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# Stakeholder Analysis and Sport Organisations

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Edited by Anna-Maria  
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2022

## The stakeholders of the Olympic Movement

*Jean-Loup Chappelet*

### Introduction

'The Olympic Movement is the concerted, organised, universal and permanent action, carried out under the supreme authority of the IOC, of all individuals and entities who are inspired by the values of Olympism. [...] Belonging to the Olympic Movement requires compliance with the Olympic Charter and recognition by the IOC' (Fundamental principles 3 and 7 of the Olympic Charter 2020a, pp. 11–12). This is the definition of the Olympic Movement provided by the IOC, a non-governmental organisation that establishes the Olympic Charter and supervises the organisation of the Olympic Games. Founded in 1894 by Pierre de Coubertin as a sort of club of 15 of his acquaintances, the IOC is now a not-for-profit association under Swiss law and the central organisation of the Olympic Movement. The Committee's maximum 115 members are public figures interested in sport drawn from all five continents.

All the entities and individuals mentioned in the above definition of the Olympic Movement are potential IOC stakeholders, in the sense of Freeman (1984, p. 25): 'Any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objective', and they participate in all Olympic Movement's activities, most notably the staging of the Olympic Games.

Some of these stakeholders, such as International sports Federations (IFs), National Olympic Committees (NOCs) and Organising Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs) are relatively obvious and well known. However, there are also many other less evident and less prominent stakeholders that play important roles in the Movement. All these entities, and many individuals such as Olympic athletes and their entourage (coaches, doctors, parents, agents, etc.), Olympic fans and spectators have a part to play on the vast stage of the Olympic Movement, either within their own country or internationally. It can even be said that the Olympic Games would not exist without close collaboration between these stakeholders, with each playing an assigned role.

The objective of this chapter is to briefly identify most of the Olympic stakeholders and to present a model that can be used to distinguish between those that are central or primary and those that are more peripheral or secondary (Carroll

1978), in order to focus on the former group, which conforms to the Stanford Research Institute's original definition of stakeholders as: 'Those groups without whose support the organisation would cease to exist' (quoted by Freeman and Reed 1983).

The first section of this chapter lists and briefly describes the various Olympic stakeholders, the second section outlines an analysis of the models drawn up by the IOC and the third section presents the evolution of the Olympic System through models developed over the years by the author (Chappelet 1991, Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott 2008, Chappelet 2016).

### Olympic stakeholders

When applying stakeholder theory, it is best to concentrate on one (focal) organisation; therefore, the present analysis focuses on the IOC. During the first part of the history of the modern Games, the IOC was less important than the OCOGs who did stage the Games under light IOC's supervision; however, since the 1980s, it has been central to all Olympic issues.

We start with internal stakeholders and then move on to external stakeholders, examining them in the following order (of chronological appearance in the Olympic System as shown in section three): IOC (organs and staff), OCOGs, NOCs, IFs, NGBs and OLYs (Olympic athletes), GVTs (Governments), media and RHBs (Right Holding Broadcasters), sponsors, sport regulators, professional sports leagues, athletes and clubs, civic groups and NGOs [(international) non-governmental organisations (iNGOs)], national courts, Olympic volunteers, fans and spectators and other IOC-recognised sport-related bodies. Each of these major categories is then subdivided into narrower categories in order to examine each entity's role in Olympic matters. This detailed list of IOC stakeholders is mostly drawn from the IOC's website, the Olympic Directory (2017), the IOC annual reports (last edition: IOC 2020b) and Chappelet (2016).

### IOC

#### IOC organs

This category can be divided into individual members of the IOC, the Session, the Executive Board, IOC Commissions and Olympic Solidarity. Under the terms of the Olympic Charter – a text of a constitutional nature which provides the statutes of the IOC and the basic tenets of the Olympic Games – the IOC can have up to 115 members, all of whom are appointed (co-opted) by the IOC itself. At the end of 2020, the IOC had 105 members, including 36 women, from about 80 countries. The IOC Session is the annual general assembly of IOC members, chaired by the president of the IOC. This meeting is the supreme body of the IOC responsible for elections and important decisions (such as choosing the next Olympic host). The Executive Board – 15 members elected by the Session – is the

government of the IOC and meets four or five times a year under the aegis of the president who is an executive president at the head of the IOC Administration (see the following). IOC Commissions, of which there are approximately 30, are set up by the president to advise on specific areas of interest to the IOC and its members. Some commissions (athletes, ethics, finance and members' election) are more important than others (Chappelet 2007). A smart observer said that the fewer members a commission has, the more important it is. Finally, Olympic Solidarity is the department of the IOC that shares revenues among the NOCs through value-in-kind programmes and cash grants. It is directly supervised by an eponymous commission chaired by the president of the ANOC (Associations of NOCs). Seven other stakeholders can be grouped with the IOC organs, as they are controlled by members of the Executive Board, even though they are legally independent: the Olympic Museum Foundation, which owns the museum building; the Olympic Foundation, which collects and manages the IOC's fortune; IOC Television & Marketing Services (IOCTMS SA), a limited company that provides services to broadcasters and sponsors of the IOC and acts as an in-house marketing department for the IOC while remaining legally independent; The Olympic Truce Foundation, which makes sure that a truce resolution is passed by the UN General Assembly one year before each Olympics; Olympic Broadcasting Services (OBS SA), a limited company fully owned by the IOC and that produces for the IOC and the OCOG the television signal purchased by rights-holding broadcasters (RHBs, see the following); the Olympic Channel Services (OCS SA) and the Olympic Refugee Foundation, which runs various sport programme for refugees and the Olympic Refugee team of athletes participating in the Olympics since 2016 but who cannot be part of their NOC's team for political reasons.

#### *IOC administration (staff)*

Since Juan Antonio Samaranch's presidency (1981–2001), the IOC president has had an executive role (both CEO and chairman of the (Executive) Board), working full-time for the organisation without salary (however, the president's living expenses and any costs related to official activities are covered by the IOC). Moreover, since Thomas Bach was elected IOC President in 2013, the IOC President receives an annual allowance of 225,000 euros (IOC 2020b). The president of the IOC is a member of the IOC who is elected by the Session for an eight-year term, which can be renewed once for four years. Until 1999, there was no limit on how many terms the president could serve and the three predecessors of president Jacques Rogge (2001–2013), occupied the post for 21 (Samaranch), 8 (Killanin) and 20 (Brundage) years, respectively. Jacques Rogge was the first president to have a limited term of office (eight + four years) from 2001 to 2013. His successor, Thomas Bach, was re-elected in 2021 for a last term of four years (until 2025). Officially, the president's powers are limited, as he (to date, all IOC presidents have been men) must submit most decisions to the Executive Board, which is a form of collegial government for the IOC. In practice, the president

has considerable influence over IOC decision-making due to his power over the 600-person administration, which he manages on a day-to-day basis in Lausanne (Switzerland) via the director general, a deputy director general, a chief operating officer (COO) and a dozen directors who heads the various IOC's Administration departments.

From an organisational point of view, the IOC Administration is organised into 15 departments, responsible for areas such as the Olympic Games, Sports, Finance, Legal, Communication, NOC relations, Olympic Solidarity, Corporate brand and sustainability and the Olympic Museum. Each department is run by a director, who reports to the director general, deputy director general or COO. However, three directors stand out: the president's Spokesperson, the chief ethics and compliance Officer and the Executive Director of the Olympic Games, who supervises the production of the IOC's main 'product'. The former IOC Marketing Department is now merged with IOCTMS SA.

#### **Organising Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs)**

OCOGs are temporary non-profit organisations with legal personalities that are set up by cities that successfully bid to host an edition of the Summer, Winter or YOG. Host cities are elected by the IOC Session following a presentation prepared by an ad hoc bid committee and a recommendation by the executive board. OCOGs have a lifespan of about ten years, during which time they organise and then wind up the Games. They are formed by the public authorities (in general city's) and NOC of the host country, who sign an 'Olympic Host Contract' (formerly 'Host City Contract') with the IOC setting out all the rights and obligations of the different parties (IOC, NOC, City or territory) and to which the OCOG must agree to as soon as it is formed (after the election). The IOC attributes the Games in principle more than seven years in advance; therefore, it is always dealing with five or six different OCOGs, who are organising different editions of the Games under its supervision (including the YOG (Youth Olympic Games) organising committees). It is important to note that the IOC does not organise the Olympics on an operational basis; it is the OCOGs and its associates' tasks. In terms of managerial priorities, the most important is the OCOG of the upcoming Games (which is feverishly preparing the next Olympic fortnight), followed by other OCOGs (which are preparing future editions that have already been attributed) and bid committees (which are hoping to win a future edition). The OCOG and its satellite organisations, as well as the IOC, are increasingly concerned with the legacy of the Games.

#### **National Olympic Committees (NOCs)**

NOCs are the local representatives of the IOC, but they are legally independent from it (most NOCs are not-for-profit associations). In 2021, the IOC recognised 206 NOCs in independent countries (UN members) and territories (such as

Guam, a US territory which does not belong to the United Nations). Their main task is to organise a team of athletes to take part in the Olympic Games (and sometimes in continental games) and to defend Olympism in their country or territory. They receive, via Olympic Solidarity, a proportion of the television and marketing rights for the Games directly in cash or indirectly through scholarships and courses for their athletes, referees, staff, etc. Each NOC is made up of at least five national sports federations or NGBs, which represent sport's local clubs and regional associations within a country. NOCs can be categorised into four types on the basis of whether or not they have their own financial resources (in addition to those from Olympic Solidarity) and on how independent they are from their government (Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott 2008, p. 54): politically independent NOCs with significant resources (about 20, including the United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee), politically independent NOCs without significant financial resources (mainly in Europe), NOCs *de facto* controlled by national governments (in many developing countries, although they should be autonomous bodies according to the Olympic Charter) and 'Fantasy' NOCs (that only emerge every four years with a view to a symbolic participation in the Games). To these four categories can be added temporarily suspended NOCs (Afghanistan in 2000, Iraq in 2003, Kuwait in 2010 and India in 2014) and NOCs that are not (yet) recognised by the IOC (e.g. Gibraltar). Since 2016, refugees can take part in the Games via an Olympic refugee team organised by the Olympic Refugee Foundation (managed by the IOC). Internationally, NOCs have grouped together to form a worldwide association (ANOC) and five continental associations (ANOCA, OCA, ODEPA, ONOC and EOC). These associations, respectively, control the African, Asian, Pan-American and Pacific continental games, as well as the European Youth Olympic Festival, and the recently created European Games, organised by Europe's Olympic Committees (EOC). There are many other games organisers for events such as the Commonwealth Games, the Maccabiah Games, the Mediterranean Games, Bolivian Games, etc., based on political history, culture or geography. In addition, each stakeholder's salience is highly dependent on its specific nature, even within a group of stakeholders listed under the same acronym. For example, the weight of the United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee (USOPC) is much greater than that of the Monaco Olympic Committee.<sup>1</sup>

### **International Federations (IFs)**

Each IF controls a sport or an ensemble of related disciplines throughout the world. For instance, the International Volleyball Federation controls classic volleyball (6×6) and beach volleyball (2×2), two disciplines, which are in the Olympics, and other disciplines of volleyball such as park volley (4×4). IFs are in general not-for-profit associations, around 100 of which have joined to form the Global Association of International Sport Federations or GAISF (formerly SportAccord). Their importance depends on the media impact of the sport, the number of national federations or NGBs within the IF, whether or not they are

Winter Games. These criteria can be used to define a number of categories that reflect the resources and influence of the different IFs: Olympic IFs (whose sport is included in the Summer or Winter Games – 35 = 25 + 7 IFs in 2021 + 5 summer IFs added for Tokyo 2020 + 1), recognised IFs (who hope their sport will be admitted to the Games – about 40 IFs in 2021) and other IFs (whether they are members of GAISF or not, such as the World Flying Disk Federation or the International Tchoukball Federation). Judges-referees supplied by Olympic IFs oversee the competitions at the Games and apply the rules of their sport or discipline. Olympic IFs, which belong to one of two associations depending on whether they are included in the Summer Games (Association of Summer Sports International Federations – ASOIF) or Winter Games (Association of International Olympic Winter sports Federations – AIOWF), also draft sporting rules, determine event calendars and supervise the organisation of international competitions in their sport (championships, cups, qualifiers, etc.). They receive a proportion of the revenues from the Games directly from the IOC according to a scale of distribution percentages agreed among ASOIF and AIOWF members. There are enormous differences between the IFs within the ASOIF and the AIOWF, with some, such as the International Ski Federation (FIS) and the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF, now World Athletics), being powerful due to the fact they have revenue generating world championships or cups, whereas others, such as the International Canoe Federation (ICF) and the International Luge Federation (FIL), are almost entirely dependent on the revenues they receive from the Games/IOC. The Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) is apart as its Olympic revenues represent a very small part of its total income coming mostly from the men's football World Cup. An IF's weight also depends on whether or not its president is elected a member of the IOC. IFs' members are national federations or NGBs, which run a given sport at the national level and prepare their best athletes to take part in the Olympics.

### **National Governing Bodies (NGBs), Olympic athletes (OLYs), their parents and entourage**

NGBs (or National federations) govern a sport at a national level and organise national or local championships. Their members are generally clubs from their sport. Clubs and NGBs also provide athletes who may be eligible for Olympic competitions. Athletes who have taken part in at least one Olympic Games are known as Olympians (around 11,000 for a Summer Games and 3,000 for a Winter Games), now designated by the post-nominal letters 'OLY'. In 1995, they came together upon the IOC's call to form the World Olympians Association (WOA). This association has been recently relaunched but is not a very salient stakeholder. Since 1999, the IOC has included a 20-something-member Athletes' Commission, 12 of whose members are elected from Olympians from the current or preceding edition of the Games ('active athletes') by their peers at the Olympic village and automatically become IOC members. An entourage of sports techni-

order to control the sometimes-negative influence of this entourage, in 2009, the IOC set up an Entourage Commission to deal with matters concerning the relationship between athletes and all the other stakeholders that support athletes. The parents of young athletes and the athlete's entourage can also be considered Olympic stakeholders as they have immense influence over the choices made by these budding Olympians.

### **Media and Right Holding Broadcasters (RHBs)**

The Olympics are today first and foremost a media event which attracts thousands of journalists and media personnel (more than Olympians). The IOC has always tried to obtain the largest, universal coverage of the Olympic Games in order to maintain their high profile. This was first achieved via newspapers (from the beginnings) and then by radio (from 1924) and television (from 1956 for the Winter Olympics and 1960 for the Summer Olympics, although there were marginal tests before, in Berlin 1936 and London 1948). Coverage now includes new media, such as social media on the Internet and smartphones. The IOC clearly differentiates between media that do not buy reporting rights (journalists and photographers of the written press and press agencies) and those that pay what can be huge sums to broadcast the Games on television (in general bundled with radio and Internet rights) to specific countries or territories (the so-called rights-holding broadcasters or RHBs). The most important of these RHBs is America's National Broadcasting Corporation (NBC), as it holds the contract to televise both the Summer Games (since 1992) and the Winter Games (since 2002) on its various channels and websites across the United States until 2032 (for the moment). The Olympic broadcast revenue generation for the Rio 2016 Summer Olympics was US\$ 2,868 million and for the PyeongChang 2018 Winter Olympics was US\$ 1,436 million (IOC 2020c, p. 26). Public as well as private RHBs are accepted by the IOC as long as they provide 200 hours of non-encrypted coverage of the Games in their area (on so-called free-to-air television). Since the 2008 Beijing Games, Internet native companies, such as You Tube (owned by Google) and Terra (owned by Telefónica), have also signed contracts with the IOC to show videos of the Olympics on the Internet. Access to these videos is geoblocked in some countries (such as the United States), in order to protect RHBs of these countries (such as NBC who has bought Olympic radio, television and Internet rights in a bundle). In 2014, the IOC created Olympic Channel Services (OCS SA), a limited company that 'presents all things Olympic every day of the year' (according to its website) such as sport vignettes, past Olympic highlights, etc. (but not the current Olympic broadcasts which are shown by RHBs).

### **Governments (GVTs) and intergovernmental organisations**

Since the 1950s and even more so since the 1970s, the IOC has increasingly dealt with governments. This non-homogeneous group of stakeholders consists of the

local, regional and national governments of cities hosting the Games (which are deeply involved in issues of infrastructure, security, diplomacy, transport, health, legacy, etc.); the governments of the city of Lausanne, the Vaud canton and the Swiss Confederation (which house the IOC's headquarters and under whose legal jurisdiction the IOC falls); other governments, which do not always respect the autonomy of their NOC and former Olympic cities' governments, which came together in 2008 in a World Union founded by Lausanne and Athens. On an intergovernmental level, the most important stakeholders are the United Nations (whose general assembly adopts a resolution for the Olympic Truce every two years and which granted observer status to the IOC in 2009); specialist organisations in the UN system (e.g. UNESCO, WHO, UNICEF, etc., with which the IOC has vague cooperation agreements) and the European Union (EU) who see sport through its economic dimension. However, the EU has recently recognised the specific nature of sport under the 2009 Treaty of Lisbon, which revamped the EU's foundations; and the CoE (Council of Europe), which has initiated several international conventions against doping, spectator violence, private corruption and the manipulation of sports results (Chappelet 2017).

### **National (or domestic) and international (or TOP) sponsors**

OCOGs, since the beginning of the modern Games, and the IOC, since the early 1980s, have used advertising and sponsoring to provide further sources of revenue in addition to television rights (see media mentioned previously). In 1985, the IOC set up a sponsoring programme aimed at multinational companies (Coca-Cola, Visa, Panasonic, Samsung, etc.), now called TOP (The Olympic Partners). TOP Programme VIII (for the 2013–2016 quadrennium) brought in US\$1,003 million (IOC 2020c, p. 15) which is mainly shared with the OCOGs, IFs and NOCs, as well as other Olympic recognised organisations (see the following). OCOGs have their own (national or domestic) sponsors and suppliers, and they have contracts with licensees, who pay royalties so that they can sell articles bearing the Games emblem (through a merchandising programme). The IOC receives a proportion of the revenues (7.5 %) obtained from these commercial partners, which are limited to the Games' host country but contribute more than the TOP sponsors to the OCOG's budget. At the end of the 20th century, the IOC has had a few official sponsors or suppliers only in Switzerland (Mercedes, Mizuno, etc.) and a sponsor for the Olympic Museum (UBS).

The NOCs, NGBs and athletes also have sponsors, suppliers or licensees. Sports equipment manufacturers are sponsors or suppliers of all previously mentioned stakeholders. At the Games, all forms of advertising by sponsors and suppliers are banned within Olympic venues (clean venue policy). Rule 50 of the Olympic Charter forbids advertising activities in Olympic venues. It is being amended in 2021 to restrict political demonstration by athletes while preserving the freedom of speech in Olympic venues. However, athletes can use the sport apparel and

equipment they wish (with a limit on the brand sizes shown), which, however, gain exceptional exposure. RHBs can in a way be considered national sponsors or licensees, as broadcasting rights are sold by territory and do not extend beyond a territory/country's borders.

### **Sport Regulators (CAS and WADA)**

The increasingly complex relations between the IOC, IFs, NOCs and Olympians, on the one hand, and Olympic economic stakeholders such as the media, sponsors and suppliers, on the other hand, have led to the creation of bodies to regulate the sports phenomenon and also to the recognition of specialist organisations. The most important of these organisations are: 1) the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS), set up in 1984 to resolve disputes relating to sport that are voluntarily submitted by two parties, and 2) the WADA, set up in 1999 to coordinate and lead the worldwide fight against doping and funded equally by the sports movement and the world's governments as enshrined in a 2005 UNESCO convention. Moreover, the International Testing Agency (ITA) was founded in 2018 by the IOC to make testing more independent from countries (which have set up since 2006 NADOs) and the various sports (governed by IFs, many of which have delegated in full or in part their anti-doping fight to this new agency). Trade organisations such as the World Federation of Sporting Goods Industry (WFSGI) can also be mentioned. The WFSGI is recognised by the IOC and represents its members vis-à-vis the IOC, IFs and other stakeholders on any subject of concern for the sporting goods industry including equipment and advertisement regulations, especially during the Games.

### **Professional sport leagues**

Under the Olympic amateurism rules in force up until the early 1980s, professional athletes, whether in individual sports or team sports, were not allowed to take part in the Olympics. Professional footballers and tennis players first officially took part in the Games in 1984 in Los Angeles (tennis was a demonstration sport in 1984; it joined in Olympic programme in 1988). Since then, professional athletes have become accepted across all Olympic disciplines as part of the IOC's drive to ensure that the Games brings together the best athletes in the world, especially from the major American-based pro leagues. On this point, the IOC has gone as far as excluding certain sports (baseball in 2005) because they could not guarantee the presence of the best pro players at the Games and admit other sports (golf from 2016) that would. In this respect, agreements have been signed between OCOGs, the IFs concerned and the respective leagues in order to ensure that their athletes (employees) took part in the Games. Such agreements include those signed with the Association of Tennis Professionals (ATP) and Women's Tennis Association (WTA) as from the 1988 Games, with the National Basketball Association (NBA) as from the 1992 Games, and with the National Hockey League (NHL)

as from the 1998 Winter Games (except for the 2018 Winter Games). These pro leagues are for-profit organisations unlike the IFs of their sport.

### **Athletes and their clubs**

Until recently, athletes had little influence over Olympic matters, as they had no direct representation and could eventually express themselves only via their NGB, IF or NOC (despite not being members of these bodies, or only indirectly through their clubs). This began to change in the 2010s, especially for Olympic athletes (OLYs), thanks to the athlete commissions set up by many sport bodies and to several ad hoc associations that were created to give them a voice. These bodies include the World Players Association, founded in 2017; Global Athlete, founded in 2018 and the Athletics Association, founded in 2019 (Chappelet 2020). Athletes are now much more willing to speak out, as they demonstrated during the Russian doping crisis (2016–2020), when several athletes openly criticised decisions taken by WADA and the IOC. More recently, they complained about the time taken to postpone the Tokyo 2020 Olympics.

### **Civic groups and NGOs**

Civic Groups (pro or mostly against the Olympics) and public opinion also became an important Olympic stakeholder in the early 21st century. Although it is difficult to talk about a worldwide public opinion, as public opinions can differ greatly both locally and globally, the Olympic Games are facing increasingly vocal criticism from sections of the public (sometime organised as civic groups) in many countries and host communities, and this criticism is having a major impact on bids to host the Games. For example, numerous cities interested in hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics or 2024 Summer Olympics withdrew their candidacies following negative referendums (or threats of referendums) (Chappelet 2021). One of these cities was Boston, which withdrew its bid for the 2024 Games in the face of strong local, organised opposition, despite being the US Olympic Committee's official candidate (Dempsey and Zimbalist 2017). These local public opinions, supported by ad hoc civic groups, are gradually coalescing into a sort of international anti-Olympic movement that regularly makes itself heard in both designated Olympic cities and potential candidate cities. Public opinion is largely supportive of this informal movement, as problems at recent editions of the Games, such as the lack of legacies and huge costs of Sochi 2014 and Rio 2016, continue to tarnish the Olympics' formerly (overly) idyllic image.

In addition to civic groups, which are usually organised at the national level, the IOC also has to deal with a number of NGOs that have taken an interest in sport since the end of the 20th century, most notably as a way of promoting their causes. They are sometimes categorised as 'stakeseekers' (cf. the introduction to this volume). Some have cooperated freely with the IOC (e.g. the International

Committee of the Red Cross, Right to Play); others are much less cooperative (e.g. Reporters Without Borders, Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch).

### National courts

Before the turn of the 21st century, Olympic organisations had almost never had to account for their actions before national courts (and prosecutors), whether in the countries in which they are based (most notably Switzerland) or hold their events (e.g. Brazil), or in relation to international law arising from treaties between States (e.g. European law). The creation of the CAS, under Swiss law (with appeals possible to Switzerland's highest court, the Tribunal Fédéral), in 1984 had helped Olympic organisations largely avoid such legal scrutiny, as it acted as a sort of private legal system for sport. This began to change in the 2000s when numerous accusations of corruption against high-profile members of organisations such as FIFA, the IAAF, the IOC and the International Biathlon Union (IBU) led several national justice systems (the United States, France, Switzerland, Brazil, Norway, Austria, etc.) to take an interest in the operations of these Olympic organisations. In addition, athletes (Bosman, Meca-Medina, Cañas, Mutu, Pechstein, Semenya, etc.) have become more willing to take their cases to the European Court of Justice or to the European Court of Human Rights (of the CoE) and not only to the CAS. Indeed, the CAS is only an arbitration tribunal, not a court of law, plus it does not examine criminal cases (such as sport corruption).

### Olympic volunteers, fans and spectators

In addition to the Olympians, their parents and their entourage, two other categories of individuals are indispensable to running the Olympic Games: 1) volunteers (several tens of thousands for each edition of the Games) and other staff paid by the OCOG (workforce) and 2) spectators, who buy tickets to watch Olympic competitions. These two categories form the core of Olympic fans, alongside those who buy Olympic souvenirs (including collectors of memorabilia), watch television coverage of the Games or carry out research into this multi-disciplinary field (Olympic scholars) and thereby somehow contribute to the Games. Some of these fans also do sports as a leisure activity, that is, they do sport at a grassroots level.

### Other recognised sports related bodies

Among the many recognised Olympic stakeholders, one should mention the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), founded in 1989 to bring together national and international organisations for disabled sport. Since 1988, the Paralympic Games have been held a few days after the closure of the Summer and Winter Games, under agreements with the IOC that were strengthened over the years. For instance, the OCOGs are now in charge of organising the Paralympics as well as the Olympics: both Games have the same emblem (since 2024) and

been a member of the IOC since 1999. The IOC also recognises more than 50 organisations linked to Olympism that specialise in various domains (education, sports sciences, facilities, other multisport games, etc.). These organisations are also Olympic stakeholders. They include the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee, the International Olympic Academy, the International Federation of Sports Medicine, the International Fair Play Committee, Pentathlon International, Special Olympics, etc.

Thus, Olympic stakeholders are both numerous and varied. The next stage is to organise these stakeholders into models or maps that can be used to study Olympic governance.

### Four models of Olympic stakeholders

The IOC started to take a more formal approach to the issue of its stakeholders under the presidency of Jacques Rogge (2001–2013). Elected in 2001 to succeed Juan Antonio Samaranch, Rogge's vision of the IOC was more managerial than political. At this time, a series of models or maps of IOC stakeholders were drawn up on the basis of internal and external audits commissioned by the president. These models presented in chronological order in the following. Stakeholders' maps are a traditional tool of stakeholders theory (for instance, Fletcher et al. 2003).

The first model, drawn up in 2002 at the beginnings of the Rogge presidency, shows in a traditional way a concentric, planetary vision of Olympic stakeholders, with the IOC, consisting of its members, its president, its Executive Board and its Administration (staff), at the centre like the sun (Figure 10.1). This model implies

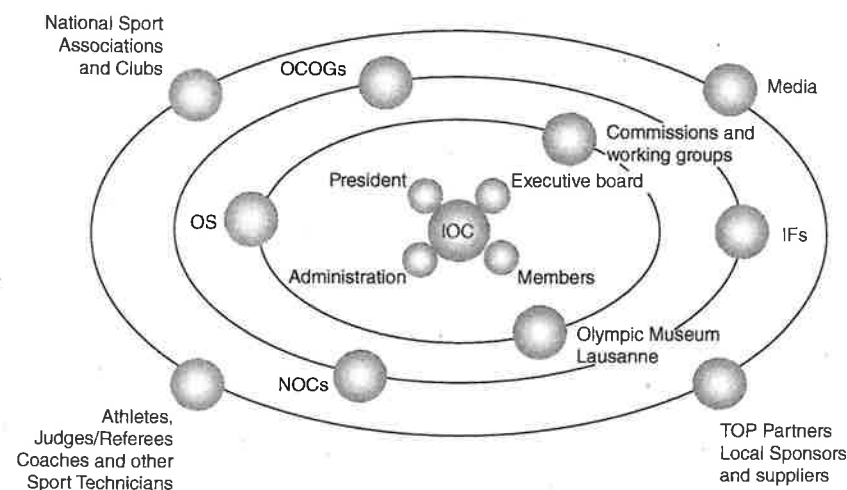


Figure 10.1 IOC Stakeholders Model 1

Adapted from the IOC website, consulted on 1 September 2002, and from Bahigian and

that the further a stakeholder is from the centre, the weaker its direct links with the IOC. This model suggests – in a similar vein to Clarkson (1995) – that the parties in the centre of the model and in circle/ring 1 are part of the focal organisation (internal stakeholders), those in circle/ring 2 are primary stakeholders and those in circle/ring 3 are secondary stakeholders. It is interesting to see that Olympic athletes are placed alongside clubs, referees, coaches and other sports technicians (i.e. entourage) and on the same level as the media and sponsors (circle/ring 3), whereas in IOC discourse, they are at the heart of the IOC's preoccupations. It is probably for this reason that this model was removed from the IOC website in 2004.

The second model dates from 2005 (Figure 10.2) and is the result of an internal audit of the IOC Administration entitled Building On Olympic Strengths (BOOST) (IOC 2005). Although it is part of the IOC's Administration Guide, it has never been officially published in an IOC report or on an IOC website. Model 2 is similar to Model 1 in that it adopts a concentric 'sunburst' vision; however, in Model 2, the hierarchy between stakeholders is weak. Some stakeholders are underlined to show that they are more important than others. In this model, the IOC Administration is the focal body responsible for managing all stakeholders, including, in this model, the IOC president, Executive Board and members. Neither media, sponsors nor Olympic athletes are among the underlined stakeholders, probably because they do not fall under the IOC Administration's direct control, except in a small number of specific cases (doping, marketing and broadcasting rights, public relations, etc.). In addition, most of the relations between the Administration and its stakeholders are bilateral (double arrow), and therefore stronger than the unilateral relations between the IOC and other, apparently less important, stakeholders (single arrow). Model 2 also includes a larger number of stakeholders (18) than Model 1 (15), although national sports associations (or NGBs) and clubs are no longer included, and the Olympic Museum and Olympic Solidarity are placed within the IOC Administration (which is the case in terms of the operational management of the IOC). The three levels of Swiss authorities (city, canton and Confederation) make their appearance as stakeholders with a bilateral link with the IOC (headquartered in Switzerland), as well as the CAS and WADA. A major innovation of Model 2 is that it represents more stakeholders (with many sub-categories) to manage than Model 1, with some stakeholders (underlined: internal and primary) being considered more important than others (e.g. the OCOGs compared with Olympic athletes), i.e. directly influenced by the IOC and influencing it.

Model 3 was published in 2007 (Figure 10.3). It is much more hierarchical than the first two models and adopts Coubertin's pyramid-shaped vision,<sup>2</sup> which it extends to all the people in the world (especially young people) who do sport and/or who watch the Olympic Games (spectators and television viewers). The IOC is at the apex of this inverted pyramid, just below NOCs-IFs-OCOGs (undifferentiated), Olympic sponsors, broadcasters and accredited media. At first glance, Olympic athletes (the world best athletes) appear to have been given greater

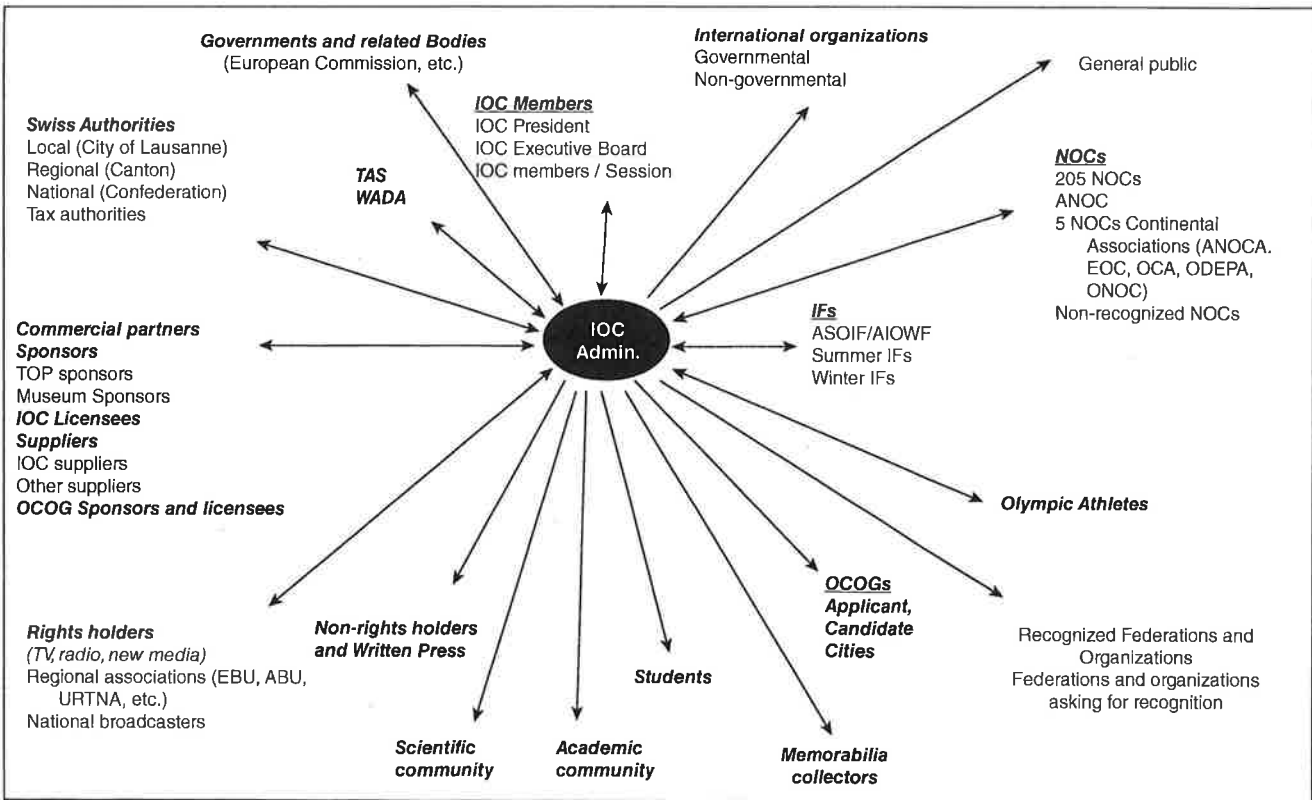


Figure 10.2 IOC Stakeholder Model 2  
Adapted from IOC administration Guide 2005



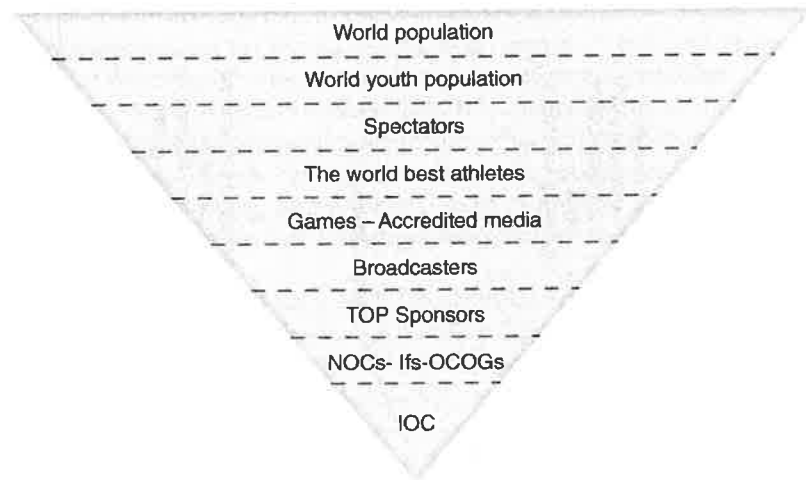


Figure 10.3 IOC Stakeholder Model 3

Adapted from IOC 2007, p. 11

importance than in the previous models because they are in the middle of the pyramid, although they still come after sponsors, broadcasters and the media. However, this is not the case because the stakeholders that come above 'the world's best athletes' in the pyramid were not included in the two models described earlier (except in the very vague category General Public). Model 3's very wide vision of stakeholders (which embraces the world population and, to use an expression introduced by Coubertin, the 'youth of the world') shows how the IOC's strategic thinking has evolved. In fact, since the beginning of the 21st century, the IOC has started to believe that it must, to a certain extent, manage these masses of people as a reservoir of potential Olympic fans (athletes, Olympians, volunteers, spectators and youth). However, this model has not been used again since its first publication in an IOC interim annual report (IOC 2007, p. 11).

In 2009, the IOC published a map of Olympic Games' stakeholders (IOC 2009, p. 7) rather than IOC's stakeholders as the three previous models. The map (Figure 10.4) is centred round the Games – The main IOC's 'product' symbolised here by the Olympic rings – and their five facets (sport, ceremonies, cultural programme, torch relay and city events) and important Games' dimensions (vision, objectives, organisation lifecycle, organisers, IOC and clients, services, facilities and operations). It encompasses some of the stakeholders included in the other models, but this time they are organised in an outer circular crown with athletes, NOCs, IFs and host communities at the summit of the crown, which also mentions marketing partners (sponsors), spectators, general public, workforce, broadcasters and press. The IOC is on the left on both the second and third crowns.

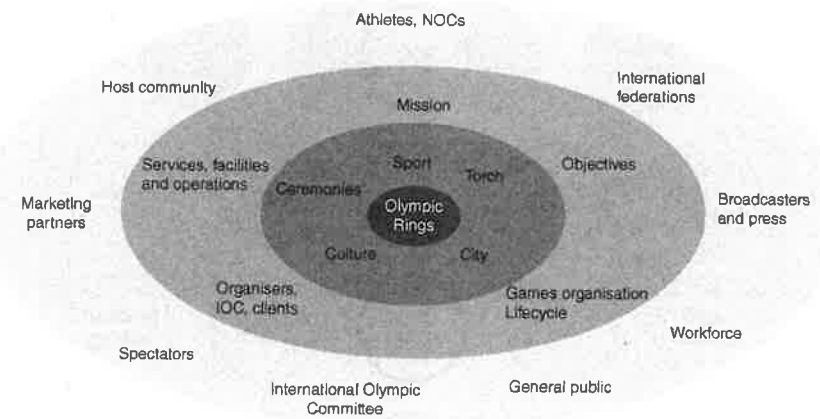


Figure 10.4 Olympic Games stakeholders

Adapted from IOC 2009, p. 7

Although they are highly revealing, the models or maps presented earlier do not give a complete overview of all Olympic stakeholders and their multiple interactions. This is what is attempted in the following section with the Olympic System model(s).

### The Olympic system

Over the years, the author drew up a series of models based on a systemic vision of the Olympic movement and that is independent from the IOC's models (see Figures 10.5, 10.6 and 10.7). In addition to the main (groups of) five Olympic stakeholders, shown as black rings of the same size (recalling the Olympic rings, although they are arranged differently), it highlights the multiple interactions between these stakeholders, who interact in ways that gradually evolved with the socio-historical evolution of the IOC and its system of organisations, and who are represented by links between the rings.

At the heart of this system lie the OCOGs – the organisers of the Games, which remain the *raison d'être* of this 'classic Olympic System' (Chappelet 1991, p. 67). A similar model is proposed by Lambelet Coleman (2020). There is no direct relationship between OCOGs and NGBs, which must be members of both their country's NOC and their sport's IF in order for their Olympians (OLYs) to be – nowadays – able to take part in the Olympics. It must be underlined that NOCs and IFs are not members of the IOC which is an association of natural persons (members), not organisations. NOCs and IFs can be recognised by the IOC. The

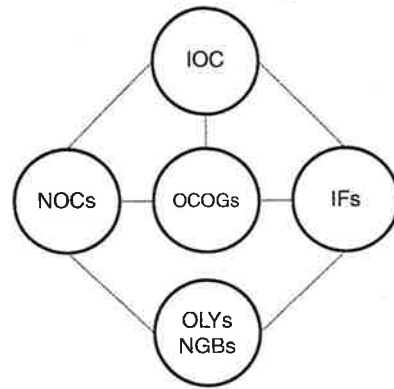


Figure 10.5 The 'classic Olympic System'  
Source: Chappelet 1991, p. 67

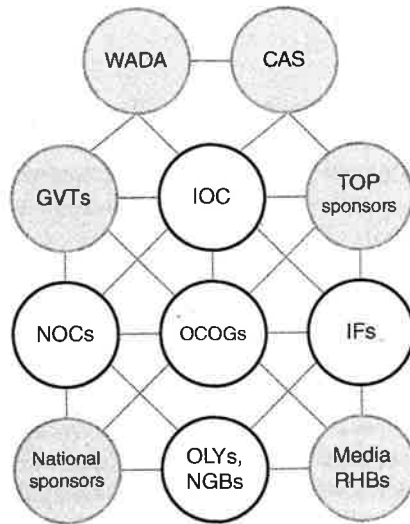


Figure 10.6 The 'regulated Olympic System'  
Source: Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott 2008, p. 18.

relationship between the IOC and an OCOG is contractual (through the so-called 'host city contract'). These groups are non-homogeneous as explained earlier.

In addition to the classic, primary stakeholders that are the OCOGs, NOCs, IFs and Olympic athletes (OLYs) with their NGBs, the following model proposed by Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008, p. 18) highlights stakeholders (represented

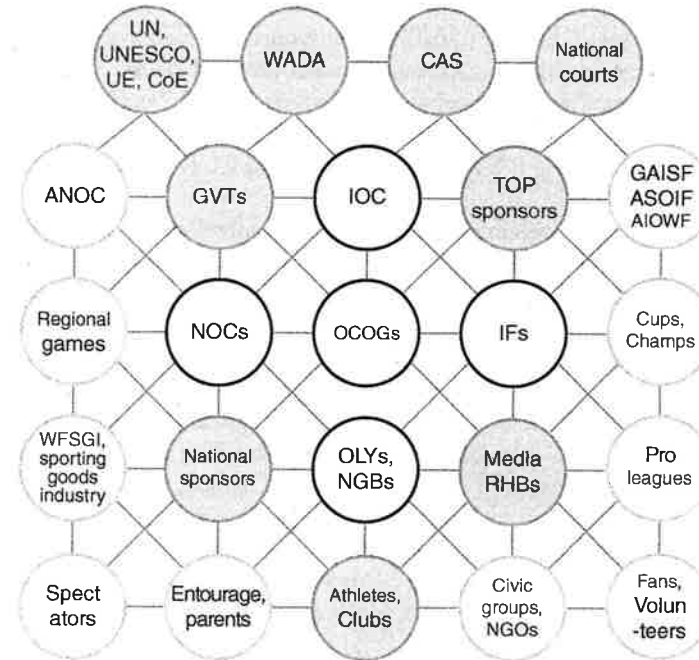


Figure 10.7 The Total Olympic System

with grey rings/discs) that have now become extremely important at the end of the 20th century, such as governments (GVTs), media (including rights-holding broadcasters or RHBs), national and international (TOP) sponsors, the CAS and the WADA (see Figure 10.6). Some of these stakeholders are barely mentioned in the Olympic Charter. For example, broadcasters are only mentioned once in this fundamental document and sponsors are not mentioned at all (only sponsorships), even though these two major groups of stakeholders provide the IOC with nearly all its revenue. The CAS and WADA, which contribute to regulating the Olympic System, crown the model. All of these 11 stakeholders can be considered primary stakeholders as they are directly involved in value creation for the focal organisation, i.e. the IOC (Freeman 1984).

The 'Total Olympic System' shown in Figure 10.7 is the result of adding to the 'regulated Olympic System' all the others stakeholders identified in the first section. These additional stakeholders are shown by light grey rings, organised around the heart of the classic and regulated Olympic System, shown by the previously described six grey and five black rings. The newly important stakeholders mentioned in the first section (athletes and clubs; civic groups and NGOs; national courts) are shown with grey rings/discs as they complement the regulated

Olympic system of Figure 10.6. Thibault, Kihl and Babiak (2010) clearly see the athletes as fulfilling citizen-like functions who deserve to be given more voice in the system (see also Chappelet 2020). Civic groups and national courts are also more and more involved in the Olympic System (Boykoff 2014). These last three stakeholders are not financed – even partially – by the IOC unlike the CAS and WADA. The other four primary stakeholders surrounding the classic Olympic System are financing the IOC (RHBs, national and TOP sponsors and, to some extent, the host GVTs).

The Total Olympic System model includes the umbrella associations of the IFs (GAISF, ASOIF, AIOWF, etc.) and of the NOCs (ANOC), as well as the organisers of multi-sport Games or major international competitions (world and continental championships and cups), pro leagues and sport equipment suppliers (who are often members of the WFSGI). The sporting population is represented at the bottom of the model by several rings: Athletes and Clubs, Parents, Entourage, Fans and volunteers, Spectators. They are also recognised as stakeholders. Apart from athletes, they are secondary stakeholders according to Freeman (1984) as they are not directly involved in the creation of Olympic value but nonetheless have a legitimate interest in the governance of the Olympic System. They are represented as light grey rings around the 11 primary Olympic stakeholders. In the 21st century, the large number of Olympic stakeholders has considerably complicated the governance of the Olympic system, which should be more and more collaborative (Shilbury, O'Boyle and Ferkins 2016) and less hierarchical (led by the IOC).

Figure 10.7 highlights the nine stakeholders (grey rings/discs) which surround the classic Olympic System (five black rings) and today play an important role in the governance of the current Olympic System while being independent from the IOC. This Olympic System has considerably evolved over the past century since the foundation of the IOC in 1894. Table 10.1 shows the chronological order of appearance of the 14 (5 + 6 + 3) most important stakeholders in the Total Olympic System.

## Conclusion

In summary, the IOC is the main Olympic stakeholder. However, the IOC would be incapable of regularly celebrating the Olympic Games without the OCOGs, which operationally stage each edition; the NOCs, each of which sends a team made up of Olympians from the NGBs and the IFs, which oversee and run the Olympic competitions in their own sport. Governments, most notably the local and national governments of host countries, have become important stakeholders from the 1950s. Since the 1970s and 1980s, the Olympic System has obtained almost all of its finance from Olympic broadcasters and sponsors. Most professional athletes have been able to take part in the Games since the 1990s even if they belonged to professional leagues. Olympic athletes, civic groups and national courts are nowadays playing more important roles than before. All these

Table 10.1 Approximate order of appearance of the 14 stakeholders of the current Olympic System

From	Stakeholders	Comments
1894	IOC	Founded on 23 June 1894 in Paris.
1896	OCOG	With the first modern Olympics in Athens.
1900	NOCs	Coubertin encouraged the creation of NOCs in order to organise national teams of athletes (individuals were accepted in the Olympics until 1912). ANOC was founded only in 1979.
1900	IFs, NGBs	Only three IFs were founded before the IOC, NGBs progressively joined IFs. GAISF was founded only in 1967.
1950s	GVTs	As the Games grew in size, governments' involvement in the staging of the Olympics became necessary. Berlin 1936 was a precursor.
1960s	Media and RHBs	RHBs started to buy the rights to broadcast the Olympics on TV in 1960 (summer) and 1956 (winter). Radio broadcasts started in 1924. Olympic Internet in 1996.
1970s	National/Domestic Sponsors	Sponsorships became important for the OCOGs from Munich 1972 and Montreal 1976.
1984	CAS	Founded by the IOC, had more than 650 cases submitted in 2020.
1985	TOP sponsors	TOP programme created after the Los Angeles 1984 Olympics.
1999	WADA	Founded by the IOC; funded by the governments and the IOC on an equal basis.
2000	Civic groups and NGOs	Greenpeace involvement in Sydney 2000, Amnesty International and Reporters without borders in Beijing 2008, Human Rights Watch in Beijing 2022, etc., civic groups were active from the turn of the century.
2010	Athletes	Protests related to Rule 50 of the Olympic Charter from London 2012, to WADA's handling of the Russian Olympic scandal (2015), etc.
2015	National courts	Strong involvement after the FIFA, IAAF, IBU and Rio 2016 scandals.

stakeholders must now be taken into account in order to effectively govern the Olympic System. Olympians (OLYs) as well as non-Olympic athletes remain the main justification for the Olympic System, but they are underrepresented by NOCs, IFs and the IOC. The system is regulated by two main external bodies, CAS and WADA. These primary stakeholders in the Olympic System are parts of networks that are highly interconnected in terms of the System's governance, management and marketing.

Attempts to identify Olympic stakeholders – despite their apparent simplicity – raise the question of who are truly the most influential actors in the major social, economic and political phenomenon that is the Olympic movement. Taking a very wide view of what constitutes a stakeholder allowed us to identify 24 types of (groups of) stakeholders, not including sub-types (Figure 10.7). This overall vision provides a framework for examining the functioning of the current Olympic System and carrying out a detailed analysis of Olympic strategy, whose ultimate goal is to reach all sorts of targets around the periphery of the Total Olympic System, including the whole of humanity, as is set out explicitly in Figure 10.2 or, more officially, in the Olympic Charter: ‘The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity’ (IOC 2020a, p. 10, fundamental principle 2).

The IOC is at the centre of this system and now enjoys large revenues (mainly derived from broadcasting and marketing rights of the Olympics). It has great influence over NOCs and OCOGs, who cannot have sponsors in the product categories reserved for international TOP sponsors contracted by the IOC. Most IFs are also heavily dependent on the share of commercial rights they receive from the IOC after each Olympics (if their sport is featured at the Olympics), except a few which have lucrative world championships such as the FIFA World Cup. These relations of influence, recognition and dependence (but not membership) are fundamental to the governance of the system.

As shown in this chapter, the stakeholders in the Olympic System are parts of strongly interconnected networks. Hence, each stakeholder’s decisions have an impact on the actions of the other stakeholders. For instance, in marketing matters, TOP sponsors buy Olympic marketing rights from the IOC, which passes on a proportion of these rights to the OCOGs to enable them to stage a high-quality event that offers a unique Olympic experience to various ‘clients’, including athletes, sponsors, spectators and TV viewers. They also provide services and products for organising the event. The Olympic brand (based on the interlaced rings) greatly facilitates negotiations with television companies and attracts a large audience that helps enhance the ‘Games experience’. Because the NOCs’ marketing programmes benefit from the attractiveness of the Summer and Winter Games, the Olympic teams they organise are able to attract national sponsors. NGBs and athletes, whether or not they are organised into professional leagues, also have sponsors and benefit from their participation in the Games. Thus, Olympic marketing is a form of marketing that should take into account the interests and relations of all the different Olympic stakeholders. Marketing based on the network-oriented view of the Total Olympic System falls within the framework of stakeholder marketing (Bhattacharya 2008).

The IOC began referring to the ‘Olympic Movement’ in the 1950s and never used the expression ‘Olympic System’. According to Pierre de Coubertin, ‘Olympism is in no way a system, it is a state of mind’ (Coubertin 1918). The main difference between a movement and a system is that a movement focuses on people (in

this case, Olympians, athletes, fans, spectators TV viewers, etc.), whereas a system revolves round organisations. Nevertheless, the day-to-day managerial reality whether we like it or not lies in the collaborative governance of a complex system (of organisations).

## Notes

- 1 Under American law, the Olympic rings are the property of the United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee (USOPC). Consequently, the IOC cannot sell broadcasting or marketing rights to the Games in the United States without the consent (remunerated) of the USOPC. See Wenn and Barney, 2020.
- 2 According to the renovator of the modern Games, who also wanted to promote what today we would call ‘grassroots sport’: ‘For 100 people to take an interest in physical fitness, 50 must do sports; for 50 people to do sports, 20 must specialise in a discipline; for 20 people to specialise in a discipline, 5 must show exceptional prowess’ (Chappelet 1991, p. 34).

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## Media, sport and stakeholding

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### Introduction

This chapter focuses on media, or the primary means of mass communication, such as broadcasting, publishing and the Internet, in the sport industry. Media plays a critical role in the sport industry through the communication and distribution of information and sport content, such as the broadcasting of sport games. Effectively, media is responsible for the communication and transfer of information, skills, knowledge and attitudes between sport stakeholders. In turn, media has helped design and shape the sport industry. For instance, broadcast media holds an important role in the sport industry, in a large degree shaping the structure and organisation of professional sport leagues in the United States. Since broadcasters control the distribution of sport content, they are able to prioritise sports, schedule sports and control the format of sports, in turn shaping and structuring the sport entertainment industry.

However, the introduction of new media, such as social media and over-the-top (OTT) streaming services, empowers sport stakeholders, disrupting the prior power structure and relationships of stakeholders. For example, social media provides a voice to all stakeholders, such as athletes being able to create and manage their own brands rather than relying on formal press conferences and the narratives determined by big media companies. Stakeholders such as athletes who were once reliant on media companies, for example, Michael Jordan calling a press conference to announce his retirement from the NBA in 1993, now have media tools at their disposal to write their own narrative; Kobe Bryant sent out a tweet from his official Twitter account to announce his retirement in 2015. This chapter will discuss the role of media, both as a stakeholder and as resources that stakeholders can leverage, with a particular emphasis on how it has shifted our understanding of stakeholding in the sport industry.

As consistent with the definition in Chapter 1, stakeholders in this chapter are defined as groups or individuals who have an interest or stake in the processes and outcomes of a firm. However, in this chapter, we will not be distinguishing between primary and secondary stakeholders, rather focusing on how media relates to our existing knowledge of stakeholders and stakeholder theory. This will include the