

**CHAPTER - II**  
**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

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The review of applicable literature is a necessary step in gaining a better understanding of what has been achieved in relation to the issue under research. Such a study provides a comprehensive and straightforward picture of the sector as a whole.

The quest for reference materials is a time-consuming but rewarding part of the research process. A familiarity with the literature of any problem area aids students in determining what is already understood, what others have attempted to discover, what approaches have proven to be successful but unsatisfactory, and what issues remain unsolved.

The literature in any area serves as the basis for all subsequent research. Literature reviews are commonly used as a foundation for inductive reasoning in order to locate and synthesize all applicable literature on a given subject. The scholar has made a significant and scholarly effort to go through the relevant literature, and this chapter contains a brief overview of the studies related to the current issue.

The available literature pertaining to the current study on governance, Sports governance, and seven “Basic Indicators for Better Governance in International Sport (BIBGIS): An assessment tool for International sport governing bodies for good governance” guidelines are covered in this chapter as discussed below.

- 1. Reviews Related to Governance**
- 2. Reviews Related to Sports Governance**
- 3. Reviews Related to Organizational Transparency.**
- 4. Reviews Related to Reporting Transparency**

5. **Reviews Related to Democratic process.**
6. **Reviews Related to Control Mechanism.**
7. **Reviews Related to Sports Integrity.**
8. **Reviews Related to Solidarity**
9. **Reviews Related to Stakeholder Representation.**
10. **Conclusion.**

### **2.1. Reviews Related to Governance:**

The word governance comes from Latin and ancient Greek, and it originally meant "control, direction, and manipulation." Its meaning had long been confused with that of the word government, and it was primarily used to refer to administrative and political activities concerning national public relations. Western political scientists and economists, on the other hand, gave it a new definition in the 1990s. Since then, the term has come to mean much more than it did previously, and it is no longer synonymous with the word government. Instead of being a solely English term, it is commonly used by people who speak other major European languages; instead of being solely a political term, it is widely used in social and economic contexts.

This significant word "Governance" interweaves recent structural reforms in central, state, and European Union government to highlight the 'Westminster model's inability to account for chronic policy failure. **Rhodes, R A W (1997)** established the theoretical foundations for understanding the transition from government to governance, as well as ways to put the idea into practice.

**Pierre and Peters (2000)** provided an excellent overview of the governance concept's existence, context, and significance. Its main concern is how societies are being steered, and how they can be steered, in an increasingly dynamic environment where states must increasingly engage with and control other actors and institutions in order to produce results.

**Newman, J (2001)** examined how policy is being reshaped and public administration realigned in the United Kingdom, as well as the implications for relationships between the state and citizens, government and public services, and organisations and their users. In several ways, it's a revised edition of Rhodes, analysing the governance concept's usefulness in recognising New Labor's politics and policies.

**Cornforth, C. (2001)** investigated the impact of board inputs, structures, and processes on board effectiveness based on a study of charity boards in England and Wales. The results affirm the normative literature on board effectiveness in a mixed way. The research suggests that three process variables and board inputs are important in explaining board effectiveness, namely: board members have the time, skills, and experience to do the job; clear board roles and responsibilities; the board and management share a common vision of how to achieve their goals; and the board and management review how the board is doing on a regular basis.

**Richards, D and Smith, M J (2002)** looked at how public policy has changed over the past thirty years, exploring the effect of government and providing a technically and objectively informed account of the evolving nature of the state. The overarching theme is the transition from government to governance, with sections on New Right state reforms, the effect of Europe

and globalization, and, most recently, the Blair Labor government's devolution process. The article on interpreting governance provides a concise overview of definitional debates and is very open to students who are interested in governance as a context for understanding government changes. The shift away from a single public sector and toward the growth of quasi-markets dependent on the participation of private businesses and non-profit organizations can be seen as the most significant shift in state-society relations since the modern welfare state's inception.

## **2.2. Reviews Related to Sports Governance**

The term "sport governance" applies to the exercise of control, considering factors such as influence, authority, and decision-making processes. **Hums, M. A., & MacLean, J. C. (2017)**. Local, state, national, and International levels of governance are all possible. Local sport clubs' outreach to underserved youth; board member relationships and their impact on state athletic associations; national sport governing bodies' strategies for focusing on elite success versus mass participation; and corruption in the process of awarding major International competitions like the Olympics, to name a few examples. The exercise of power has the ability to affect sport participants, sport associations, and other stakeholders in each of these scenarios.

The European University Institute's School of Transnational Governance hosted a High-Level Policy Dialogue on the subject of "Sports Governance," which brought together policy experts, leading scholars, and journalists from the fields of sports and transnational governance to discuss the topic. During the debate, the participants decided that sports governance faces a number of significant challenges. The main topics of discussion were how to ensure sports credibility and the need for more checks and balances in sports governance bodies. The debate

also centered on public oversight of sports governance, as well as the shortcomings and strengths of various institutional alternatives (national, supranational, and International) in reining in sports governing bodies' autonomy. Participants addressed a number of good governance concepts that must be applied to various areas of sports policy and management, emphasizing the expanding nature of the sports industry. Many people pointed out that the European Union (EU) would play a role in bringing together a strong governance system in sports.

**Katwala (2000)** uses the inability of sport's governing bodies - usually amateur, non-profit organizations that organize tournaments solely for recreational purposes - to respond to the evolving global sports industry as his starting point. He then goes on to suggest a set of guidelines for modernizing sporting governance, emphasizing stakeholder engagement, increased accountability, and collaboration between governments, the European Union, and sports governing bodies.

**Caiger and Gardiner (2000)** contributed to the debate on sports governance by looking at the intersection of sport, industry, and policy. The authors emphasize the many issues that come with its enforcement, stressing the need to redefine the lines between sporting rules and regulations and legal regulations.

**Papadimitriou, D., & Taylor, P. (2000)** used a sample of Hellenic national sports organizations to test the multiple constituency model of organizational effectiveness (NSOs). Board members, paid administrative staff, national coaches, elite athletes, International officials, and scientific consultants created and validated a 33-item effectiveness inventory to represent the

common effectiveness-related views of six constituent groups: board members, paid administrative staff, national coaches, elite athletes, International officials, and scientific consultants. A total of 423 people from 20 different NSOs took part in the survey. Athletes, coaches, and scientific staff are the least happy groups, while foreign officials and board members have the most favorable scores of effectiveness, according to multivariate and univariate measures of variance. The findings indicated that when assessing the efficacy of national sports organizations, it is beneficial to take a multi-stakeholder approach.

**Anderson, S. D, McKenzie, et al (2003)** explained that because of the broad number of players involved, effective sports governance is especially difficult. Players and clubs, local, national, and International organizations, fans, the media, commercial (sponsors), and non-commercial interests, as well as educational and training bodies, are among the participants. Within and outside of the sport, these classes usually have different interests and inter-relationships. Individual sports are traditionally defined by a complex mixture of legal, controlled, and self-regulatory systems, contractual relationships, procedures, implicit relationships, and tacit understandings, as well as multiple interests and positions. The continued and widespread trust in governing organization's institutional frameworks, governance arrangements, rules, and dispute mechanisms are critical to their position and legitimacy. The value of the games, competitions, and tournaments for which they are responsible will be harmed if they do not have this trust.

Sport organizations are confronted with a key issue: governance. Since many sports have transitioned from mostly volunteer-run organizations with an amateur ethos to professionally

operated organizations catering to a more sophisticated sport marketplace, its role in the management of sport organizations has grown. The work by **Thoma, J and Chalip, L (2003)** illustrates the broad objective, with sections on the Olympic movement, International sports event management, 'sport for all,' and International sport growth, all set against a backdrop of politics and policy analysis.

Shared leadership, board motivation, board positions, and board structure were described as the primary research foci in the sport governance literature by **Ferkins, Shilbury, & McDonald (2005)**. Efficiency, conformance, regulation, and operations are four generic themes that are explored and articulated as governance capabilities. Although the board's strategic position and success are critical to good governance, they have been shown to be a weakness in many sports organisations. Furthermore, in the sport management and governance research literature, the strategic position of the board is underdeveloped. Finally, it was pointed out that the governance literature is dominated by a normative and prescriptive approach that does not adequately account for diversity.

The model of sport participation and management has changed globally from amateur to professional levels, according to **Burger, S., and Goslin, A. E. (2005)**. Sport now functions as an economic body in the corporate world, making it more difficult to regulate. Concerns about corporate business practices have led to the formalization and creation of corporate governance codes. Seven foundations of good governance originated from the literature, and their applicability to sports governing bodies is debated.



Global Sports Organization GSOs' role in formalizing International sport is now complete, says Forster. **Forster (2006)** clarified that they have maintained sport governance monopolies and authority. When the governance monopoly is used as a revenue generator.

Sport Governance is a useful starting point for an analysis and practical application of governance concepts to amateur and professional sport organizations. **Hoye & Cuskelly (2006)** highlighted the difficulty of governance in non-profit sports organizations. The document explains the mechanics of governance while addressing a variety of background concerns in sport governance.

According to **Bayle, E., and Robinson, L. (2007)**, there is no literature on the success of National Governing Bodies in sports (NGBs). Eleven French NGBs were interviewed as part of a case study. In this context, the relationship between policy, management, and organisational performance is discussed.

**Girginov & Sandanski (2008)** investigated the process of reform in three Bulgarian national sport organisations (NSO) in the sports of swimming, weightlifting, and field hockey as the country transitions from state socialism (1945-1989) to democratisation (1990-present). The thesis was about taking a conceptualist approach to organisational change and looking at long-term processes in their context.

**Pettigrew (1985)** analysis was NSOs' conceptual orientation, structures, resources, capabilities and outcomes. Changing was unveiled through the interplay between three levels of analysis - wider political and economic, sport sector, and organization-specific. The history of

changing unfolded over a 25 years period and followed three stages of crisis of governability, crisis displacement and identity search. The three NSOs followed different change patterns of shrinking, insulation and expansion. Two key reasons were responsible for those differences - the initialization of the broader political and sport sector contexts.

**Taylor, M., & O'Sullivan, N. (2009)** investigated the best board structure for national governing bodies (NGBs) in sport in the United Kingdom. He mentioned that national governing bodies (NGBs) of sport are non-profit organizations that manage both professional and amateur sports. NGBs oversee large sums of money, especially public funds, from a governance perspective. The board size should be between five and twelve members, and separate persons should serve as CEO and chairman.

The 'governance debate' is one of the most prominent academic conceptualizations of recent developments in British politics and policy. **Grix, J. (2010)** presented a simplified version of the "decentered approach" to governance. Part of an analytical analysis on County Sport Partnerships was presented in the final segment. The goal was to evaluate the "Decentered strategy" objectively and propose a modified version that can be used to research sport policy.

**Shilbury, D., and Ferkins, L. (2011)** highlighted the conflict between volunteers and paying professionals in sport governance. They illustrate sport's transformation from an amateur, volunteer-driven pastime to a more business-like sector using governance as the prism through which change is perceived. The results of the analysis of sport governance studies, together with

a sample of findings from the strategic capability report highlight the complexities of volunteer board participation.

**Eagleman, Karg, and Rodenberg (2012)** investigated the multi-layered governance structure in the International Olympic sport of gymnastics. They detailed the governance structures and operations of each layer – the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the Fédération Internationale de Gymnastique (FIG), and the national governing bodies. Finally, the timely issue of age fraud in gymnastics is brought up, along with responses from each level of governance, in order to allow for a more in-depth discussion.

**Cottingham, M. D. (2012)** examined the ritualistic outcomes of collective effervescence, emotional energy, community symbols, and unity among sports fans. He built on Collins' interaction ritual (IR) theory by using the group as the unit of study. The research advances IR theory, enhancing its usefulness for understanding sports fan action.

Olympic legacy is a widely accepted structural law that has influenced how organisations schedule and execute the Games. **Leopkey, B., and Parent, M. M. (2012)** looked at why and how legacy was embraced, the powers at work, and the consequences for bid and organising committees, as well as other players in the Olympic Movement. The study used archival data from bid papers, candidature files, final reports, and related websites. They say that the process of institutionalization of legacy is continuing.

**Ibrahim, A., Hamatineghad, M., et al. (2013)** developed effectiveness model based on competing principles for selected Iraqi sport Federations. Football, track and field, weightlifting, and basketball Federations had the highest mean organizational effectiveness. Internal procedures and logical objectives were key patterns of competing values structure and determinants of organizational effectiveness. Iraqi sport Federations concentrated primarily on operational control and internal attention as indicators of organizational effectiveness.

**Hardin, Bemiller, and Pate (2013)** investigated how a student-run sport management co-curricular club fits into the Foster Five-Step Experiential Learning Model by providing a governance and organizational structure of Foster & Dollar. Experiential learning is a critical component to a college education in the area of sport management. Students must enter the workforce with hands-on industry experience. Co-curricular clubs offer volunteer work experience for sport management majors. The University of Tennessee's Partners in Sports is an example of a co-curricular club that prepares students for working in the sport industry through volunteer experiences. The research looked at the governance, student engagement, leadership, opportunities, finances, and annual events of the club.

**Kustec Lipicer, S., & Lajh, D. (2013)** presented an analytical method for monitoring public governance in sport. They began by discussing the core characteristics of monitoring systems and approaches to public governance. They compare them to existing practices of tracking governance processes in the European Union's transparent method of collaboration and selected International organisations. As a result of the research, a list of possible elements for monitoring systems of governance in the field of sport is provided.

**Shilbury, D., Ferkins, L., et al. (2013)** investigated sport governance practice based on one informant's lived experience in the governance of two sport organizations over a 30-year era. They tried to understand the daily world and derive knowledge and meaning from it. The participant grew up in a time when sports were becoming increasingly professionalized. His narrative sheds light on the transformation from an amateur to a commercial society, which the paper refers to as "two worlds colliding".

**Adriaanse and Schofield (2013)** looked at gender roles in sport governance through the boards of Australian National Sport Organizations. Data suggest directors' participation in sports governance was not uniform in terms of gender dynamics. Central to the regime associated with gender equal governance was the presence of women on the board.

According to **Teja A. (2013)**, athletic activity was controlled by the state during fascism and served as a means of regulating citizens' leisure time, private lives, and social relationships. The dictatorship was able to observe and exploit young people and their abilities by controlling sport. Sport, on the other hand, was used to promote and spread fascist ideology both at home and abroad.

**Geeraert, A., Alm, J., & Groll, M. (2014)** investigated institutional problems in the 35 Olympic sport governing bodies' self-governance quality (SGBs). Lack of objective standards and accountability seriously undermines oversight role of member organizations. Majority of SGBs have institutionalized athlete participation, but they have been denied a share of structured

decision-making authority. European continent has anachronistic domination of the European continent in terms of executive body members. Lack of term limits presents significant risks to power consolidation.

National sport governing bodies (NSGBs) differ from other nonprofits in that they are the mechanism for governing other sport organisations that provide services in their respective sports. A NSGB's formal status positions it at the pinnacle or apex of a network of organisations involved in the same sport. **Chelladurai, P., & Zintz, T. (2015)** identified the essence of the center of a network of sport organisations and the roles that are special to that position.

According to **Geeraert A. (2015)**, benchmarking good governance in ISOs is needed in order to improve governance in (International) sport. The various benchmarking methods that are emerging fill a gap that has hampered changes in sports governance to some degree. More involvement of stakeholders, especially ISOs, in this phase than has been the case thus far will encourage information sharing. This, of course, underlines the need for ISOs to 'take the leap' and adopt one or more of these benchmarking tools. It will increase the probability that the sports world will pay attention to the concepts of good governance being promoted.

According to **Chappelet, J. L. (2015)** Afghanistan, Gambia, Ghana, India, Kuwait, Nigeria, Pakistan, Panama, and Poland were banned from Olympics. Afghanistan, Kuwait and India banned from competing with their flags in Winter Olympics. The IOC had protested, unsuccessfully, against a law (the Amateur Sport Act) passed by the US Congress in the 1970s

that established the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) and gave it ownership of the Olympic rings.

**O'Boyle and Shilbury (2016)** research look at how trust manifests itself in sport governance networks. The study's main themes were existing levels of trust, transparency, the ability to create trust, and leadership. The degree to which each of these dimensions was ingrained in each network's cultures and processes differed greatly. Leadership was found to be a key factor in cultivating collaborative relationships.

**Shilbury, D., O'Boyle, I., & Ferkins, L. (2016)** again explored the utility of collaborative governance as a relevant theoretical underpinning upon which to base future sport governance research focused on the federal model of governance. The outcome of their work was a research agenda to guide research and theory development that may enhance our understanding of collaborative governance in sport, and of the barriers to its adoption and how they may be overcome.

**Ferkins, Shilbury & O'Boyle (2017)** examined the relationship between collective leadership and governance systems in non-profit sport organizations. Their research was to bring together notions of collective board leadership and collaborative governance. They offer implications for future work in collective leadership for sport governance. The authors made clear the multiple levels of the sport governance system and pose two broad research directions.

**Dowling, Leopkey and Smith (2018)** studied the article which examines the current state of sport governance research within the field of sport management. The analysis reveals a notable increase in sport. governance research in recent years with a large number of non-empirical. studies focused on the not-for-profit sector. Findings indicate that all three forms of governance (organizational, systemic, and political) have contributed to our understanding of sport.

Given that FIFA, the world football governing body, has survived significant deficiencies in sports governance, the researcher considers the importance of football fans as future principals. Furthermore, there is no proof that the corruption controversy has harmed FIFA's credibility among users. Finally, online activism aimed at changing FIFA's governance appears to have only a rudimentary development and is only moderately common among football fans. **Hölzen, M., Meier, H. E. et al. (2019)** cast further doubt on football consumers' ability to serve as effective principals in the sport's governance.

### **2.3. Reviews Related to Organizational Transparency**

Transparency in governance means that information is publicly available and open to the general public, especially those who would be most affected by such decisions and their implementation. This shows that the decision-making process adheres to the laws and regulations and is carried out in a competent and impartial manner. In the other hand, an organization's lack of accountability is still open to corruption **Schenk, (2011)**.



According to the **Geeraert, Arnout, (2015)**, transparency is widely thought to lead to less power abuse, financial mismanagement, and corruption. ISOs should follow stringent transparency standards, including financial statements. Misinformation, information overload, and unfair blaming are all risks that must be avoided by publishing accurate, objective, and timely information, says Pissarides. Not all forms of transparency are beneficial to stakeholder empowerment and trust.

According to **Grimmelikhuijsen (2012)**, Transparency has a lot of optimistic connotations, according to the optimists. Optimists believe that any negative or perverse impact can be mitigated with careful planning. Perverse consequences, on the other hand, are execution, according to the pessimist viewpoint. It aids in the accountability of organizations and promotes a transparent culture.

Increased transparency leads to both fair and unfair blaming – a phenomenon known as "blame games" (**Hood 2007, Worthy 2010**). Transparency is overrated; in order for transparency to function, it must be processed by receptors. Information, on the other hand, may be incredibly complex. Alternatively, the actual negotiations are pushed to lower, less transparent levels. Transparency, in other words, may contribute to confusion, information overload, and increased unfair blaming. Finally, the sceptics argue that transparency has no impact. The significance of transparency cannot be overstated.

**Ferkins & Shilbury (2015)** propose a theory of 'board strategic balance' to explain the role of sport boards. They look at the contribution of volunteer board members, operational knowledge, strategy development and integration of strategy into board processes. They propose

a holistic theory to explain these influences in a holistic model. The study was based on literature from the nonprofit, for-profit and sport governance domains.

**De Bosscher et. al. (2016)** studied on International comparison of the elite sport policies of 15 nations. Nations that perform well in International competition show varying patterns of relative strengths and weaknesses. Much of this diversity appears to be driven by social, cultural and political factors. The study provided deeper insights into the phenomena of convergence and divergence of elite sports policies.

According to **Kirkeby, M. (2016)**, there are at least four reasons why good governance in the grassroots sport sector is critical and rising. **Firstly**, grassroots sports have by far the highest degree of public engagement and involvement. Citizens engage in grassroots sport or outdoor physical activity in large numbers in a variety of environments. **Second**, the grassroots sport sector has the most governing bodies, most of which are local associations or sports clubs, and the world they regulate has become more complex and varied. **Third**, as previously said, the grassroots sport sector has the largest economic influence in the overall sport sector, with private people and, to a lesser degree, public authorities contributing the most important financial contributions. **Finally**, the grassroots sport field is where most people exercise their "right to engage in sport" as well as their "right to freedom of expression, peaceful assembly, and interaction with others."

According to **Kirkeby, M. (2016)**, there are at least four reasons why good governance in the grassroots sport sector is critical and rising. "Grassroots sports have by far the highest degree

of public engagement and involvement," he says. Citizens engage in grassroots sport or outdoor physical activity in large numbers in a variety of environments, he adds. The grassroots sport sector has the most governing bodies, most of which are local associations or sports clubs. It also has the largest economic influence in the overall sport sector. Most people exercise their "right to engage in sport" through grassroots sport.

#### **2.4. Reviews Related to Reporting Transparency.**

All governing bodies must be able to communicate effectively with their members. Use of two-way communication is encouraged. Policies, procedures, financial responsibilities, and new marketing ventures should all be communicated to members. Information can be made more accessible to members and interested parties using modern technology (such as the internet) The governing body is considered to be transparent when information is publicly available and accessible to affected members or the general public Sawyer, **Bodey, & Judge, (2008).**

Transparency can take many forms, including reliable financial data reporting, the publishing of annual reports, and resource management. In general, those that may be impacted by an organization's or institution's decisions or activities are held accountable **Mercy Corps, (2010).**

**Jennings, A. (2011)** investigates the gap between principle and practice in corporate sport. He argues that a lack of transparency and accountability in these global sport governing bodies goes hand in glove with a propensity for corruption. He urges academics to take a more critical approach to researching and investigating power relations in world sport.

FIFA has been criticized for its lack of transparency and accountability. In 2011 FIFA initiated a governance reform process which ended in May 2013. **Pielke Jr, R. (2013)** drew on literature in the field of International relations to ask and answer the question: how can FIFA be held accountable?

Dozens of FIFA officials have been charged with bribes and corruption by the US Justice Department. FIFA is the governing body for football, also known as soccer in Australia and North America. Sepp Blatter's 17 years as president of FIFA have been described as a "never-ending governance crisis." FIFA's most recent woes began in 2010, when Russia and Qatar were named as the hosts of the 2018 and 2022 World Cups, respectively. According to **Gross, S., & Ghafar, A. A. (2019)**, action by Switzerland and other countries is critical in containing the "cesspit of corruption" at the world's most popular sport. Although FIFA is based in Switzerland, it is best understood as a stateless conglomerate with no governing body. **Masters, A. (2015)** argued organized sport has entered a fifth evolutionary trend — criminalization. In this latest phase, public policy needs to grapple with what constitutes corruption in what has historically been a private market.

**Parent, M. M. (2016)** demonstrated that accountability, transparency and participation should be divided into internal and external aspects. Stakeholder participation was found to be a central principle, evolving over time and having to be planned and actively enacted. Thus, democratic governance principles can be used to examine the governance system (structures,

processes) and stakeholder relationships found in major sport events, and highlight key areas of importance for event organizers and stakeholders in governing this complex environment.

Corruption is the result of lack of accountability, transparency and control mechanism. **Pielke Jr, R. (2016)** has argued that International sports bodies are particularly fruitful settings for corruption to take root in and difficult to reform. Sports organizations have come to resemble corporations but their governance practices have not kept pace.

Corruption in the processes required to host a sports mega-event has been common throughout history. This has often led to unnecessary costs that have ultimately been borne by the host government's taxpayers. Little progress has been made in the prevention of such behavior. The study by **Matheson, V. A., Schwab, D., & Koval, P. (2018)** identified parts of the bidding and preparation processes that are vulnerable to illegal behavior.

## **2.5. Reviews Related to Democratic Process**

The democratic aspect of sports Federations is an important part of their claim to legitimacy as governing bodies. It is easy, under certain conditions, for well-governed sports organizations to drift (back) into poor governance practices unless vigilance is maintained. The secret ballot system is defended in general by most interviewees, depending on the issue. The IOC attempts to address this issue by referring to basic rights of athletes to participate.

The participation in policy processes by those who are affected by the policy is a cornerstone of democracy, says **Geeraert, Arnout, (2015)**. Member Federations can hold ISOs accountable through their statutory powers. Clubs, referees, coaches, and, most importantly, athletes should be involved in decision-making processes.

**Yeh, C. M., & Taylor, T. (2008)** reviewed the literature and explore that governance is a critical component of the effective management of a sport organization. Questions of appropriate forms of governance have attracted increasing research attention in the sport sector. The governance requirement for board of sports organization in Taiwan was presented as an example.

**Claringbould & Knoppers, (2008)** examined how board members of national sport associations in the Netherlands made sense of gendered arrangements. They used a sense making approach that acknowledges the significance of context (gender ratio) and constructions of meaning.

**Segaert et. al. (2012)** discussed the issues of 'sports governance' in terms of power, legitimacy, the formulation of policy measures, the creation of rules and norms. The world of sports is not approached through the dominant focus on competition, results, medals, records and other 'fun' parts of the reality of sporting events.

**Adriaanse and Schofield, (2014)** examined the impact of gender quotas on gender equality in governance among boards of National Sport Organizations (NSOs) in Australia. The

findings suggested that a quota of a minimum of three women was a first condition to advance gender equality.

## **2.6. Reviews Related to Control Mechanism**

Mutual control procedures, according to **Geeraert, Arnout (2015)**, are essential for preventing power concentration and ensuring that decision-making is robust, autonomous, and free of improper influence. According to Geeraert, all (senior) officials and personnel employed in the various departments of an ISO should be subjected to checks and balances or control mechanisms. According to him, there is general consensus on the principle that a "control mechanism" is needed and constitutes good governance. This theory is stated in the IOC (2008), and several interviewees provided interesting concrete examples or scenarios.

There is widespread agreement on the principle that a system of “control mechanism” is needed and constitutes good governance. The **IOC (2008)** refers to this principle and many interviewees gave interesting concrete examples or proposals of different scenarios such as the following:

- A dual-board structure with a supervisory board comprised of mainly independent, external, experts, controlling a management board
- A unitary but totally independent board meeting frequently (once a month) to control the activities of the President and Administration
- A completely separate and independent body, maybe even located in a different country to the Federation itself, to deal with all disciplinary, doping, corruption, match-fixing and similar matters, including the power to initiate its own investigations

- A system whereby the power is spread around amongst President, Board, Administration, Committees and stakeholders
- A system similar to that of “scrutineers” at a Congress, potentially with partial or full independent, external membership, to check processes and ensure that good practice has been adhered to.
- The introduction of an audit and remuneration sub-committee of the Board, as might exist for a company

## **2.7. Reviews Related to Sports integrity.**

Integrity is the integration of outward actions and inner values. It is a form of self-consciousness within the individual through focusing on the self. A person of integrity can be trusted because he or she never veers from inner values, even when it might be expeditious to do so. Integrity is a word commonly associated with modern day sports, it is a complex term that takes on different meanings in different environments. **Teehan, (1995)** defines integrity as “the result of unity between a person’s actions and his or her moral image, where individuals must consider the consequences of their behaviors and actions, both for themselves and their communities, and for both the short and long term”.

**Andreff, W. (2018)** stated that match fixing is a greater threat to the integrity of sport than doping. Illegal gambling is the principal driver of what the IOC president, Jacques Rogge, has called a "cancer" The authors conclude that match fixing was a threat to sport's integrity and the sport ethics and jeopardized sport integrity in the sport of football, cricket, football, rugby and other sports.



**Holowchak (2001; 2002)** viewed sportsmanship as a cultural phenomenon. He contextualizes the term relative to the Greek idea of moral and physical excellence: *arête*. He calls this athleticism which implies hardship and commitment to winning. He elaborates further on this idea by stating that the commitment to winning is combined with the manner of virtuous fair play in which victory is achieved.

**Lumpkin et al (2003)** explains that integrity in sport is largely addressed through the concepts of fair play, respect for the game, sportsmanship, and responsibility. Fair play is more than a philosophical ideal that athletes subscribe to; it is a mode of social organization that demands dedication. According to them moral reasoning within sports involves three elements: moral character, moral valuing, and moral acting.

**Arnold (2003)** defines sportsmanship in the altruistic perception of the term as a sacrifice of an individual's who goes beyond what is required by duty or a proper observance of the rules namely that these acts have moral value and they are not morally obligatory.

**Butcher & Schneider (2003)** conclude there is no complete definition of fair play, yet they claim that the intrinsic essence of fair play is respect for the game, believing this concept is the starting point for an ethical approach to sports education.

**McNamee & Fleming (2007)** presented a theorized and conceptually informed method for the undertaking of an ethics audit organization. Method was developed in the auditing of a

national public sector sports organization: sport Scotland. This emphasizes the significance of key personnel (individuals and in groups) in producing and reproducing the organizational ethos.

**Wathelet (2007)** stated that although sport is part of a healthy lifestyle and is a means of fans devoting themselves to the game and to competition, it has also become a professional business and an economic sector in its own right. To a greater or lesser extent, depending on the discipline, player transfers, infrastructures, media rights, advertising and sponsorship of major national or International events now run into billions of euros or dollars.

**Palaez (2010)** explains that, there has been consistent inability in research to define and effectively utilize concept of fair play, sportsmanship, morals, character, and ethical conduct.

**Howman (2013)** states that integrity is generally viewed as critical area in today's world, and the sport environment is really no different. Reasons for integrity behavior in sport and its allied support mechanisms are attributed to many factors. Some of these factors are match fixing, corruption and doping. Others reasons are overemphasis on winning, seeking prestige or financial rewards, bending the rules, cheating and verbal abuse.

In sports administration and organisations, there is a pressing need for the creation of a new professional: Sports Ethics and Integrity Officers. According to **Cleret (2015)**, the future of sports depends on the implementation of adequate and successful measures to combat threats to sports credibility.

**McNamee, M. (2013)** stated that, there is a horrible and vital need for a word list of corruption in sport. Much of it may be gambling related but surely not all. Stories are legion of FIFA having to ward off charges of corruption. A recent report by Transparency International puts it bluntly: saving football = good governance + anti-corruption (Transparency International 2013).

**Archer (2016)** examined whether there is any way to understand 'sporting integrity' in a way that makes sense of the way it is used. He looked at three recent high-profile incidents that caused sporting integrity to be called into question. He argued that such an account could be given and shown how that helps us to understand the cases.

According to **Boudreaux, Karahan and Coats, R.M. (2016)** FIFA has long been plagued by allegations of bribery, but has been able to get around them. Being organized as a not-for-profit organization while generating large revenues, FIFA has enjoyed the services of highly paid executives and employees. It will take a powerful, independent, and external judiciary to threaten corrupt behavior from FIFA, authors say. The authors: Given the recent charges against FIFA's executives, we expect some improvement. But due to the institutional structure of corruption, and the fact that this is a supra-national non-profit, we may not expect corruption to disappear. Corruption is not a problem of selecting the right individuals, it is an institutional process.

**Beeston, C. (2017)** examined that new Code for Sports Governance was published by UK Sport and Sport England on 31 October. It follows the Government's commitment for a new

Code to protect and maximize the effectiveness of public investments made in sports, which totaled over £1 billion over the past four years. The Code sets out the requirements in terms of structures, transparency, accountability and financial control which sporting organizations will have to fulfill if they wish to receive public funding.

**Maennig (2018)** dealt with the concept of (good) governance in sports organizations, existing challenges and issues that have yet to be resolved. It laid out ideas for enhanced good governance through the example of mega-events.

**Chappelet & Van Luijk (2018)** examined the functioning of the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) WADA is an organization that is coordinated by national governments and private sporting organizations to fight doping in sport. The authors examined four main issues: athlete testing, compliancy by anti-doping stakeholders, governance structures and the agency funding. They concluded their analysis by suggesting possible ways of addressing these issues, drawn up in light of semi-directive interviews carried out in September 2016. The conclusion stresses the need for WADA to restore public and government confidence in its work.

**Ioannidis, G. (2010)** argues that this field of regulation and governance is increasingly developing, stressing the relevance of the public/private law dichotomy and its relation to sports law. Despite the fact that the Court of Appeal has clarified many issues arising from this heading, the case may still be made that further clarity is required due to the constant evolution of sports.

**Dorsey, J. M. (2016)** stated that restructuring of the governance of the continent's football associations will require a paradigm shift. Tinkering with reforms of the AFC's current government structure is unlikely to tackle the group's fundamental, long-standing problems. The AFC will have to ensure that management is expanded at the club, national and regional levels so that it includes all stakeholders, including players and fans. To ensure sound rules and regulations for International tournaments, the AFC should consider the criteria for the awarding of mega-events from the International Olympic Committee's Agenda 2020.

## **2.8. Reviews Related to Solidarity.**

Social esteem or assessment is a type of reciprocal respect that exists in civil society and enables individuals to react positively to their personal skills and abilities. The disrespect displayed in this field is the practise of marginalisation or insults. This type of appreciation, according to **Honneth (1995)**, is crucial for sustaining and extending a healthy self-relationship. This is the sphere in which we are accepted as individuals.

Social assessment is given to abilities that are unique to the person, as well as characteristics that define individuality. Different talents and abilities are not shared human characteristics, but they do add to a community's shared horizon of values. Specific qualities and abilities will be known to a greater degree as the shared horizon becomes more complex. According to **Honneth (1995)** the opportunity for recognition in the form of unity in a pluralistic society is a "post-conventional" form that refers to a situation in which most members of society can be socially appraised for their abilities.

People's practical relationships with themselves are affected when they are valued in this way. Individuals are valued and compensated for the talents and abilities that we are born with or have acquired over our lives: these are the defining characteristics of individuals. The true expression of human rights can be said to be appreciation and self-realization. Sport appears to provide an arena for this "post-conventional mode" of recognition of athletic ability valued across the mutual value-horizon of sport when it is viewed as a sphere of relative freedom (**Guttmann, 1978; Morgan, 1994; Suits, 1988**).

**Suits (1973, 1988)** maintained that this separate sphere of play/ games and sports creates a space for expressing more of ourselves than society normally allows room for. The rationalization and bureaucratization of sport can be viewed as a transformation from a pastime to a more organized practice accepted and appreciated by society as a legitimate and acceptable way of spending one's leisure time.

According to **W. Andersen (2015)**, sport plays an important role in contemporary society. Sport philosophers argue that sport can provide a realm of play because it is structurally and logically separate from daily life. But, if any, what ethical values can sport be said to provide? Based on Honneth's theory of recognition, explanations are pursued. Love, rights, and solidarity, according to Honneth, are essential conditions not only for a just society, but also for a society in which human beings can understand their potential and have a positive experience of life. According to Honneth, sport can be viewed as an arena with the possibility for a consolidated form of recognition. Sport has the potential to realize all three forms of recognition inherent in society if it is practiced correctly.

Solidarity is a "political" (as opposed to a "corporate") governance concept, according to **Chappelet (2011)**. This makes prescribing good or best practise for a Good Governance Code much more difficult. UEFA advises its members to implement a "financial solidarity process" as well as "financial assistance programmes" (UEFA 2011, p.2) Additional guidelines come from organisations that evaluate the efficiency of NGOs, either directly or indirectly.

**Jones, E. (2012)** related the literature on identity and solidarity to larger questions of authority, stability, and meaning, arguing that although the literature is nuanced, it is also worthwhile. There are five parts to this claim. The first proposes that identity can play a causal role in the European integration process. The second implies that identity is more of a consequence than a cause. The third segment discusses the relationship between different identities. The fourth ties faith, race, and immigration together. The fifth section ends by addressing the consequences of European integration for our understanding.

**Shilbury, D., & Ferkins, L. (2015)** designed and implemented intervention with the Bowls Australia Board. They studied one of the first to examine collaborative governance in a federal sport structure. Results demonstrate the utility of collaborative governance to overcome adversarial national, member-state relations.

**Booth, (2015)** discussed how generic governance models may influence sporting organisations in Australia. They focused on the sports of bowls, hockey and swimming which examined how governance, and management structures and practices affected a sport's capacity for revenue generation and sustainability. They considered the extent to which three generic

governance. models: traditional model (TM), policy governance model (PGM) and executive led. model (ELM) apply to each of the three sports.

## **2.8. Reviews Related to Stakeholder Representation**

**Henry and Lee (2004)** stated that in the sports world governance has evolved from "the old, hierarchical model of the top-down system" to a complex web of interrelationships between stakeholders. Many stakeholders would dispute the degree to which they really can exert influence in practice under the shift to systemic governance, but they are nevertheless more involved now than in the past. This conforms to the wider trend for corporations to be more widely accountable to a wider range of stakeholders. Sport is also affected in other ways by what is happening outside its own world, as can be seen with the social dialogue.

**Grix, J. (2009)** argues that UK Athletics (UKA) has been influenced by the Labor government's wider modernization agenda. He argues that this has led to a narrow, short-term target-centered approach to athletics. This has resulted in a shift in national governing body accountability away from its stakeholders, including the grass-roots, and up towards UK Sport. He draws on the debates around the term 'New Managerialism' to understand how UKA has modernized along business lines.

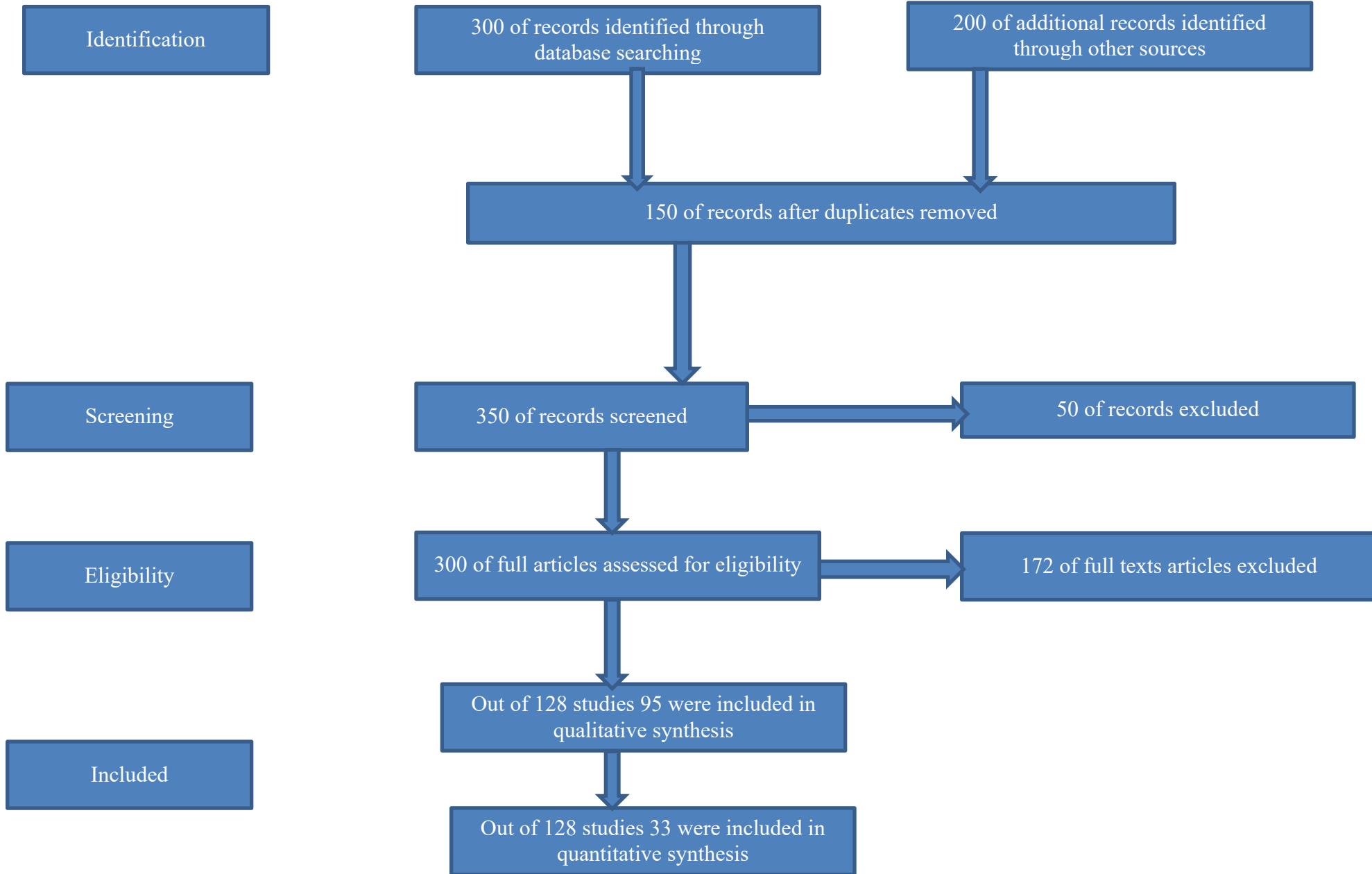
Leaders of national and International sport organizations are increasingly recognizing the importance of involving stakeholders in the development of policies. In the governance of International high-performance sport, an important group of stakeholders includes athletes.



Several organizations have incorporated more athlete-centered practices that have allowed for greater involvement from athletes, according to a report by **Thibault, L., Kihl, L. &abiak, K. (2010)** They examined how representation and deliberative participation in policy-making allow high performance athletes to not only be represented at policy meetings, but also be involved in the formation of policies that affect them.

**Phat, (2016)** studied that Cronulla Sharks Rugby League Club and the Essendon Football Club were handed down sanctions in 2011 and 2012. The sanctions included fines and suspension of their respective senior coaches and players. They explored events leading up to the scandal and its aftermath. They included a series of questions that can be used to stimulate class discussion in areas of governance.

# Meta-Analysis of Literature Review



## **2.9 CONCLUSION**

After reviewing all the available related literature on Good Governance practices at the National Sports Federations across countries, it was found that there were no specific researches conducted by any research agencies or organizations for understanding the level of Good Governance measures being practice at national level sports organizations or Federations in India. This research gap has motivated the researcher to carry out the present study to understand the level of Good Governance measures being practice in the National Sports Federations in India in order to made known the findings of the study to the respective National Sports Federations for improving overall organizational efficiency.