for example in the decision-making process, the sport structure and institutions, the subsidies, etc.) Please reply with particular interest on the social dimension of sport (Sport for All, sport for people with disabilities, doping, violence, physical education).
3. What were the main changes in the Greek sport policy during the period 1990-2013?
4. From your perspective, what do you think is going to change in Greek sport policy after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty?
5. Who are the key actors and which are the key institutions that shape the Greek sport policy? Who participates in the decision-making process? What is the process for decision-making in sport at national level?
6. How does Greece participate in the consultation on sport issues at EU level?
7. How the Greek sport government is involved in the Ministers' Council and the relevant Meeting for sport at EU level? To what extent, with what procedures and for what specific issues?
8. What is the policy agenda-setting in the Sport Ministers' Meetings?
9. How does the GSS operate in the Sport Directors' Meetings? Has the related Department submitted any proposal? Has the Department formally undertake dissemination of information (as for example to other Directorates General, to the Sport Secretary, to the prime-Minister responsible for sport, to other ministries, e.t.c.)
10. Does the GSS cooperate with the European Parliament on sport issues?

11. How does Greece participate in the European Sport Forum?
12. How does Greece participate in the working groups for sports issues? (Doping and Sport, Health and Sport, Education and Training in sport).
13. Do you know if and at what level the GSS participate in surveys made by the EU for sports issues? (Study on Volunteering, study on "the training of sportsmen and sportswomen in Europe", Study on Sports Agents in the European Union, study on "Young People's Lifestyle and Sedentariness").
14. Are you aware of any other way that the GSS cooperates with the EU or is involved in sport issues at European level?
15. How does Greece respond to the EU legislative initiatives for sport and specifically the White Paper on Sport and the Action Plan 'Pierre de Coubertin'? (Doping, health, social inclusion, racism, violence, physical education, volunteering-active citizenship).
16. According to your opinion, the European programs, as proposed by the Action Plan 'Pierre de Coubertin' for the promotion of the social dimension of sport, are utilised in Greece for achieving social goals? How the GSS is involved towards this direction?
17. What steps are taken by the GSS in order to promote volunteering in sport?
18. What actions are taken by the GSS to promote health enhancement through physical activity? Is there cooperation with the Ministry of Health and at what level?
19. What is the policy and what actions are taken by the GSS to promote school sports? Is there cooperation with the Ministry of Education and at what level?
20. What is the policy and what steps are taken by the GSS to combat violence in stadiums? Is there collaboration with other organisations, and at what level?
21. What is the policy and what steps are taken by the GSS to combat doping in sport? Is there collaboration with other organisations, and at what level?

22. What is the policy and what actions are taken by the GSS for the promotion of sport as a means of social inclusion in vulnerable social groups? Is there cooperation with the related Ministry and at what level? Please, comment on sport for people with disabilities.
23. What is the policy for 'Sport for All', what purposes does it serve and how is it promoted? How do you cooperate with the local government?
24. Are you aware of other institutions Greece cooperates with at European level for consultation on sport issues? (Council of Europe, IOC, UNESCO, WADA, TAFISA, WADA).
25. With which national bodies does the GGS cooperates for sport development and especially its social dimension and at what level? (Universities, NOC, D.E.A.V., E.S.K.AN., Sports Federations, Other Ministries, Sports Bodies).
26. From your point of view, what is the impact of the Olympic Games in 2004 and other international sporting events, hosted in Greece, on promoting the social dimension of sport?
27. How the budget and the allocation of financial resources for sport are planned, especially in the case of sports for All, school sport and sport for people with disabilities?

### **APPENDIX 3**

Samples of formal letters for interview permission

### APPENDIX 3

Samples of formal letters for interview permission

**Σακκά Βάνια (Σταυρούλα)**  
Υποψήφια Διδάκτωρ  
Πανεπιστημίου Πελοποννήσου  
Τμήμα Οργάνωσης και Διοίκησης  
Αθλητισμού  
*sakkavania@hotmail.com*

**ΠΡΟΣ:**

Διεύθυνση Προαγωγής  
Αθλητισμού  
**κ. Ανδρέα Μαλάτο**

**ΚΟΙΝ.:**

Διευθυντή Γραφείου Γενικού  
Γραμματεία Αθλητισμού  
**κ. Δημήτριο Απόκη**

Ειδικό συνεργάτη Γενικού  
Γραμματέα Αθλητισμού  
**κ. Βασίλειο Ντάκουρη**

**ΘΕΜΑ: «Στοιχεία για έρευνα»**

Κατόπιν επικοινωνίας μου με τη αρμόδια Διεύθυνση, παρακαλώ πολύ όπως μου επιτρέψετε να συγκεντρώσω στοιχεία για τη συμμετοχή της ΓΓΑ σε Ευρωπαϊκές Συσκέψεις, έρευνες, ομάδες εργασίας και fora για τον Αθλητισμό που είναι απαραίτητα για την ολοκλήρωση σχετικής μου έρευνας για την επίδραση της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης στην ελληνική αθλητική πολιτική.

Ευχαριστώ θερμά για την μέχρι τώρα υποστήριξη σας στην προσπάθεια μου και θα ήμουν ευγνώμων για τη διευκόλυνση στην συλλογή αυτών των πληροφοριών.

**Με εκτίμηση,**

**Σακκά Βάνια**

**Σακκά Βάνια (Σταυρούλα)**  
Υποψήφια Διδάκτωρ  
Πανεπιστημίου Πελοποννήσου  
Τμήμα Οργάνωσης και Διοίκησης  
Αθλητισμού  
6977-296371  
*sakkavania@hotmail.com*

**ΠΡΟΣ:**

Γενική Γραμματεία Αθλητισμού  
Τέως Προϊσταμένη Γραφείου  
Ελληνικής Προεδρίας & Τέως  
Προϊσταμένη Ευρωπαϊκών  
Προγραμμάτων  
**κ. Ροζμαρυ Νικολακοπούλου**

**ΚΟΙΝ.:**

Διευθυντή Γραφείου Γενικού  
Γραμματεία Αθλητισμού  
**κ. Δημήτριο Απόκη**  
  
Ειδικό συνεργάτη Γενικού  
Γραμματέα Αθλητισμού  
**κ. Βασίλειο Ντάκουρη**

**ΘΕΜΑ: «Στοιχεία για έρευνα»**

Κατόπιν επικοινωνίας μου με τη αρμόδια Διεύθυνση, παρακαλώ πολύ όπως μου επιτρέψετε να συγκεντρώσω στοιχεία για τη Ελληνική Προεδρία, για το πρόγραμμα EQUAL και για τη μελέτη VOCASPORT που είναι απαραίτητα για την ολοκλήρωση σχετικής μου έρευνας για την επίδραση της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης στην ελληνική αθλητική πολιτική.

Ευχαριστώ θερμά για την μέχρι τώρα υποστήριξη σας στην προσπάθεια μου και θα ήμουν ευγνώμων για τη διευκόλυνση στην συλλογή αυτών των πληροφοριών.

**Με εκτίμηση,**

**Σακκά Βάνια**



## Translation of samples of formal letters for interview permission

**Sakka Vania (Stavroula)**  
**Phd Candidate**  
University of Peloponnese  
Department of Sport Management  
*sakkavania@hotmail.com*

**TO:** General Secretariat of Sport

Department of Sport  
Development  
**Mr. Andreas Malatos**

**CC:** Director of the General  
Secretary's Office  
**Mr. Dimirtios Apokis**

Agent of the General  
Secretary of Sport  
**Mr. Vassilis Ntakouris**

**ΘEMA: «Data for research»**

Following my communication with the competent Department, please allow me access to the data regarding the participation of the GSS in European Meetings, surveys, working groups and fora on Sport, in order to complete my research on the influence of the EU in Greek sport policy.

Thank you very much for your support so far and I would be grateful if you facilitate the collection of this information.

**Best regards,**

**Vania Sakka**

**Sakka Vania (Stavroula)**  
**Phd Candidate**  
University of Peloponnese  
Department of Sport Management  
*sakkavania@hotmail.com*

**TO:** General Secretariat of Sport  
Former Supervisor of the Office  
of the Greek Presidency &  
Former Supervisor of European  
Programmes  
**Mrs. Rozmari Nikolakopoulou**

**CC:** Director of the General  
Secretary's Office  
**Mr. Dimirtios Apokis**

Agent of the General Secretary of  
Sport  
**Mr. Vassilis Ntakouris**

**ΘEMA: «Data for research»**

Following my communication with the competent Department, please allow me access to the data regarding the Greek Presidency, the Programme "Equal" and the study "Vocasport" in order to complete my research on the influence of the EU in Greek sport policy.

Thank you very much for your support so far and I would be grateful if you facilitate the collection of this information.

**Best regards,**

**Vania Sakka**