

GOVERNANCE MODELS ACROSS FOOTBALL LEAGUES AND CLUBS

Camille Boillat & Kevin Tallec Marston



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GOVERNANCE MODELS ACROSS LEAGUES AND CLUBS



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Le Centre International d'Etude du Sport (CIES), institution scientifique créée en 1995 d'un partenariat entre la Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), l'Université de Neuchâtel, la Ville et le Canton de Neuchâtel, a pour mission de développer, dans une perspective de type pluridisciplinaire (juridique, so-cologique, géographique, économique et historique), des activités de recherche, de formation et de consulting au service de la communauté sportive. Le CIES a pour vocation de servir de passerelle entre les mondes de la recherche, de l'enseignement et la communauté sportive.

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Any errors in the text are the authors' alone.

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Acronyms

AFA	Asociación del Fútbol Argentino
AFC	Asian Football Confederation
AIFF	All India Football Federation
CAF	Confédération Africaine de Football
CAS	Court of Arbitration for Sport
CBA	Collective Bargaining Agreement
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CIES	Centre International d'Etude du Sport
CONCACAF	Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association Football
CONMEBOL	Confederación Sudamericana de Fútbol
DFL	Deutsche Fußball Liga
ECA	European Club Association
EPFL	European Professional Football Leagues
ExCo	Executive committee
FFA	Football Federation Australia
FIF	Fédération Ivoirienne de Football
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
FKF	Football Kenya Federation
FRMF	Fédération Royale Marocaine de Football

GA	General assembly
GmbH	Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung (legal form)
JFA	Japan Football Association
JFF	Jamaica Football Federation
KGaA	Kommanditgesellschaft auf Aktien (legal form)
KPL	Kenyan Premier League
LNFP	Liga Nacional de Fútbol Profesional (Spain)
MLS	Major League Soccer (USA/Canada)
NA	National association
NASL	North American Soccer League
N/A	Not applicable
NFD	National First Division (South Africa)
NFL	National Football League (American football)
NPL	National Premier League (Jamaica)
N/R	No response (received from league/club)
NSL	National Soccer League (South Africa or Papua New Guinea)
OFC	Oceania Football Confederation
PFAJ	Professional Football Association of Jamaica
PNGFA	Papua New Guinea Football Association
PSL	Premier Soccer League (South Africa)
PZPN	Polski Związek Piłki Nożnej (Polish national association)
SAFF	Saudi Arabia Football Federation
SPL	Saudi Professional League

SUM	Soccer United Marketing
TPO	Third-party ownership
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UNAFUT	Unión de Clubes de Fútbol de la Primera División (Costa Rica)

Definitions

Ex officio member: a person who is a member of a body (general assembly, executive committee, etc.) by virtue of holding a position in another body. For example, it is common that top tier league presidents are *ex officio* members of the national association executive committee.

League: an organisation running one or several championships/divisions. For example, the Liga Nacional de Fútbol Profesional is the organisation running the two top tier championships – Primera División and Segunda División – in Spain.

Preface

As part of its mission as the global governing body of football, FIFA has commissioned CIES to conduct global comparative research on the relationships between key stakeholders in professional football around the world. The impetus for this project came from a desire to better understand the full range of important institutional players – national associations, leagues and clubs – knowledge which will translate into better engagement and open dialogue through FIFA's newly created Professional Football Department.

There are extensive benchmarking studies on European clubs and players, but many are restricted to financial and demographic analysis and focused on Europe. As a result, there is no established picture in global terms of more general club or league related issues or governance questions. In order to fill this gap, FIFA commissioned a first CIES study published in 2014 that focused on the relationships between national associations and their leagues. With this second project covering governance models across leagues and clubs, FIFA aims to develop a better understanding of some of the key institutional relationships in football governance.

FIFA already works closely with the six football confederations on the implementation of projects like Club Licensing. Now, supported by global research through CIES, FIFA seeks to work more closely with all actors on the professional football stage and implement a blueprint for the future of football at all levels.

I. Introduction

The topic of league and club governance is an important and currently debated subject in public and academic spheres and, of course, in the football world. Each sector has its own approach to the subject. Academia has not necessarily provided a uniform definition and the topic continues to generate extensive discussion. To wit, Emmanuel Bayle and Pascal Chantelat's edited collection of *La gouvernance des organisations sportives* remarked that there was no agreed definition of governance (2007: 11) and since 2009 alone well over 150 papers, chapters and books have been published in relation to the topic.¹ The sport sector follows a largely empirical, bottom-up approach, defining governance by its practice rather than conceptually. For example, the recent European Club Association (ECA) *Club Management Guide* is based on interviews with 100 club officials. But even practice lacks consensus; the ECA *Guide* (2015: 14) and UEFA's (Union of European Football Associations) more theoretical *Handbook for Football Association Management* (2014: 226) offer complementary but not identical definitions of the term 'governance'.

The exercise of governance in football stems from a global regulatory structure for national associations which covers a number of areas. Governance spans strategy, management, policy, regulation and even development and applies to all relevant stakeholders (e.g. national associations, leagues, clubs as well as those outside the football pyramid such as supporters and governmental authorities). Within the realm of governance lies the specific policy and regulatory approach adopted by the governing body. Here, the focus is on FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association) as the global governing body. As part of its global governance, FIFA approved a set of club licensing regulations in 2007 with a view to have licensing programmes in place on all continents in the following years.

Licensing is itself a developmental instrument for governance and uses specific tools (licensing criteria) to grow different areas of the game. However, given the diversity at club and league level globally (as we will see throughout this report), these regulations to date have served more as guidelines than

1 Here, we refer only to the CIES (Centre International d'Etude du Sport) library which alone contains over 150 contributions which include 'governance' as a keyword.

strict policy. As a result, there is, for example, no clearly defined international regulatory framework for football leagues or clubs.

This environment, however, appears to be shifting with key changes in the governance landscape. The relationships between governing bodies, leagues and clubs continue to evolve as illustrated by the Memorandum of Understanding between FIFA and the ECA in early 2015, and more recently followed by the announcement of the FIFA Executive Committee's support of the creation of a new 'Football Stakeholders Committee' which will be submitted to the Congress for approval in 2016.² It remains to be seen how licensing as a governance and developmental tool will evolve in this context. In this connection, this report presents data that is directly related to certain areas of licensing and illustrates the wide variety of practices globally.

Similar to the initial study on national associations and leagues (Boillat & Poli 2014), the impetus for this research project came from FIFA and a desire to better describe and understand the existing league-club relationship. While there are extensive benchmarking studies on European clubs and players, many are restricted to financial and demographic analysis and there is no established picture in global terms on more general club or league related issues.³ Therefore, this study was commissioned with a view to investigate the league-club relationship. As such, the two CIES projects help lay a basis for developing a more complete understanding of some of the key institutional relationships in football governance.

The study is principally exploratory and descriptive as the desired outcome was a clear picture of the variety of models that exist at both league and club level. Moreover, given the link between governance and club licensing, many of the areas explored here have been chosen for their direct connection with one of the five club licensing domains (sporting, personnel/administra-

2 <http://www.ecaeurope.com/news/eca-announces-landmark-agreements-with-fifa-and-uefa> (last consultation: 24 April 2015) and <http://www.fifa.com/about-fifa/news/y=2015/m=12/news=fifa-executive-committee-unanimously-approves-extensive-reforms-2741812.html> (last consultation: 14 December 2015).

3 Since its initial report on club licensing, *UEFA Club Licensing: Here to stay 2004-2008* (2008), UEFA has published annual benchmarking reports that cover the situation in European clubs. The CIES Observatory publishes regular European and global demographic benchmarking reports on football players. At national level there are a number of European countries that publish their own annual league-club reports. In addition to the established reports such as Deloitte's *Annual Review of Football Finance*, the international audit and tax firm, KPMG, has recently launched a new portal analysing financial, operational and sporting performance (<https://footballbenchmark.com>).

tive, infrastructure, legal and financial). As such, we have deliberately focused on revealing and illustrating the nature of the league-club relationship and not engaged into detailed explanatory analysis which could be the focus of later research.

1. Research aims, scope and limitations

The purpose, then, of this research project is to explore, in a broader sense than purely financial reporting, the different relationships between leagues and clubs. At the outset, it was believed that there are two basic approaches to the governance of this relationship. The first is a vertical relationship with leagues controlling the clubs from the top-down, often as part of the national footballing hierarchy with the national association at its head. A second model is a more horizontal relationship with leagues sharing a significant portion of the decision-making with clubs, something thought to be more associated with independent leagues. This project critically examines a number of aspects of this governance relationship and returns to consider these hypotheses in the concluding chapter.

The scope of the research covers league organisations, not the competition as such. The study also takes into account clubs but only the clubs from the top tier championships. The scope of the project is decidedly global, encompassing all six confederations. The sample of countries and clubs is detailed in the following section on methodology.

There are several limitations to the study. Argentina completely reformed their top tier championship moving from twenty teams in 2013/14 to thirty teams as of 2015. This was in parallel to changes to the second division which went from two regional groups to one national competition of twenty-two teams. Thus, AFA (Asociación del Fútbol Argentino) organised a transitional competition in the second half of 2014. As the study covers the last completed championship in 2014, we took the competition that finished in December 2014 even though it was transitional in nature. In India, the AIFF (All India Football Federation) also sanctions the Indian Super League which finished its first season in December 2014 but for purposes of the study we chose to focus on the established I-League.

Since the focus of the study was the 2013/14 (or 2014 full calendar year) season, some important changes have not been taken into account. In June

of 2015 the Moroccan federation (FRMF) created the Ligue Nationale du Football Professionnel for the top two divisions and so, in theory, the FRMF will have a lesser role in the management of the league in the future. In Saudi Arabia, the SPL (Saudi Professional League) is also undergoing a transitional period with draft statutes and will incorporate as an independent league body in the near future. This ever-changing environment illustrates the necessity for regular global monitoring of league and club governance structures and practices.

2. Research methodology

The research process was divided in several parts and spanned approximately eight months. After multiple discussions with FIFA to define the sample and research scope (October/November 2014), we entered an exploratory phase and surveyed all league and club websites in the sample for publicly available documentation and information (December). Needless to say, many organisations had little information or no website altogether. This was followed by sending club and league documentation requests through FIFA Development Officers and other contacts (January 2015). We subsequently developed specific league and club questionnaires in order to obtain as complete a picture as possible (February). The questionnaires (including French and Spanish versions) were sent and the collection of this additional data took several months including follow-up correspondence and interviews (March-May) with a preliminary findings report written half-way through.

It goes without saying that for an exploratory project of this scope, it was impossible to survey all clubs in all of FIFA's affiliated national associations. Therefore, to gain as representative a picture as possible, it was decided to sample leagues and clubs in a selection of countries. In the interests of geographic representation all six confederations were included and as close to as proportional an amount of countries was chosen based on the total number of national associations per confederation. In total, eighteen countries were selected from the different geographical zones of each confederation. In so far as possible, each of the big confederations includes at least one country where the league has already been identified as a separate entity – as opposed to the association model (Boillat & Poli 2014: 8-14) – except for AFC (Asian

Football Confederation – for which we kept four of the six initially proposed countries). Lastly, countries were chosen with a view of guaranteeing a minimum level of access to information.

Seven countries are new in comparison with the previous governance research project (Boillat & Poli 2014). The full list of league organisers, hereafter simply ‘league’, is below. The last column indicates the other divisions or championships that are managed by the league but are outside the scope of the study.

Table n°1: Names of leagues/competitions

Country	League organiser	Competition covered in this study (first division)	Competition(s) managed by the league (outside research scope)
England	The Premier League	The Premier League	-
Spain	Liga Nacional de Fútbol Profesional	Primera División	Segunda División
Germany	Ligaverband	Bundesliga	2. Bundesliga
Poland	Ekstraklasa	Ekstraklasa	-
Morocco	Fédération Royale Marocaine de Football (NA)	Botola Pro	-
Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (entirely managed by the Fédération Ivoirienne de Football, NA)	Ligue 1	Ligue 2
South Africa	National Soccer League	Premier Soccer League	National First Division
Kenya	Kenyan Premier League	Kenyan Premier League	-
India	All India Football Federation (NA)	I-League	-
Japan	J. League	J. League Division 1	J. League Division 2 J3 League
Australia	Football Federation Australia (NA)	A-League	-
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Professional League (entirely managed by the Saudi Arabia Football Federation, NA)	Saudi Professional League	Saudi First Division
Mexico	Liga MX	Liga MX	-
USA/Canada	Major League Soccer	Major League Soccer	-
Jamaica	Professional Football Association of Jamaica	National Premier League	-
Costa Rica	Unión de Clubes de Fútbol de Primera División	UNAFUT Primera División	-
Argentina	Asociación del Fútbol Argentino (NA)	Primera División	-
Papua New Guinea	Papua New Guinea Football Association (NA)	National Soccer League	-

It is important to clarify several points regarding the leagues discussed here. Despite having an administrative autonomy – sometimes governing two divisions and even having a separate name – some leagues are entirely managed within the national association. For example, the FIF (Fédération Ivoirienne de Football) statutes stipulate that the Ivory Coast’s Ligue Professionnelle will

manage the two top divisions (Ligue 1 and Ligue 2) under the control of the FIF executive committee. It states as well that the league has an administrative autonomy, but no legal personality (FIF statutes art. 69). The situation is similar in Saudi Arabia, where the SPL has its own administrative bodies but does not have its own statutes and thus is legally a part of the SAFF (Saudi Arabia Football Federation). As such, both countries have leagues with de facto administrative autonomy but are not legally independent entities.

In order to have as wide a representation as possible and given the six-month project timeline, we maintained a larger country sample but limited the survey to one half of the clubs in each championship. Only clubs in the top division have been included (e.g. only Primera División clubs even though the LNFP – Liga Nacional de Fútbol Profesional, Spain – governs both first and second divisions). One could hypothesize that sporting performance is correlated with club structure, but the aim of this study is to survey all types of clubs. Therefore, in order to have a balanced view of governance models both for strong and poor sporting performers we chose a stratified sampling method. Therefore, half of the sample from each league includes teams from the top half of the league table with the other clubs coming from the lower half of the table. For example, for Jamaica (a twelve-team league), the stratified sample includes six clubs. Three clubs are randomly selected from the top six teams in the table and three teams from the bottom half of the table.

Since not every league's number of clubs is easily divided in two, we added the 'extra' team to the sample from the top-half of the table. For example, in Australia (a ten-team league), two clubs were randomly selected from the bottom five performers, while three clubs were selected from the top five. The final sampling challenge was linked to leagues with an odd number of teams. In these cases, we divided the league table in half with one more team in the top half than in the bottom half. Then, in selecting the sample itself, we took the extra team from the top half of the table. For example, for India (thirteen teams), we randomly selected four teams from the top (ranked 1-7) and three teams from the bottom (8-13). As a result, the sample selection minimizes the potential bias of sporting performance in the study of club governance.

In total, this amounts to eighteen countries and 141 clubs surveyed. By confederation, the country and club selection is as follows:

Table n°2: Number of leagues and clubs covered by the research

UEFA – 4 NAs (out of 54)	CAF – 4 NAs (out of 54)	AFC – 4 NAs (out of 47)
England* (10 out of 20 clubs) Spain (10 out of 20) Germany (9 out of 18) Poland* (8 out of 16) <i>Total clubs: 37</i>	Morocco (8 out of 16) Ivory Coast (7 out of 14) South Africa* (8 out of 16) Kenya* (8 out of 16) <i>Total clubs: 31</i>	India (7 out of 13) Japan (9 out of 18) Australia (5 out of 10) Saudi Arabia (7 out of 14) <i>Total clubs: 28</i>
CONCACAF – 4 NAs (out of 41)	CONMEBOL – 1 NA (out of 10)	OFC – 1 NA (out of 11)
Mexico (9 out of 18) USA/Canada (MLS)* (10 out of 19) Jamaica* (6 out of 12) Costa Rica (6 out of 12) <i>Total clubs: 31</i>	Argentina (10 out of 20) <i>Total clubs: 10</i>	Papua New Guinea (4 out of 7) <i>Total clubs: 4</i>

*Separate entity league

In order to triangulate and verify the validity of questionnaire responses, the project has relied on a broad review of existing documentation such as statutes, regulations, licensing manuals, collective bargaining agreements, media guides, club competition directories, organisational charts, standard contracts, annual reports and news articles. These were obtained principally from national associations, leagues, football clubs, confederations as well as other organisations. It was impossible to cross-check questionnaire data for all clubs with other sources due to the fact that only a minority of clubs provided such information publicly and many did not respond to our documentation requests.

In terms of responses received, fifteen leagues completed the questionnaire with one league declining to participate (MLS – Major League Soccer). We obtained documents and used other publicly available sources for all leagues except Jamaica and Morocco. As a result we have information, albeit at disparate levels, for all leagues in the sample.

In a number of cases on the club side, the league/national association/confederation centralised the distribution and collection of questionnaires and consequently we did not receive all responses directly from the clubs. 78 clubs officially replied and 76 returned a questionnaire. This represents a response rate of 55%. In terms of geographic distribution we received replies from 31 of 37 European clubs including two that declined to participate, twelve out of 31 clubs from the CONCACAF (Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association Football) region, seventeen out of 31 African clubs, fifteen of the 28 Asian clubs, one from the ten South American clubs (Argentina) and two out of the four from Oceania (Papua New Guinea).

In addition to specific club questionnaires, we also received generic replies from the league organiser covering all clubs in Saudi Arabia (five) and

Morocco (seven) bringing the total of club replies to 88. We were able to add detailed information for fourteen more clubs based on publicly available sources (e.g. documents, reports, and websites). As a result, the findings of this study are based on a total of 102 out of 141 clubs. This represents information for 72% of the club sample.

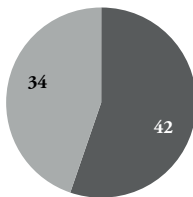
Table n°3: Total club information

Confederation	Number of clubs
UEFA	30
CAF	24
AFC	20
CONCACAF	22
CONMEBOL (Argentina)	4
OFC	2
<i>Total</i>	<i>102</i>

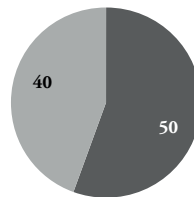
The responses are relatively well-balanced across all countries in terms of the split between top and bottom performing clubs. Out of the 76 questionnaires received, 42 responses came from clubs in the top half of the table while 34 were from clubs that finished in the bottom half. When considering the additional data gathered from publicly available sources (excluding the twelve clubs for which we received generic replies from the league), the picture is similar with 50 from the top performers and 40 from poor performers.

Figure n°1: Response rate and data collection

Proportion of questionnaires returned
(76 total)



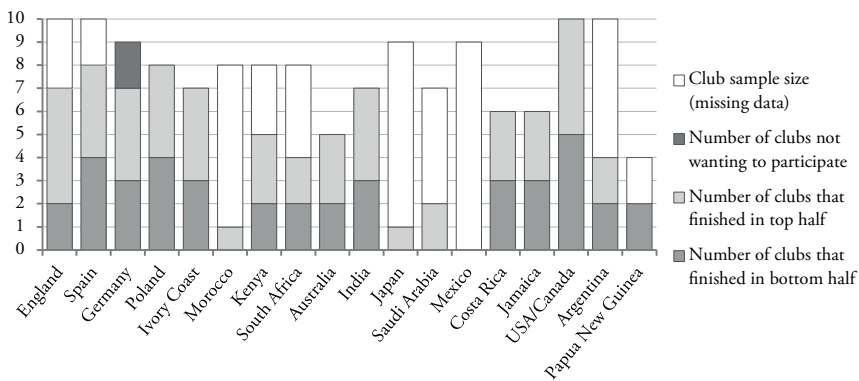
Proportion of clubs for which
individual data was collected (90 total)



- Number of clubs that finished in top half
- Number of clubs that finished in bottom half

For the 90 clubs for which individual data was collected, the balance between top and bottom performers was also relatively balanced within the country. The exceptions were Morocco, Japan, Saudi Arabia (only replies from top clubs) and Papua New Guinea (only bottom clubs). As a result, the findings in the study may slightly over-represent the situation at top performing clubs which is nonetheless consistent with the sampling method used. In addition, some countries will be absent (Mexico) or under-represented (Japan and Argentina) as very little club information was available.

Figure n°2: Proportion of replies by top/bottom clubs (by league)



In order to provide useful comparisons, the various analyses illustrate the general trends, the situation according to FIFA country ranking and by continent, as well as league structural model wherever this is most relevant. The general trends provide an overview of the global situation within the leagues and clubs surveyed. At the confederation level the data is analysed specifically for the four confederations where the sample includes more than one country (Africa, Asia, Europe, North and Central America and the Caribbean). Regarding the FIFA country ranking, we created three categories based on the FIFA Ranking published on 18 December 2014:⁴

- Ranked 1 to 20: Germany, Argentina, Spain, England, Costa Rica, and Mexico.

⁴ This date coincides with the first FIFA Ranking after all the championships surveyed by the research had finished. For the FIFA Ranking published on 18 December 2014, see appendices.

- Ranked 21 to 80: USA, Ivory Coast, Poland, South Africa, Japan, and Jamaica.
- Ranked 81 to 209: Morocco, Australia, Saudi Arabia, Kenya, India, and Papua New Guinea.

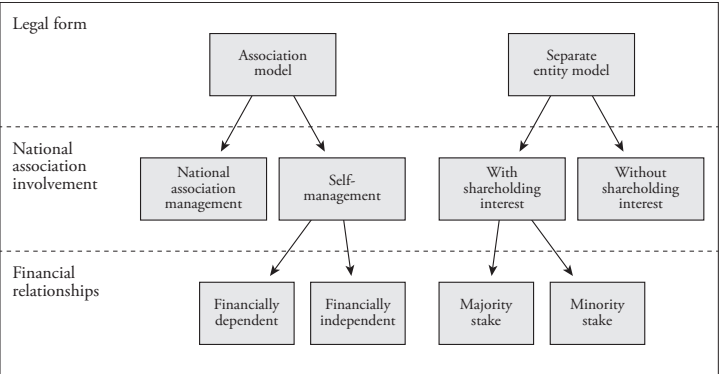
In addition to these comparative perspectives, we highlight a number of individual cases to illustrate the trends or exceptions.

Lastly, in all tables throughout this report, N/R indicates that we did not receive an answer from the league or club or found nothing in the relevant documentation, while N/A refers to a situation that was not applicable. The full list of clubs appears in the appendices.

3. Overall legal framework and models

While the research focuses on the relationships between leagues and clubs, it also draws on the initial study on the governance models across national associations and leagues (Boillat & Poli 2014). As a result, it is worth restating some of the concepts referred to here, such as the league ‘structural model’ that refers ‘to the legal form of the league, the level of association involvement from a management perspective and the nature of the financial relationships between the league and the association’ (*idem*: 8). These relationships were described in the first publication in the following diagram:

Figure n°3: League structural model



Based on the first publication, the models are described in one of two ways. In the case of the association model, the league has the legal form of an association. For the separate entity model the league has the legal form of a company. It is helpful to recall how these two models are structured and categorized:⁵

(A) Association model (the legal form of the league is an association) can be structured in one of the following forms:

(A1) Association model with national association management:

the league is entirely managed by the national football association. The league does not have its own statutes, it is not governed by a specific board or executive committee and usually does not have a specific administration. In this case, the league is not a distinct legal entity [...]. The management of the league is handled by a standing committee (competition committee, league committee, professional football committee, etc.) or an office within the national association structure (*idem*: 11).

(A2) Association model with self-management: 'the national association delegates the management of the league to an affiliated association. This association has its own governing bodies (board/executive committee), statutes and administration' (*idem*: 12).

(A2a) Association model with self-management, financially dependent:

the national association delegates the administration and the management of the league to an affiliated association, but still predominantly funds the league in order to help organise competitions or even its own self-managed administration (*ibid.*).

(A2b) Association model with self-management, financially independent: 'the league not only has its own statutes, regulations, administration, but is also able to generate substantial incomes which allows the organisation to stand on its own financially' (*ibid.*).

(B) Separate entity model (the legal form of the league as a company) can be structured in one of the following ways.

(B1) Separate entity with national association with shareholding interest: 'the company managing the league [is] partly owned by the national association' (*idem*: 14).

(B1a) Separate entity with national association with majority shareholding interest: 'the national association owns the majority of league shares' (*ibid.*).

5 For more precise information about these models, see Boillat & Poli (2014), especially pages 11-15.

(B1b) Separate entity with national association with minority shareholding interest: ‘the national association owns a minority of league shares’ (*ibid.*).

(B2) Separate entity without national association with shareholding interest: ‘the national association holds no shareholding interest of the company running the league’ (*idem*: 15).

Turning to the leagues surveyed in this research project, we have placed each league into one of the above categories as shown in the table below.

Table n°4: Classification of leagues surveyed in this report according to models described in Governance I

League structural model			Country	League (competition covered in the study)
Association model	National association management		Morocco Ivory Coast India Australia Saudi Arabia Argentina Papua New Guinea	FRMF (Botola Pro) Ligue professionnelle (Ligue 1) AIFP (I-League) FFA (A-League) SPL (SPL) AFA (Primera División) PNGFA (NSL)
	Self-management	Financially dependent	-	-
		Financially independent	Spain Germany Japan Mexico Costa Rica	LNFP (Primera División) Ligaverband (Bundesliga) J. League (J. League Division 1) Liga MX (Liga MX) UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)
Separate entity model	National association with shareholding interest	Majority stake	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)
		Minority stake	England Poland Kenya	The Premier League (The Premier League) Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa) KPL (KPL)
	National association without shareholding interest		South Africa USA/Canada	NSL (PSL) MLS (MLS)

Since the focus here is not on the competition, the names as they are listed in this report are those of the league organisational body managing the division. For sake of clarity the competition is listed in parentheses. In some cases the league and competition names are the same, while in other cases they are different or we even list the national association. For example, in Poland, the first division and the league have the same name because the league manages only one division. In Germany, the first division competition is called the Bundesliga. However, the league organisation that actually manages this division is called Ligaverband. We refer here to AFA as the league organisation in Argentina because there is no specific external entity (or internal department) that manages the Primera División. In the remainder of the study, the leagues will always be referred to by their ‘organisational’ name and not the ‘competition’ one.

4. Structure of the report

This report is divided into two main chapters. Chapter II explores the relationship between clubs and leagues. The aim is to describe the different areas of responsibility and where the dividing lines are between what falls under the remit of the league body and what remains in the hands of the clubs. Here, we begin with the question of ownership requirements placed on clubs by the competition organiser. The paper moves on to examine league management and the level of club representation within leagues in key roles or bodies. We also describe a handful of financially related items and general trends in players' status. Then, we explore whether there are league requirements relating to facilities as well as the management of promotion and relegation and the admission conditions for the several closed leagues in the research sample. The final section examines the area of disciplinary regulations.

The third chapter shifts the focus to the clubs and their internal governance. Here, we explore the general trends in terms of the legal form as well as the ownership structure encountered in the clubs surveyed. The next area is the political side of club management and includes the method of election/appointment of club officials (the president and executive committee members) and the role of the general assembly, all in terms of representation and voting power. Then, we move to a discussion of the administrative structure of the clubs (name and number of departments, number of employees). An exploratory look at the role of supporters in the club, their organisation, numbers and decision-making involvement follows. The chapter closes with an examination of a few areas of the club-community relationship (links with local authorities, presence of community programmes and reliance on a corps of volunteers).

The report ends with a conclusion drawing together the main findings. Since the aim of the report is largely descriptive there is no extensive discussion on the wider reasons for the similarities or differences observed. However, we do draw all the analyses together into an overview of the different ways the league-club relationship and internal club governance structures can be portrayed. Here, several models have been designed to illustrate the variety of practices and configurations across the globe. Lastly, there is a limited contextualisation of these issues in terms of academic theory and concepts.

II. Relationships between leagues and clubs

In this chapter, we examine the nature of the relationship between leagues and clubs in regards to a number of areas. The first section reviews some key points on the relationships between the national association, league and club. The chapter then moves into a detailed presentation of the leagues' club ownership rules and criteria and the question of representation of clubs in the league's bodies (president, executive committee and general assembly). A limited overview on some financial aspects follows including the question of a league participation fee, how broadcast/media rights are negotiated and whether there is financial oversight by the league. Players' status covers the league requirements on different types and duration of contract, salary limitations, the presence of foreign/home grown player limits and the transfer windows in each of the leagues surveyed. A shorter section ensues on league regulations about stadia ownership and management as well as the question of who is responsible for security. The second to last topic is the dual discussion of league promotion/relegation criteria along with the admission criteria for closed leagues. The final area covers league disciplinary procedures.

Drawing on the criteria and models outlined in the first CIES study about governance in football (Boillat & Poli 2014), the analysis here concerns primarily the rights and obligations of clubs vis-à-vis the league and vice versa. The focus here is on the regulatory and management framework and seeks to define where club responsibilities end and league ones begin.

1. Importance of the national association on league and club governance

As seen in the introductory chapter (I.3), the national association may or may not have a significant level of involvement in the governance of the league, clubs and their competitions. The nature of the relationship is defined by the structural model described earlier. There are different types of relationships,

from a regulatory perspective, between national association, league and club and we will return to this in the conclusion (chapter IV).

There are cases where the national association greatly influences the running of the league and its clubs. This is obviously the case when the league is entirely managed by the national association – the association model with national association management – for example in Ivory Coast, Morocco, Australia, India, Saudi Arabia, Argentina and Papua New Guinea. In these countries the league does not act as an intermediary between the national association and the clubs. The league here is generally a department inside the national association. There are no regulations that are independently issued by the league without the approval of the national association.

In other cases, leagues have more influence on the governance of clubs than the national association does. In these cases, the league is independent from the national association and has its own regulations. However, in many cases, the national association can still have its say about the governance of clubs since a national association representative often takes part in the league general assembly or executive committee or can even be the dominant voice. At the general assembly of the Jamaican NPL (National Premier League), for example, the voting is divided nearly equally among the three club and four JFF (Jamaica Football Federation) representatives. Furthermore, since national associations are supposed to be the highest organisation in a country's football governance pyramid, leagues must often comply with some of the national association regulations.

In some cases, the league manages a specific set of areas but other entire sectors are left to the national association. This can also be seen in the division of responsibilities between league and national association. It is often the case with disciplinary matters: for example, in Mexico, all Liga MX legal procedures are managed by the FMF (Federación Mexicana de Fútbol). In many other cases, the disciplinary procedure is managed by both organisations: the first instance procedure is managed by the league while the appeals procedure is managed by the national association.

In summary, the role of the national association cannot be neglected when considering the league-club relationship and this will be an important part of the concluding analysis.

2. The influence of the league on club governance and vice versa

This section illustrates the influence of league regulations on the clubs, as well as the influence of clubs on the governance of the league. Drawing inspiration from some areas of club licensing we chose seven major categories for a detailed analysis:

- Ownership of clubs
- Club representation in league bodies
- Finance
- Players' status and transfers
- Facilities
- Promotion/relegation criteria – closed league admission criteria
- Disciplinary regulations

For each category, the findings are presented in terms of global trends, by confederation, and by FIFA Ranking group. Finally, in order to illustrate the trends and exceptions, a number of individual cases are highlighted.

2.1. Ownership of clubs: criteria and limitations

This first sub-section deals with club ownership criteria and limitations as they are regulated by the leagues. In order to compare the different leagues, we chose five indicators:

- A. Legal form regulations: requirements by the league concerning a club's legal form or shareholding structure.
- B. Club owner regulations: league requirements concerning the acquisition of shares/interests in a club.
- C. Acquisition of shares/interests in other clubs: existence of league regulations restricting the acquisition of shares/interests by club owners in other clubs from the same league or from other leagues/sports.
- D. Suspension/exclusion of owner/shareholder: reasons that could force the league to suspend/exclude a club owner/shareholder from a club.
- E. Appointment of club officials: league regulations that govern the election/appointment of club officials.

A. Legal form regulations

Based on the findings we identified four kinds of answers:

- Companies only: every club in the league must have the legal form of a company. Sometimes, the answer was even more precise, like for example in Australia where clubs must be corporations with limited liability.
- Associations only: among the leagues surveyed, clubs are required to have the legal form of an association in Ivory Coast, Saudi Arabia and Argentina.
- Associations or companies: both in the Mexican and Costa Rican first divisions, clubs have the possibility to be either associations or companies. Both leagues also stated that the clubs must be sports associations or companies that do not deliver any political or religious messages. The German case is explained below.
- No regulation/restriction: in some countries no regulations on the legal form/shareholding structure of the clubs exist. This means that, in these countries, clubs can have the legal form they wish.

We can also note that, according to the answers we received, no league obliges clubs to have a specific shareholding structure. Below are several tables and charts summarizing the various league requirements.

Figure n°4: Legal form of clubs required by the league (overall)

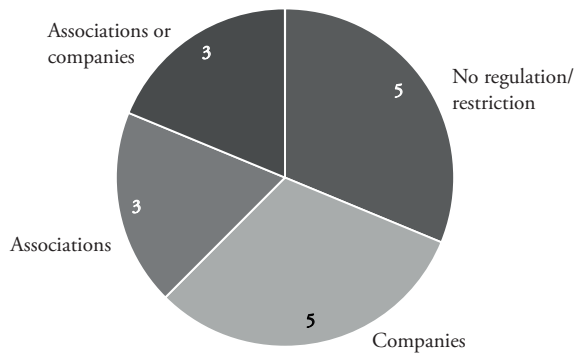
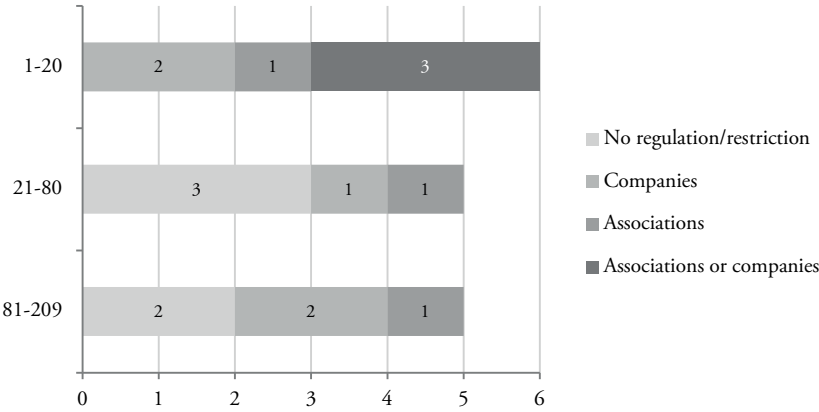


Table n°5: Legal form of clubs required by the league

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Companies only	Associations only	Associations or companies	No regulation/ restriction	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X				
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X				
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)			X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X				
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)					X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)		X			
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)				X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)				X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)				X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)				X	
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X				
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)		X			
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)			X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)					X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)				X	
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)			X		
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)		X			
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)	X				

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Figure n°5: Legal form of clubs required by the league (FIFA Ranking)



The two most common scenarios are either the requirement to be registered as a company or the absence of any specific regulations. On the one hand, this certainly illustrates the importance of a corporate structure for elite football. Yet, it also reflects the autonomy and flexibility that elite football maintains as to how to structure itself regardless of operating as a professional business. The first specific observation is that a majority of the leagues surveyed (eleven out of sixteen) restrict the legal form of their clubs in some way. As explained in the previous section, it is not always the league that issues the regulations concerning the clubs. For example, in Poland, the regulation stating that all Ekstraklasa clubs must be joint stock companies comes from a public law, the Public Act on Sport.⁶ In the SPL, all clubs have the legal form of an association. However, it is worth noting that all Saudi clubs are actually owned by the national government, specifically by the General Presidency of Youth and Welfare, which is a kind of sports ministry. So while the legal form is an association, Saudi clubs are actually state-owned.

For the sake of clarity, we should note that the Spanish LNFP regulations about the legal form of clubs include an exception. In principle, clubs must be public limited sports companies. However, clubs having positive net worth from the 1985/86 season until the entry into force of the law in 1990 had the right to keep their original form. This is why we still find some associations among top tier Spanish clubs.

In addition, it is also important to explain the German Ligaverband ownership/shareholding limitations and the famous '50 + 1' rule. In Germany, many clubs have separated their professional section from their amateur one and the professional section often has the legal form of a company while the mother club is an association. According to the Ligaverband statutes, membership in the league is given through the licensing system to registered clubs or corporations. Since the advent of the 1998 rule (article 8 of the 2014 Ligaverband statutes), clubs can be structured as companies insofar as they satisfy the '50 + 1' rule, meaning that the association (*Mutterverein*) owns at least 51% of the corporation's voting power at the professional club's GA.

According to Wilkesmann and Blutner (2002), the rule introduced two changes. Firstly, it obliged clubs structured as corporations to introduce a supervisory board of which a guaranteed majority (e.g. six of eleven members) are elected by the parent club's membership at their annual meeting, hence the '50 + 1'. The second effect was to empower this supervisory board to

6 Interview with Ekstraklasa, 9 February 2015.

appoint a full-time management board (a significant change from the older volunteer-based club association structure that many German clubs maintained until the rule was introduced in 1998).⁷

The Ligaverband has specified that the rule requires the *Mutterverein* to have the “controlling influence” on the administration and ordinary business activities of the capital company’ and that the mother association

has to be ‘ultimately responsible’ (no right of veto for investors) for decisions regarding the composition of the Management Board and thus the typical business of a professional football club, especially concerning decisions of sporting significance.⁸

The rule also guarantees the *Mutterverein* ‘a right to final decision’ in the case of a tie.⁹

It is unclear, however, how far the parent club’s decision making power extends in reality. One club in our research survey answered that the association (*Mutterverein*) ‘does not take any operative day-to-day decisions such as managing the budget or player transfers’ and that these decisions were made by the executive board of the public limited company (AG or *Aktiengesellschaft*). On the other hand, the club’s executive board is elected by the aforementioned supervisory board where the ‘50 + 1’ rule ensures a majority voting power from the association or *Mutterverein*. This means that, theoretically, club members at their annual meeting could dismiss the management of the club or veto any decisions pushed by a shareholding interest group. So, while the ‘50 + 1’ rule places guarantees in a majority of the board members and general oversight, it may not necessarily extend to all areas of a club’s operational decision-making.

When introduced, there were two possible exceptions to the ‘50 + 1’ rule in article 8. The first was what could be called the ‘historic’ exception (known at the time as the ‘Lex Bayer’) and applied to clubs owned, promoted and supported by a company for more than twenty years prior to 1999. Here, the league board decides on whether to apply the exception. This is the case at Bayer Leverkusen with the chemical and pharmaceutical company Bayer or at VfL Wolfsburg with car manufacturer Volkswagen.

7 Aside from this, the responsibilities of the supervisory board are limited, however. It appoints the management board and examines the accounts but cannot, for example, make decisions on hiring managers.

8 E-mail correspondence with the DFL, 16 September 2015.

9 *Ibid.*

The second exception dealt with a specific ownership structure and was an extension of the spirit of the '50 + 1' rule. Here, the parent club (association) forms a limited liability company (GmbH or *Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung*) and with this company it creates a limited partnership with share capital (KGaA or *Kommanditgesellschaft auf Aktien*). Shares in the KGaA can be traded freely and shareholders can invest in the club's capital and even own the majority of the shares in the KGaA partnership so long as there are sufficient guarantees that the parent association (*Mutterverein*) maintains management authority and a majority decision-making power. In one club in our research sample, the parent club (through its GmbH) holds a minority (5.53%) shareholding interest in the KGaA's share capital but represents and manages the company alone and the KGaA's limited liability shareholders have no right of objection.

Wilkesmann *et al.* (2011) explain that since 2000 there has been a shift in German club football from associations to more professionalized structures and that by the 2008/09 season the majority of German clubs in the top two divisions had registered as joint stock companies. While there are the aforementioned exceptions, the rules in place are probably enough to dissuade the proverbial unsavoury high-flying investor from purchasing a German club and then be forced to file for bankruptcy shortly thereafter as has been the case with many English clubs going into administration over the last decade. This could well be one reason why German football is often praised for the health of its clubs and the rare cases of such mismanagement. Nevertheless, the 'historic' part of the rule was anchored on the condition 'prior to 1999' but, as this restriction has been since removed, it is unclear exactly how this will affect future club ownership.¹⁰

From a more general perspective there are no strong trends in terms of a league's FIFA Ranking or by confederation (save Europe with three countries requiring corporate status for clubs).

B. Club owner regulations

The second comparative indicator is the presence and nature of league regulations on club owners. Here, we examine if leagues issue regulations about

10 It is uncertain how future developments of clubs like Red Bull Leipzig will affect the '50 + 1' rule given the removal of the 'prior to 1999' requirement of the 'Lex Bayer'. Now the rule allows any club owned by a corporation for any period of twenty years to be eligible for the exception. See <http://www.espnfc.com/german-bundesliga/10/blog/post/2219877/issues-looming-for-germanys-footballing-landscape> (last consultation: 31 August 2015).

the acquisition of club shares by an investor, if they check the background of a potential investor and then if they prohibit some investors from acquiring shares in a club.

In this area, we received three main kinds of answers:

- No restriction/regulation: the league has no specific regulations and does not check the background of potential investors.
- Information/approval required: in many cases, the league (or sometimes the national association) asks the club to send information – most of the time financial and/or legal – about the potential future shareholder. Then the league will approve or deny this investor as being a club shareholder.
- Additional regulations: the league issues additional, more specific, regulations.

Table n°6: Club owner regulations

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	No regulation/restriction	Information/approval required	Additional regulations	N/A	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X			
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X				
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X	X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X				
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)					X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)					X
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X				
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X				
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X			
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X			
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)				X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X	X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)					X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X				
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X				
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AEA (Primera División)					X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X			

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Overall, the situation is split fairly evenly across all leagues with almost one-third in each case. There are also no significant observations in terms of confederations or by FIFA Ranking. In some countries, there are no regulations whatsoever concerning the acquisition of shares/interests in a club. For example, in Saudi Arabia no regulation exists since all clubs are owned by the state and therefore the question is a non-issue.

When a league (or, in some cases, the national association) regulation exists concerning limitations or requirements regarding the acquisition of shares/interests in a club, it often states that the person who wants to become a club owner must send financial and legal information and wait for the approval of the league/national association. With such a procedure, leagues clearly want to be sure that the future owner has the financial resources to run the club and want to know if he has ever been involved in suspicious business affairs or, for example, been convicted for fraud or illegal activity.

In some cases, additional regulations further specify the restrictions. This is the case in South Africa, where the *NSL* (National Soccer League, South African top tier league) *Constitution* states, for example, that a foreign investor must have the approval of SAFA (South African Football Association) if he/she wants to become a club owner (while a South African investor must only have the approval of the league). Furthermore, an investor which previously had shares/interests in a club must wait one year before investing in another club and if his/her previous club went bankrupt, then he/she must wait two years. The *NSL Constitution* also states that every pre-existing contract must be respected by the new owner(s) (*NSL Constitution*, art. 30).

C. Acquisition of shares/interests in other clubs

The next point of analysis is the presence or not of rules on the ownership of shares in other clubs in the same league or in other leagues, countries or even sports.

The answers from the leagues fall into the following categories:

- Multiple club shareholding allowed: investors have the right to own shares in several clubs of the league.
- Multiple club shareholding forbidden inside the league: investors do not have the right to own shares in multiple clubs of the same league, but there are no restrictions on owning shares in clubs from other leagues.
- Multiple club shareholding forbidden inside the country: investors do not have the right to own shares in multiple clubs in the same country, but there are no restrictions on owning shares in clubs from other countries.

- Multiple club shareholding forbidden: investors do not have the right to own shares in several clubs from any leagues, countries or sports.
- No restriction/regulation: the league does not issue any regulation about multiple club shareholding.
- Other regulations: specific regulations from a league.

Table n°7: Multiple club shareholding regulations

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Allowed	Not in the league	Not in the country	Not at all	No regulation	Other regulations	N/A	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)						X		
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)						X		
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)						X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)						X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)								X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)		X						
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X					
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X						
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)		X						
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X						
	Australia	FFA (A-League)				X				
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)							X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X							
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	X							
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)					X			
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X						
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)								X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)					X			

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

As seen in the above table, most of the leagues which answered our questionnaire restrict club owners from investing in other clubs in some way including Europe (which has a recent history in the matter going back to the ENIC case against UEFA rejected by the European Commission in 2002).¹¹ The significant exceptions are Mexico and MLS where several first division clubs can have the same owners. In addition to intra-league shared ownership, MLS investor-operators can have shares in foreign clubs, as well as in other sports,

11 For a commentary of the European Commission's decision and the original CAS case (CAS 98/200 AEK Athens and Slavia Prague v. UEFA), see Cherpillod 2010: 124-129.

for example, in the case of the now defunct Chivas USA (the same family who owned Chivas Guadalajara), New York City FC (owned by City Football Group which includes Manchester City, Melbourne City and a minority stake in Yokohama F. Marinos) or AEG, the Anschutz Entertainment Group (which owns the LA Galaxy, a majority stake in the Houston Dynamo, the NBA's Los Angeles Lakers and the NHL's Los Angeles Kings). The question of cross-sport ownership is part of professional football's tumultuous history in America.¹²

However, in other countries, the extent of the restrictions can be different from one country to another. The Australian A-League is the only league where owners cannot, in theory, invest in any other club, league, country or even other sport. However, club owners are allowed in exceptional cases to own shares in other clubs – outside the A-League – if they receive the approval of the national association.

In England, Premier League club owners cannot own shares in any other Premier League clubs, nor can they own shares in any Football League clubs which include the second, third and fourth tier of English football. In Spain, an investor who owns more than 5% of a club's shares cannot own more than 5% of any other football club's shares in the country. The rule seeks to limit '*participaciones significativas*' or significant participation in multiple club ownership. However, there are some gaps in this rule especially between club owners in the top two professional divisions and the lower leagues. The 2007 CAS case involving Granada 74 SAD – the new identity of a second division football company originally from Murcia and bought and moved to Granada by a man who was already president of a fourth division club also in Granada – revealed some of the limits of the agreement, the *Convenio de Coordinación*, between the Spanish federation and the LNFP.¹³ In Germany, a direct or indirect share in the capital or the voting right which exceeds 10%

12 Just as the NASL (North American Soccer League) signed a major television deal after its successful 1978 season, the league faced a challenge from a rule in the National Football League (NFL) that would force its owners from divesting interests in other sports leagues by 1980. Four NFL owners were also investors in the NASL and this rule threatened the financial situation of the NASL. After four years of legal action which included an initial injunction in 1979 and a reverse ruling in favour of the NFL in 1980, the Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit finally ruled in 1982 that a cross-ownership ban was anti-competitive; the league folded in 1985. Interestingly, this laid some of the legal groundwork for the later structure of MLS as a hybrid single-entity. For a discussion of the 1982 court case, see Ashman 1982: 852.

13 For a full treatment of the case see de Dios Crespo Pérez 2012.

is limited to one club. In Poland, it is possible for a club owner to own shares in other clubs, but only to a very limited extent: a club owner cannot own more than 1% shares in any other club.

In Saudi Arabia, this is a non-issue since each club is owned by the Saudi government. Nonetheless, the league allows members to donate to their clubs without any maximum limit – something which helps to explain the difference in resources between some clubs.

D. Suspension/exclusion of owner/shareholder

After consideration of ownership requirements or limitations, the next topic surveyed is whether a club owner/shareholder can be expelled or suspended. Most leagues answered that they had no specific regulations in place. However, this does not mean that they do not have any regulations at all. Rather, in some cases they have standard regulations, like for example, in the case of breaching league rules or if the owner/shareholder was found guilty of illegal business practices. Sometimes, the regulation is very broadly defined, like in South Africa, where the NSL answered that ‘any misconduct can result in suspension’. Furthermore, in some cases, owner/shareholder misconduct would lead to consequences concerning the club as a whole and could cause financial sanctions, a sporting sanction (withdrawal of points) or the withdrawal of the club licence.

One league which does have very specific regulations about clubs owners and directors is the English Premier League. The extract below comes from the *Premier League Rules* and describes all the potential reasons which could lead to an owner/shareholder disqualification. This extract only shows a part of the regulations comprising financial (events of insolvency), legal (imprisonment) and political (involvement in several clubs) matters (The Football Association Premier League Limited 2013: 116-117):

- F.1. A Person shall be disqualified from acting as a Director and no Club shall be permitted to have any Person acting as a Director of that Club if:
 - F.1.1. either directly or indirectly he is involved in or has any power to determine or influence the management or administration of another Club or Football League club; or
 - F.1.2. either directly or indirectly he holds or acquires any Significant Interest in a Club while he either directly or indirectly holds any interest in any class of Shares of another Club; or

F1.3. he becomes prohibited by law from being a Director [...]; or

F1.4. he has a conviction (which is not a Spent Conviction) imposed by a court of the United Kingdom or a competent court of foreign jurisdiction:

F1.4.1. in respect of which an unsuspended sentence of at least 12 months' imprisonment was imposed; or

F1.4.2. in respect of any offence involving any act which would reasonably be considered to be dishonest (and, for the avoidance of doubt, irrespective of the actual sentence imposed); or

[...]

F1.5. he makes an Individual Voluntary Arrangement or becomes the subject of an Interim Bankruptcy Restriction Order, a Bankruptcy Restriction Order or a Bankruptcy Order; or

F1.6. he is or has been a Director of a Club which, while he has been a Director of it, has suffered 2 or more unconnected Events of Insolvency in respect of each of which a deduction of points was imposed [...]; or

F1.8. he is subject to a suspension or ban from involvement in the administration of a sport by any ruling body of a sport that is registered with UK Sport or Sport England, or any corresponding national or international association, whether such suspension or ban is direct or indirect [...]; or

[...]

F1.10. he is required to notify personal information pursuant to Part 2 of the Sexual Offences Act 2003; or

F1.11. he is found to have breached (irrespective of any sanction actually imposed), or has admitted breaching (irrespective of whether disciplinary proceedings were brought or not):

[...]

F1.11.3. any other rules in force from time to time in relation to the prohibition on betting on football matches played in England and Wales; or

F1.11.4. the rules of any other ruling body of football in relation to the prohibition of betting on football (whether in England or Wales or elsewhere).

In Australia there is a specific club-FFA (Football Federation Australia, which manages the A-League) agreement and if a club or a club owner breaches the agreement in a serious way, the FFA reserves the right to terminate the club licence. If the club becomes financially insolvent, the FFA could step in and run the club for a time to see if there could be a new owner, but if it is decided that the market is too small, the club disappears. There are a number of

cases where FFA withdrew a club licence or took charge of a club because of financial difficulties – some of which are discussed later. In other cases, FFA can provide financial support to a club and can take charge of the club if the owner withdraws.

E. Appointment of club officials

Concerning the appointment or election of clubs officials, the leagues surveyed generally do not give any specific guidelines to the clubs other than compliance with the regulations discussed in the previous point. For example, someone who has been found guilty of illegal business could not become a club official. The regulations are the same as the ones concerning club owners or shareholders, but there are no guidelines concerning the process of appointment or election. According to the information collected, clubs can decide on their own as how they want to elect/appoint their club officials. For example, sometimes the president of the club is the majority shareholder while in other cases he is elected by the shareholders or by the members or *socios* of the club. The only case where there exist explicit league guidelines for club officials' election/appointment is Saudi Arabia. Because clubs are owned by the General Presidency of Youth and Welfare, a government department, club officials must be elected by the members of a club. However, these elected club officials will have to be approved by the General Presidency of Youth and Welfare.

After an overview of the question of ownership, we now turn to the issue of club representation within leagues.

2.2. Representation of clubs in league bodies

This sub-section deals with the representation of clubs in the governing bodies of the league. This analysis allows us to provide an overview of club influence within the league. The focus here is on the two usual major bodies of an organisation: the general assembly (or general meeting, etc.) and the executive committee (or board of directors, etc.). For each body, the composition and the voting power of the members have been studied. Furthermore, we analysed the methods for appointment/election of the president (or chairman, etc.) of the league and the conditions required to be appointed/elected, if such conditions exist.

Before analysing such data, it is important to review the structure of each league since not all leagues include a general assembly or an executive committee. The table below presents the basic information about the structure of league governing bodies – presence of a general assembly, executive committee and president or chairman.

Table n°8: League governing bodies

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	GA	ExCo	Pres.	Comments
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)	N/R	N/R	N/R	No response
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	No	Yes	Yes	-
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	No	Yes	No	No president but a CEO is appointed by the AIFFE.
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	No	No	No	As the league is a department of FFA, there is no GA, ExCo or president. The head of the department is appointed by FFA.
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	No	Yes	Yes	-
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	Yes	No	Yes	-
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	N/R	N/R	N/R	No response
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)	Yes	Yes	Yes	The bodies governing AFA are the same bodies responsible for governing the league.
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)	Yes	Yes	Yes	-

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

As seen in the table above, most ‘independent’ leagues (association model with self-management or separate entity model) include a general assembly, an executive committee and a president in their structure. The Mexican Liga MX is the only exception since it does not have an executive committee separate from its general assembly. It must also be noted that, in some leagues that manage several divisions, there are some ‘intermediary’ general assemblies or executive committees for each division. This is the case in Japan and in Spain, where each division has its own intermediary governing bodies with club representatives from the respective divisions.

According to the information we received, the structures of non-independent leagues (leagues managed by the national association) differ from one to another:

- In Ivory Coast, there is no general assembly but an executive committee. The President is appointed by the FIF president and is a member of the FIF executive committee.
- In India, there is no league general assembly, but an executive committee including I-League clubs and AIFF representatives. There is no president but a CEO (Chief Executive Officer) appointed by AIFF.
- In Australia, there is no general assembly, executive committee or president of the league. The league is a department within FFA and is directed by a head who is appointed by FFA. However, this does not mean that clubs do not participate in the management of the league since workshops and committees are regularly organised by FFA with club presidents and CEOs.
- In Saudi Arabia, there is no general assembly but only an executive committee. The president of the league is elected at the SAFF general assembly.
- In Argentina, the AFA manages the league. The decisions concerning league management are taken at the AFA general assembly and executive committee. As such, we considered the AFA general assembly and executive committee as being the governing bodies of the league. Similarly, the AFA president is considered to be the league president as well.
- In Papua New Guinea, while the league has its own general assembly, executive committee and president, the league executive committee has the status of a PNGFA (Papua New Guinea Football Association) standing committee. Furthermore, executive committee members and league chairman are all appointed by PNGFA.

A. League general assembly

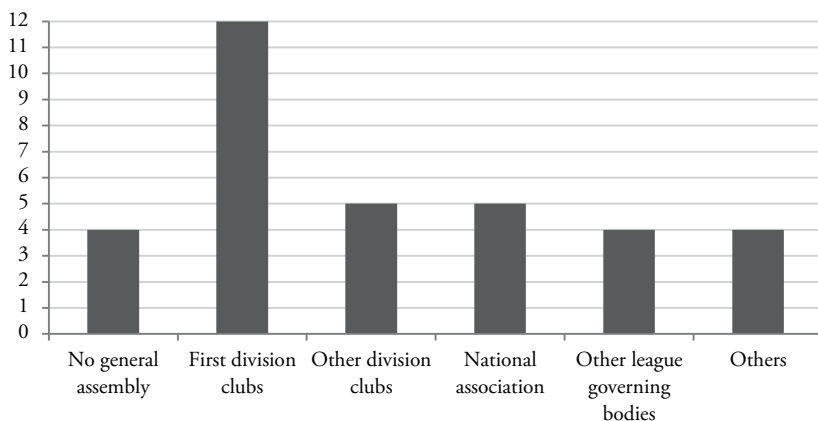
Composition and representation

According to the data we collected, league general assemblies are composed of five major categories of representatives:

- First division clubs: representatives from clubs belonging to the first division.
- Other division clubs: representatives from clubs belonging to lower divisions.
- National association representatives.

- Other league governing bodies' members: executive committee members, chairman, CEO or president of the league. Here, we did not take into account situations in which executive committee members or the league president are already general assembly members because they are also club representatives.
- Other representatives and members.

Figure n°6: Frequency of representation within league general assemblies



Of the sixteen leagues which answered our questionnaire, as previously explained, four do not have a general assembly (Ivory Coast's Ligue Professionnelle, the Indian I-League, Australian A-League and Saudi SPL).¹⁴

Of the twelve other general assemblies, it is rather logical to find that each one is composed of first division clubs. The league general assemblies which include other division clubs are the four leagues actually composed of several divisions (the Spanish LNFP, German Ligaverband, South African NSL and Japanese J. League) and the AFA general assembly, which governs not only the Primera División but all of Argentinian football as well.

National associations are included in the four European leagues' general assemblies – the English Premier League, Spanish LNFP, German Ligaverband and Polish Ekstraklasa – and in the Jamaican PFAJ (Professional Football Association of Jamaica) general assembly.

14 We have no information about Morocco and the United States.

Almost every league general assembly includes executive committee members and/or a president. This is not explicitly illustrated in the graph because executive committee members and/or the president are often already general assembly members, and, as a result, do not count as both general assembly and executive committee members. For example, KPL (Kenyan Premier League) executive committee members and the president are all club representatives and, therefore, they are also general assembly members. However, in some cases the executive committee members are not *de facto* members of the general assembly. For example, the two English Premier League board members are elected by clubs at the general assembly and they are also non-voting members of the general assembly.

In the 'others' category, four league general assemblies include representatives and members not previously mentioned. The Ligaverband and J. League general assemblies include honorary members. The AFA assembly includes regional league representatives – however, since leagues represent clubs, they could be considered as indirect club representatives. Finally, Papua New Guinea's NSL general assembly includes representatives from government and business companies.

Voting distribution

Concerning voting distribution at the general assembly, the situation is simple for nearly half of the leagues with a general assembly: votes are equally distributed among clubs and, if other representatives and members are included within the general assembly, they do not have any voting power. This is, for example, the case in the Costa Rican UNAFUT (Unión de Clubes de Fútbol de la Primera División) general assembly, where executive committee members can attend, have a voice but not the right to vote.

The dominance of clubs in terms of voting is evident for countries with a higher FIFA Ranking. The actual balance of club votes depends, however, on how the league body is structured. For example, in Germany, Japan, Spain, South Africa and Argentina several divisions are governed by one league. In leagues with multiple divisions the voting power is often, though not always, weighted in favour of the top tier clubs.

In the Ligaverband and J. League general assemblies, each club from every division has one vote. Then, in Germany, Bundesliga (first division) clubs have half of the votes at the general assembly while 2. Bundesliga (second division) have the other half. In Japan, J. League Division 1 clubs together have then eighteen votes, J. League Division 2 clubs have 22 votes and J3 League

clubs have twelve votes. However, in the Spanish LNFP general assembly, first division clubs have marginally more individual voting power – 1.1 votes per club – than second division ones – 1 vote per club. However, since there are twenty clubs in the first division and 22 in the second, both divisions have exactly the same amount of votes. In South Africa, each of the sixteen PSL (Premier Soccer League, first division) clubs has ten votes while each of the NFD (National First Division, second division) clubs has two votes. Furthermore, the nine members of the league executive committee have one vote each. Lastly, Argentina's case is unique as the AFA bodies serve as the league bodies. Each member of the AFA general assembly has one vote. The members are the following: all of the twenty Primera División clubs, eight Primera B Nacional (second division) clubs, seven Primera B (third division) clubs, four Primera C (fourth division) clubs, three Primera D (fifth division) clubs and seven representatives from the regional leagues.

In Poland, the voting power of general assembly members is shared proportionally between the clubs and the national association albeit heavily weighted in favour of the clubs. Each of the sixteen clubs has 5.8% of the voting distribution – 92.8% of total votes for the clubs – and the PZPN (Polish national association) has 7.2%.

In Papua New Guinea, each member (clubs, government and business company representatives) has one vote.

In summary, if a league general assembly exists, the clubs have a large majority of, if not all, the votes. The only exception is the Jamaican PFAJ league which is jointly owned by the national association – which has a slight majority of shares – and by the association of the NPL clubs. The PFAJ general assembly composition and voting distribution reflects the ownership of the company. The ownership structure of the league is as follows: the national association has four representatives, each one having one vote, while the club association has three representatives having one vote each. As a result, Jamaica is the only league in our sample in which the national association has marginally more voting power at the general assembly.

Table n°9: League general assembly voting distribution

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Only clubs voting	Clubs and national association	Specific distribution	No league general assembly	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X				
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X				
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X				
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X			
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)					X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)				X	
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X				
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)				X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	X				
	Australia	FFA (A-League)				X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)				X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X				
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)					X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X			
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X				
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X		
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)			X		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

*B. League executive committee**Composition, representation and election/appointment process*

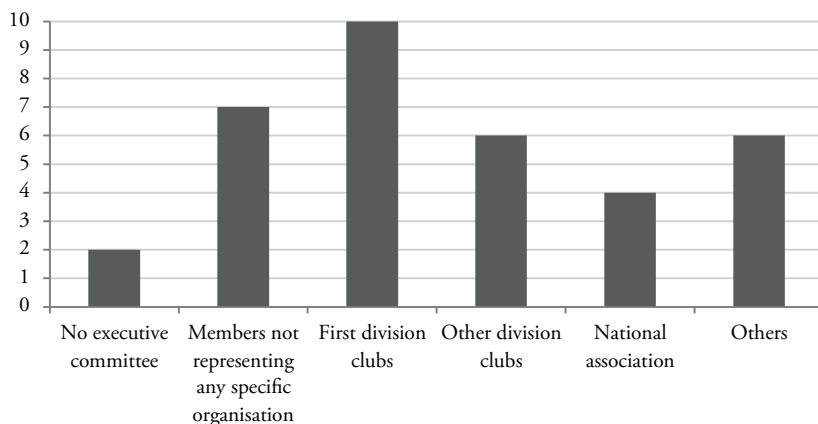
Of all leagues which provided replies fourteen have an executive committee. Among these, five major categories of members have been identified concerning representation in executive committees:

- Members not representing any particular organisation: these members are appointed because they have management or business backgrounds. Usually, they are the president/chairman or CEO of the league.
- First division clubs: representatives from clubs belonging to the first division.
- Other division clubs: representatives from clubs belonging to lower divisions.

- National association representatives.
- Other representatives and members.

There are several different types of representation ranging from non-specific, club-dominated, a balance between multiple divisions, to diverse membership. On the executive committees of the English Premier League, Polish Ekstraklasa, Costa Rican UNAFUT and Papua New Guinea's NSL all members are not specifically representatives of a particular organisation. At the Premier League, the executive committee includes two members, who are elected by the league general assembly of the Premier League. In the Ekstraklasa, executive committee members are appointed by the league supervisory board, which includes six club representatives and one from PZPN. The UNAFUT executive committee consists of seven members, including two auditors. They are elected by the league general assembly and must have been nominated by a club. Members of Papua New Guinea's NSL executive committee are appointed by PNGFA.

Figure n°7: Frequency of representation within league executive committees



The leagues which include principally direct club representatives in their executive committees are South Africa, Kenya, India, Saudi Arabia and Jamaica. In South Africa, the NSL executive committee is formed by seven club representatives elected by the league general assembly, the president of the league – who is also elected by the general assembly and who may or may not be a club representative – and the league CEO, appointed by the executive committee.

The KPL executive committee consists of a chairman who is the chairman of the club which won the league the previous season, two vice chairmen who are the chairmen of the clubs which finished second and third the previous season, and four other club representatives elected by the general assembly. These four members should ensure the balance between parastatal, corporate and community-based clubs among the executive committee members. The chairman of the league finance committee is also a member of the executive committee.

In India, the I-League executive committee includes the representatives from the thirteen clubs and thirteen representatives appointed by the AIFF. In the SPL executive committee is composed of the fourteen club representatives, the SAFF vice president, who is the *ex officio* chairman of the league, and the CEO of the league.

In Jamaica, the PFAJ executive committee consists of members of the PLCA (Premier League Clubs Association). Here, only club representatives attend the executive committee while, as explained above, the league general assembly includes national association representation as a shareholder of the league.

The third approach is that of an executive committee that balances representation from clubs from multiple divisions. This is the case in Spain, Germany and Argentina. The Spanish LNFP executive committee includes the president of the league, two vice-presidents (club representatives, one from each division) and six club representatives from each division. The general director, general secretary and legal director also attend the executive committee but without a vote.

Germany's Ligaverband executive committee consists of seven club representatives and two DFL (Deutsche Fussball Liga) executive committee members. The DFL is 'a limited company and is a 100% subsidiary of the Ligaverband' (EPFL 2011: 13). The DFL is responsible for the day-to-day management of the Bundesliga and 2. Bundesliga and its executive committee members are *ex officio* members of the Ligaverband executive committee. The seven club representatives are elected in the following way: three representatives are elected by the league general assembly as a whole, two must be Bundesliga clubs and the remaining two are from 2. Bundesliga clubs. In each case, the clubs from each championship elect their two representatives.

The Argentinian case is unique. The AFA executive committee – which also acts as the one for the Primera División – includes the AFA president who is elected by the general assembly, the representatives from the twenty Primera División clubs, two Primera B Nacional club representatives, one

Primera B club representative, one Primera C club representative, one Primera D club representative and one representative from the regional leagues. All are elected by the general assembly.

There are two leagues that have diverse representation: Ivory Coast and Japan. The composition and election processes of Ivory Coast's Ligue Professionnelle executive committee is as follows: the league president is appointed by the FIF president; five Ligue 1 club representatives are elected by Ligue 1 clubs; two Ligue 2 representatives are elected by Ligue 2 clubs; one National Technical Direction representative is appointed by the National Technical Direction; one referee representative is appointed by his/her peers; one sports medicine representative is appointed by his/her peers; and, according to the documents provided by the league, four other members are appointed, without specifying their function, representation or appointment process.

Finally, the J-League executive committee is probably the most diverse. It consists of four members who do not represent any organisation and who act as managing directors of the league. Furthermore, the executive committee includes six club representatives (four J. League Division 1 and two J. League Division 2 representatives), two JFA (Japan Football Association) representatives, three representatives from colleges or universities, two representatives from companies, two leading sports figures and two auditors.

Voting distribution – clubs' voting power

The actual voting distribution within the league executive committee is unknown for many leagues, but in the cases where we have clear data there are two possibilities:

- Either some or all clubs are directly represented at the executive committee and thus have direct decision-making power (but they are not the only members of the executive committee).
- Or clubs are represented indirectly on the executive committee by the individuals elected during the general assembly.

While there are no general tendencies in terms of confederations or country ranking, there are some interesting specific observations. The voting distribution is varied across the leagues, but in most cases, clubs hold the lion's share of the votes. Furthermore, we can see in the table below that in Spain, Germany, South Africa and Argentina, clubs both have direct and indirect representatives. This means that some clubs are directly represented while the other members of the executive committee have been elected by the league general assembly.

Table n°10: Clubs' direct or indirect voting power at the league executive committee

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Club direct representation	Club indirect representation
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X	X
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X	X
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)	N/R	N/R
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	N/R	N/R
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)	X	X
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	N/R	N/R
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	N/A	N/A
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	N/A	N/A
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	N/R	N/R
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X	
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)	X	X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Two examples illustrate how clubs have all the voting power at the executive committee. First, in Jamaica, all NPL clubs have a representative at the league executive committee. There is no representative from any other organisation and the president is also a club representative. Therefore, clubs possess the entirety of the voting power at the executive committee. The situation is similar in Kenya, save the difference that not all clubs are represented (only eight clubs out of sixteen). However, clubs still have all the voting power at the league executive committee.

Actually, the only examples where clubs do not possess – directly or indirectly – the entire voting power of the league executive committee are cases in which the national association also has representatives. This is the case for the I-League executive committee, which includes thirteen club representatives and thirteen representatives from the AIFF, and in SPL executive committee, where the SAFF vice president automatically holds the position of league president as well. Clubs do not have the majority in Papua New Guinea

either: clubs do not have any direct or indirect power since all members of the executive committee are PNGFA representatives.

A unique case is probably Argentina where the national association executive committee is the *de facto* league executive body. If we analyse Primera División representatives' voting power compared to other clubs or leagues, we find that Primera División clubs still have a majority of 71% of the votes.

C. League president

The league president is usually elected according to the same process used for the election/appointment of executive committee members. However, some cases should be highlighted in order to show the diversity of scenarios that can occur in the appointment process and the appointment/election requirements:

- In England, Spain and Costa Rica, the president of the league is appointed according to the same process as the other members of the executive committee – by the general assembly. In these cases, the president must not be a club representative.
- In Mexico, there is no executive committee but a league president who is elected by the general assembly. He/she is not a club representative.
- In Poland, the president is appointed by the supervisory board and is not a club representative. The supervisory board consists of four representatives from the clubs that finished in the first four places the previous season, two representatives elected by the other clubs and one representative from PZPN.
- In Germany and Jamaica, the league president is elected by the general assembly and is also a club representative.
- In Kenya, the league president is the chairman of the club which won the league the previous season.
- In South Africa, the president is elected by the general assembly but there are no regulations stating that he/she must be (or not) a club representative.

In four countries, Ivory Coast, Saudi Arabia, Papua New Guinea, and Argentina the national association plays a strong role in the appointment of the league president. Here, the president is either appointed by the national association or is the *ex officio* president because he/she holds a specific position within the national association:

- In Ivory Coast, the league president is appointed by the FIF president and must have been previously elected as one of the FIF vice presidents by the FIF general assembly.
- In Saudi Arabia, the SAFF vice president, elected by the SAFF general assembly, is the *ex officio* president of the league.
- In Papua New Guinea, like the other members of the executive committee, the league president is appointed by the PNGFA and is not a club representative.
- In Argentina, the president of AFA is the only member of the executive committee who is not a club or league representative. He/she is elected by the AFA general assembly.

Regarding league general assemblies and executive committees, we can note that, in most cases, clubs are responsible for the election of their league president. The cases in which the league president comes from the national association reflects a league strongly dependent on its national association.

2.3. Finance: rights and obligations

After ownership and representation, another key aspect of the club-league relationship is finance. This sub-section analyses some of the financial rights and obligations held by clubs and the league. In order to compare the leagues surveyed, we chose six indicators:

- A. Participation fee: do clubs have to pay a fee to enter the competition organised by the league?
- B. Percentage of club revenues granted to the league: do clubs have to give a part of their revenues to the league?
- C. Negotiation of media/broadcasting rights: how are the media/broadcasting rights negotiated?
- D. Distribution of league revenue: does the league grant some of its revenue to the clubs?
- E. Audit/financial control: does the league require the clubs to audit or verify their finances?
- F. Policies and consequences for club financial difficulties: what are the league policies concerning financial difficulties and what are the consequences in case of financial difficulties?

A. Participation fee

A minority of leagues ask clubs to pay a participation fee to take part in the championship. When looking at FIFA Ranking, the presence of a league participation fee is more common in countries ranked from 21 to 80: one league in the 1-20 group ask for participation fee, four in the 21-80 group and two in the 81-209 group. At confederation level, UEFA is the only confederation for which no league surveyed requires clubs to pay a participation fee. In the other confederations there is at least one league which does so.¹⁵

Table n°11: Club's participation fee to be paid to the league

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Yes	No	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)		X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X	
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X	
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	X		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	X		
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)		X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X	
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)		X	
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X		
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)	X		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

B. Percentage of club revenues granted to the league

There are very few leagues that require clubs to give the organiser a portion of their revenues. Only Ivory Coast's Ligue Professionnelle, Jamaica's PFAJ and Costa Rican UNAFUT do so. We do not have more specific data concerning Ivory Coast, but in Costa Rica clubs have to give 5% of their ticketing revenues during the regular season and 10% during the playoffs (which

15 We have no information about CONMEBOL/Argentina.

concerns four out of twelve clubs). Similarly, only Jamaican clubs reaching the championship's semi-finals or final must provide some of their revenues to the league.

Two other leagues require that clubs give some of their revenues to the league in specific circumstances:

- In Germany, Ligaverband may ask clubs, in exceptional circumstances, to give a part of their revenues in specific cases, like for example for friendly matches.
- In Australia, clubs' merchandising deals must be approved by FFA and a certain amount of these deals goes to a centralised pool which is then distributed equally among all A-League clubs.

Table n°12: Percentage of club revenues granted to the league

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Yes	No	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)		X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X	
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X	
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	X		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)		X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X	
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)		X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X	
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)			X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X		
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

C. Negotiation of media/broadcast rights

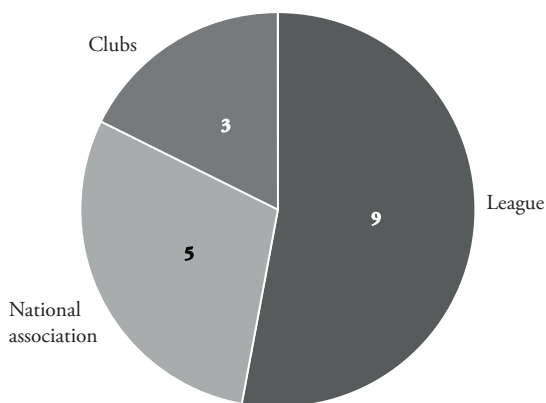
Media and broadcast rights are generally an important source of income for clubs and leagues. In the leagues studied here these rights are usually negotiated according to one of two ways: either the clubs negotiate them individually with a broadcaster or the league negotiates them collectively. Unsurprisingly, in cases where the league is managed by the national association, the rights are negotiated centrally by the national association. For example, this is the case in Australia, where FFA sells the broadcast rights for A-League games. Most of the time in these cases, the sale does not only concern league games but all national team (men, women and youth) games as well.

Table n°13: Negotiation of media/broadcast rights

			Clubs	League	National association	N/R
Confederation	Country	League (championship)				
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X		
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X			
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)				X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)		X		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)			X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X		
	Australia	FFA (A-League)			X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)			X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X			
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)		X		
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X			
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X	
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)			X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Figure n°8: Entity responsible for the negotiation of media/broadcast rights



The table and the graph above illustrate that most independent leagues sell their broadcast rights collectively. Only Spanish, Mexican and Costa Rican clubs use the individual club method.¹⁶ In at least one case, neither the league nor the clubs negotiate. Rather, a separate league agency is responsible for selling the rights. MLS matches are bundled together with USA national team matches (men and women) and sold by a separate league marketing company, Soccer United Marketing (SUM).¹⁷ However, not all MLS media/broadcast rights are sold centrally. Clubs are responsible for selling their own local and regional media rights and in some rare cases this can represent more than the value of national broadcast rights. The LA Galaxy signed a ten-year regional contract worth \$55 million in 2011 which was worth far more than

16 At the time of writing, the situation in Spain had significantly changed for the future with a new law centralizing the process of selling broadcast rights as of the 2016/17 season. Despite a series of objections to the new Real Decreto Ley from the national competition commission and a lack of complete consensus among all clubs between the spring and autumn of 2015, it would appear at the time of publication that the rights have finally been sold collectively, ushering in a new era for Spanish football. See http://economia.elpais.com/economia/2015/05/28/actualidad/1432814706_353071.html (last consultation: 10 July 2015) and http://futbol.as.com/futbol/2015/09/24/primera/1443100347_727755.html (last consultation: 25 September 2015).

17 <http://espnmediazone.com/us/press-releases/2014/05/espn-extends-rights-to-mls-and-u-s-national-teams/> (last consultation: 18 June 2015).

the club's share of the annual \$28 million from combined league deals.¹⁸ This should be kept in context and the situation in MLS reflects the dynamic market conditions in which the value of media/broadcast rights has increased significantly in a short period of time.

D. Redistribution of league revenue

The negotiations of rights is one part of all league revenue which in many cases is redistributed by the league. According to the information received from the leagues, revenue is divided according to five methods:

- Equal redistribution: each club receives the same amount from the league/national association.
- Sporting merit: clubs receives an amount related to their ranking at the end of the season. The higher a club is in the final table, the bigger the amount it receives.
- Mixed: this method mixes equal distribution and other methods such as the sporting merit method.
- Specific: unusual methods.
- No revenue redistribution: the league does not share its revenue with the clubs. This case concerns 'small' leagues which do not earn enough revenue to redistribute them to the clubs.

When looking at the overall picture there are no specific trends across continents or according to FIFA Ranking. It is worth noting that the league usually does not redistribute all its revenue. The league generally keeps the money necessary to cover its own operating costs and then distributes the rest to the clubs. For example, the KPL explains that only 60 to 70% of its revenue was redistributed to the clubs. In addition, the individual selling of rights does not preclude the collective redistribution of that income or other league income as seen in the examples of Mexico and Costa Rica.

We should also note that, in leagues including several divisions, not all clubs from each division receive the same amount from the league. For example, in Germany, Bundesliga clubs share 80% of the Ligaverband broadcast rights while 2. Bundesliga clubs share the remaining 20%.

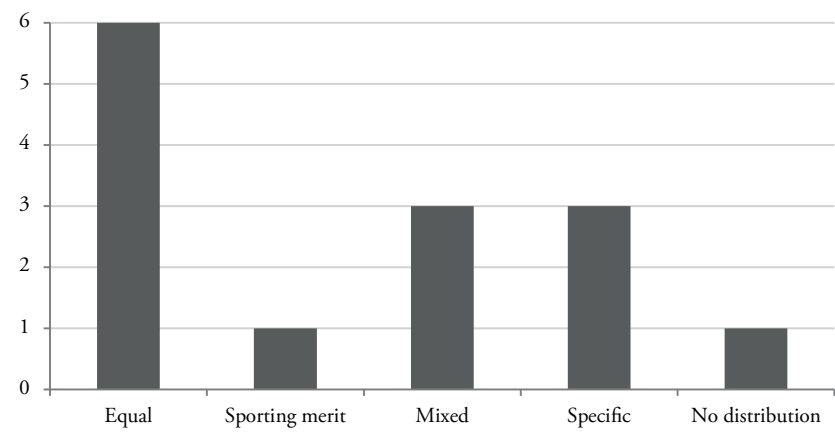
18 <http://www.sportsbusinessdaily.com/Journal/Issues/2014/05/12/Media/MLSTV.aspx> (last consultation: 18 June 2015) and http://latimesblogs.latimes.com/sports_blog/2011/11/galaxy-jumping-to-time-warner-cable-in-55-million-deal.html (last consultation: 19 June 2015).

Table n°14: Methods of redistribution of league revenue

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Equal	Sporting merit	Mixed	Specific	No distribution	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)			X			
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)						X
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X				
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)				X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)						X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	X					
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)	X					
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)				X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)				X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)			X			
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X					
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)			X			
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X					
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)						
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X					
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X					
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)						X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)					X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Figure n°9: Figure 10: Methods of redistribution of league revenue



In the 'mixed' redistribution category:

- The English Premier League: international broadcast and commercial (sponsoring, merchandising, etc.) revenue is redistributed equally while national broadcast revenue is distributed according to the following process: 50% equally, 25% related to appearances on television and 25% related to sporting merit.
- J. League: one part of league revenue is redistributed equally and one part according to sporting merit (including broadcast revenues).
- SPL: SAFF redistributes revenues 55% equally and 45% according to sporting merit.

Among those in the 'specific redistribution' category:

- Ekstraklasa: the distribution method is decided by the shareholders and can change from one season to another. Some revenue is redistributed to PZPN since it is a shareholder of the league.
- KPL: league revenue is shared among clubs as monthly grants and annual awards.
- I-League: AIFF pays subsidies to I-League clubs for travelling and match day organisation costs but does not have a revenue sharing model.

E. Club audit/financial control

This subsection explores the question whether leagues or national associations regularly ask their clubs to share financial information so that the league or the association can monitor club finances. The league may check club finances itself or may ask the clubs to provide audited reports from an independent audit company.

The English Premier League, which is one of the leagues surveyed with the most extensive regulations, stipulates in its rules that (The Football Association Premier League Limited 2013: 104-108):

- The league has the right to inspect the financial records of any clubs which are suspected to have acted in breach of the rules.
- Clubs must submit annual accounts to the league.
- Clubs must submit 'future financial information [...] comprising projected profit and loss accounts, cash flow, balance sheets and relevant explanatory notes' (*idem*: 105).
- Clubs must submit certification concerning taxes.

Obviously, not all leagues ask clubs for such complete information. In the table below, we consider that leagues have a financial control mechanism in place if they ask clubs for audit/financial control at least once a year.

Table n°15: Club audit/financial control by the league

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Yes	No	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X		
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X		
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)		X	
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)	X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	X		
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X		
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	X		
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X	
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	X		
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X	
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X	
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)	X		
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

As seen above, a majority of leagues (twelve out of seventeen) require some financial control on clubs. We did not include Costa Rica's UNAFUT because the league asks clubs on a one-time basis – only when they become affiliated to the league – to prove the source of their monetary resources and that they have the financial capacity to meet their obligations.

Not all independent leagues exercise financial control over clubs, but sometimes leave that task to the national association. This is for example the case in Poland where PZPN checks the clubs' finances because it is actually PZPN – and not Ekstraklasa – which is in charge of the delivery of the club licences.

Among the leagues for which we obtained some information, only three leagues (Ivory Coast's Ligue Professionnelle, Kenyan KPL and Saudi SPL) did not have any regulations in place.

F. Policies and consequences for club financial difficulties

This subsection briefly explores the issue of what occurs when clubs face financial difficulties and the relevant consequences. Most leagues did not provide much detail in responding to the related questions. In general, leagues stated that sanctions for having financial difficulties can range from a simple caution, to financial or sporting sanctions (e.g. points deduction). In the

most serious cases, this could lead to the exclusion of the club from the league or the withdrawal of its licence, which would mean in both cases that the club is relegated to a lower division. Several countries hinted at examples and a survey of the press reveals a few cases. In Australia, FFA has withdrawn club licences from a handful of clubs on different occasions. In 2011, FFA withdrew North Queensland Fury's club licence due to financial instability.¹⁹ The following year, FFA terminated Gold Coast United's licence and took over the club for the remaining matches.²⁰ More recently, in the days following the end of the 2014/15 season FFA withdrew Newcastle Jets' club licence for a variety of breaches including non-payment of players and staff.²¹

In MLS, the start of the 2014 season saw the league purchase Chivas USA from its investor-operator and then fold the team at the end of the competition.²² The situation was not only financial according MLS CEO Don Garber since

two different families [...] owned that team. One owned Chivas Guadalajara, and one was the managing partner of Chivas USA. It was difficult to reach agreement between the two parties on what they believed was the formula for success. That led to a breakup of that group that I had to mediate, and that ultimately led to us buying the team from them and relaunching it with a new expansion team.²³

The decision was made in order to reattribute the operating rights to a new investor group in October 2014 under the name LA Football Club.²⁴

19 http://www.foxsports.com.au/football/a-league/north-queensland-fury-dropped-from-a-league-after-being-unable-to-front-15million-for-licence/story-e6frf4gl-1226014174045?from=public_rss (last consultation: 19 June 2015).

20 <http://www.goal.com/en-au/news/4021/a-league/2012/03/13/2963667/striker-ben-halloran-could-have-played-his-final-game-for> (last consultation: 19 June 2015).

21 <http://www.footballeustralia.com.au/article/ffa-terminates-licence-of-newcastle-jets/1ilhj3p19dk4q1r7enen35999z> (last consultation: 19 June 2015).

22 <http://www.espnfc.com/majorleaguesoccer/story/1722549/majorleaguesoccerbuyschivas-usafromjorgevergaraandangelicafuentes> (last consultation: 9 June 2015).

23 <http://www.espnfc.com/majorleaguesoccer/19/blog/post/2179468/majorleaguesoccerdongarberonfinancescalampardnycfcmiamiandmore> (last consultation: 22 May 2015).

24 <http://www.si.com/soccer/planet-futbol/2014/10/30/mls-lafc-los-angeles-fc-ownership-nguyen-guber-penn-nomar-magic-hamm> (last consultation: 19 June 2015).

2.4. Players' status, contracts and transfers

This fourth sub-section about league-club relationships discusses players and the relationships they have with their clubs. Here, the objective is to demonstrate how the league is involved in these relationships and by what means the league regulates them. In order to do so, we chose seven indicators:

- A. Player contracts – type, duration and salary: does the league issue standard regulations about the type of contract to be used, the minimum or maximum duration of contracts allowed and the minimum or maximum salary for players?
- B. Termination or breach of a player contract: does the league have regulations about termination or breach of a player contract? Are there any specific cases?
- C. Foreign players: are there any league regulations about the number of foreign players in the team or on the pitch?
- D. Home grown players: are there any league regulations about the number of home grown players in the team or on the pitch?
- E. Third-party ownership (TPO): does the league issue regulations allowing or forbidding TPO?
- F. Transfer windows: what are the opening and closing dates of the transfer windows for the divisions surveyed?

A. Player contract – type, duration and salary

Concerning the type of contract, we wanted to know if regulations existed about what has to feature in player contracts for each league surveyed or if there is a standard form to be used by clubs when they conclude a player contract. We did not ask leagues to explain the specifics of what actually has to feature in the contract but only if there are any relevant requirements and which body – league, national association, government, etc. – issues the regulations.

We received six kinds of answers:

- League regulations: regulations concerning player contracts are issued by the league only.
- League/national association mixed regulations: both the league and the national association have requirements or they issue joint regulations about player contracts.
- National association regulations: regulations concerning player contracts are issued by the national association only.

- National/regional public regulations: requirements concerning player contracts follow regulations issued by national or regional government. In some cases, these regulations are sport-specific ones or simply national or regional labour laws.
- FIFA regulations: requirements concerning player contracts follow FIFA regulations but without any significant national specificities.
- No regulation: no specific requirements about player contracts, clubs are free to do as they wish within the limits of labour law.

There are no general trends worth noting across continents, FIFA Ranking or even league model. It is worth specifying that in five leagues – the English Premier League, Ekstraklasa, KPL, A-League and MLS – clubs must use a standard form – an identical contract for every player, with only some details that vary from one player to another (e.g. salary, duration, etc.).

Table n°16: Body issuing regulations about player contracts

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	League	League/national association	National association	National/regional government	FIFA	No regulation	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X					
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)				X			
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)		X					
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)			X				
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)							X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)						X	
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)					X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X						
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)						X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)				X			
	Australia	FFA (A-League)			X				
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)			X				
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)					X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	X						
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)					X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X						
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X				
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)						X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Concerning the duration of a player's contract, only a few leagues indicated specific requirements. Actually, out of the thirteen leagues that answered, only six require clubs to have a minimum and/or maximum contract duration.

Among them, three – the South African NSL, Mexican Liga MX and Jamaican NPL – follow FIFA requirements from the *Regulations on the Status and Transfer of Players* stating that ‘the minimum length of a contract shall be from its effective date until the end of the season, while the maximum length of a contract shall be five years’ (art. 18.2.). It is unclear from the survey responses whether these leagues include all of FIFA's minimum contract requirements as proposed in *FIFA circular no. 1171*. In Poland, a maximum duration appears on the standard contract form issued and regulated by PZPN, the Polish national association. In Ivory Coast, the league requires a minimum contract duration of one year. Finally, in Costa Rica, clubs can hire players for a minimum of one championship – a Costa Rican UNAFUT Primera División season includes two championships, *invierno* (winter) and *verano* (summer) – and a maximum of five seasons.

Table n°17: Limitations on player contract duration (in seasons – s. – or championships – c.)

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Minimum	Maximum	FIFA requirements	No requirement	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)				X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)				X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)				X	
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		5 s.			
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)					X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	1 s.				
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)					X
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)				X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)					X
	Australia	FFA (A-League)				X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)				X	
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)			X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)					X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)			X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	1 c.	5 s.			
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)					X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)				X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

The contract situation in MLS is also worth mentioning. According to the Collective Bargaining Agreement (CBA) in place from 2004-2010, there were at least four types of player contracts: guaranteed, semi-guaranteed, non-guaranteed and non-guaranteed call-up agreements.²⁵ The CBA was renewed in 2010 for four years and few major changes were announced (from which we can deduce that the four types were still in place for the 2010-2014 period). One change that was specified was that all players over age twenty-four with three years' service would have guaranteed contracts and thus no longer run the risk of being waived at any time or before the Contract Guarantee Date.²⁶ As a result, in 2014 the majority of MLS players had guaranteed contracts.

Concerning the regulations on minimum or maximum salary, we received three kinds of answers:

- League or national association regulations: regulations about player salaries are issued by the body managing the division.
- Public law regulations: player contracts must respect the regulations stipulated in public law about labour contracts.
- No regulations: no regulations issued concerning players' salaries.

The table below presents scenarios for both the presence of regulations on minimum and maximum salary.

As seen here, among the leagues, nearly half of the leagues for which we received information (seven out of fifteen) require that clubs pay a minimum salary, whether this regulation is issued by the league/national association itself or by the government (via legislation). From the detailed or specific information we received, the Spanish league has an agreement with the players' association about a minimum salary. In Germany, Ligaverband regulations state that minimum gross salary must be 50% of the contribution assessment limit for statutory pension insurance.

The three leagues having regulations about maximum player salary are leagues using a salary cap system. However, in all these leagues, there are exceptions to the salary cap rule: in the SPL, the salary cap applies only to local players and there is no maximum salary for foreign ones; in the A-League

25 See sections 18.6 to 18.9 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement between Major League Soccer and Major League Soccer Players' Union, December 1, 2004 – January 31, 2010*, 38-9.

26 MLS Players Union press release, 'MLS Players Union Announces Ratification of New Agreement with Major League Soccer', May 4, 2010.

and MLS, clubs can sign a limited number of players ('marquee' players in the A-League and 'designated' players in MLS) that can earn more than the salary cap limit would normally permit.

Table n°18: Limitations on player salary

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Minimum			Maximum			N/R
			League/nat. assoc.	Public law	No regulation	League/nat. assoc.	Public law	No regulation	
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X				X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X					X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X					X	
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X				X	
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)							X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)			X			X	
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X			X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)			X			X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)			X			X	
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)							X
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X			X			
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)			X	X			
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)			X			X	
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)	X			X			
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)			X			X	
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X					X	
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)							X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)			X			X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

B. Termination or breach of player contract

Many leagues did not reply in detail to this question other than by stating that there were no specific regulations in this area. Several leagues explained that they relied exclusively on the *FIFA Regulations on the Status and Transfer of Players*. One league worth mentioning is MLS since some documentation was available. As mentioned above, MLS had at least four types of the Standard Player Agreement in the 2004-2010 CBA.²⁷ If these categories were not changed, and nothing in the press release in 2010 indicates that they

27 See sections 18.6 to 18.9 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 38-9.

were removed, the conditions for termination were the same in 2014. In the earlier CBA, it was stated that contracts could be terminated by the league for a variety of reasons including inter alia off/on-field misconduct, betting, violating the league's substance abuse policy, being involved in match fixing or giving/receiving bribes, or failing to maintain physical/mental condition necessary as well as in the case that the league might contract.²⁸ A guaranteed contract was the only contract that could not be terminated by MLS 'by virtue solely of the quality of the Player's on-field performance or the fact that the Player may have sustained an injury'.²⁹ The shortest of the four contracts was the non-guaranteed call-up agreement which allowed MLS to sign players to short-term 30-day contracts when necessary and which the league could terminate at 24-hours' notice.³⁰

Within the extensive contractual environment, MLS did provide some compensation including relocation expenses in the case a player was transferred from one MLS club to another and specific travel expenses for a player to return to his home city if his contract was terminated.³¹ Finally, in the case of termination, the CBA provided explicitly that MLS must comply with FIFA regulations regarding the player's international registration and playing rights.³²

C. Foreign players

The next question covers the restriction on foreign players. In Europe the legal environment has drastically changed in the last twenty years since the Bosman decision. This has created a mostly uniform environment on the continent, but it is worthwhile exploring this issue more globally. This subsection examines if leagues restrict clubs from hiring a maximum – or a minimum however unlikely that may be – number of foreign players, or, in other words, if leagues impose quotas.

The table below shows the maximum number of foreign players per club as regulated by the body managing the competition – the league itself or the national association.

It illustrates that confederation differences are particularly pronounced: in UEFA countries, there are no restrictions on the number of foreign players

28 See sections 18.11 and 20.2 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 39-40 and 42-4.

29 See section 18.6 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 38.

30 See section 18.9 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 39.

31 See section 10.12 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 26-7.

32 See section 18.10 of the *Collective Bargaining Agreement*, 39.

allowed; in CAF (Confédération Africaine de Football) countries, five foreign players are allowed and four in AFC, CONCACAF and OFC (Oceania Football Confederation) – apart from the A-League with five foreign players and MLS with eight.

Table n°19: Limitations on number of foreign players per club

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	No maximum	Max. 4	Max. 5	Max. 8	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X				
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X				
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X				
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X				
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)					X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)			X		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)			X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)		X			
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X			
	Australia	FFA (A-League)			X		
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)		X			
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X			
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)				X	
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X			
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X			
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AEA (Primera División)					X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X			

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Three AFC leagues – the I-League, J. League and SPL – allow four foreign players according to AFC regulations (AFC 2014: 40). To be more precise, these leagues allow three foreign players and one foreign player coming from an AFC country. With this rule, AFC could be seen to be attempting to promote the development of Asian players. In one further specific case, the SPL requires that all goalkeepers must be of Saudi Arabian nationality.

MLS has specific regulations on the nationality of players. The *2014 MLS Roster Rules and Regulations* stipulate that ‘in 2014, a total of 152 international slots are divided among the 19 clubs. Each club began with eight international slots, which are tradable. There is no limit on the number of international slots

on each club's roster'.³³ Initially, then, MLS clubs are allowed to hire eight foreign players. However, since slots for foreign players are tradable, clubs can end up actually signing more or less than the initial eight foreign players slots. The restriction concerns more the league as whole rather than individual clubs, since all players are in fact under contract with the league and not with the clubs.

D. Home grown players

In the absence of foreign player quotas, some leagues use home grown player rules as a different means to arrive at a somewhat similar end. Regulations regarding home grown players are proclaimed by leagues or national associations as mechanisms to promote the development of locally trained players. According to such rules, leagues and national associations require clubs to have a minimum number of players who have been trained at the club or at another club from the country of the league. In the leagues studied here, these kind of specific regulations are very unusual with exception of several European countries.³⁴ Both the English Premier League and German Ligaverband have regulations on home grown players:

- In the English Premier League, clubs must have at least eight home grown players on a roster of a maximum of 25 players.
- In Germany, clubs must also have at least eight home grown players in their team, with a further restriction that, of these eight home grown players, at least four must have been trained at the club in which they play.

Polish clubs are required to follow the same rule as the English with at least eight home grown players out of the 25 total players per team. The three European leagues follow the UEFA definition of a home grown player:

UEFA defines locally-trained or 'home-grown' players as those who, regardless of their nationality, have been trained by their club or by another club in the same national association for at least three years between the age of 15 and 21.³⁵

It is worth noting that home grown players in English Premier League clubs can come from both English or Welsh clubs (The Football Association Premier League Limited 2013: 83). Perhaps surprisingly, the Spanish have no explicit rules in place.

33 <https://web.archive.org/web/20140702232038/http://pressbox.mlssoccer.com/content/rosterulesandregulations> (last consultation: 29 May 2015)

34 We have no data from Morocco, Japan, Jamaica and Argentina on this question.

35 <http://www.uefa.com/news/newsid=943393.html> (last consultation: 29 May 2015)

MLS is a strong importer of foreign talent with 39% of its players coming from outside Canada and the USA.³⁶ However, it also has some measures to encourage the development of home grown players. The home grown option in MLS is a way for clubs to develop their own players without the risk of losing them to another club through the league's draft system. MLS clubs may sign a player to his first professional contract if the player has trained for at least one year in the club's youth development program and has trained 80 days with the academy during that year.³⁷

When considering the global football labour market it is unsurprising to see that regions which export significant numbers of players do not have regulations to support the development of home grown players. On the other hand, European leagues import significant percentages of players from abroad and this creates a climate in which the debate centres on the development of a country's own national player base. For the 2013/14 season foreign players represented 63% of all players in the English Premier League and 41% in Bundesliga.³⁸ Hence the presence of 'home grown' player rules. While the debate and impact of such policies is beyond the scope of this research, it is interesting to note recent research demonstrating that the number of home grown players in European teams has actually gone down over the last five years.³⁹

E. Third-party ownership

TPO is described by FIFA the following way: 'Third-party ownership, or TPO, refers to the circumstances in which a third party invests in the economic rights of a professional player, potentially in order to receive a share of the value of any future transfer of that player'.⁴⁰ This subsection examines which leagues are already following FIFA's recommendations regarding the

36 MLS World Map - Players by birthplace 2014, https://web.archive.org/web/20140810012735/http://pressbox.mlssoccer.com/sites/g/files/g211536/f/201405/MLS%20World%20Map_Pressbox.pdf#overlay-context=content/media-resources (last consultation: 18 June 2015)

37 <http://pressbox.mlssoccer.com/content/roster-rules-and-regulations> (last consultation: 26 May 2015)

38 These percentages come from the 2013/14 season. See the CIES Football Observatory for more information at <http://www.football-observatory.com/Indicators>.

39 See CIES Football Observatory Monthly Report of November 2015, <http://www.football-observatory.com/IMG/sites/mr/mr09/en/> (last consultation: 14 December 2015)

40 <http://www.fifa.com/governance/news/y=2014/m=9/news=working-group-on-third-party-ownership-holds-first-meeting-2435566.html> (last consultation: 29 May 2015)

restriction of TPO. The results of the survey and which leagues currently ban TPO are presented in the table below.

Overall, only a slight majority of leagues that answered the question (seven out of thirteen) follow article 18bis of FIFA's *Regulations on the Status and Transfer of Players*, which states that

[n]o club shall enter into a contract which enables any other party to that contract or any third party to acquire the ability to influence in employment and transfer-related matters its independence, its policies or the performance of its teams.

Most leagues that explicitly prohibit TPO are based in Asia or in Europe (except Spain), while those where there are no restrictions per se were principally on the other continents. However a European generalization cannot necessarily be inferred as illustrated in an EPFL (European Professional Football Leagues) survey from 2012. Only four European leagues had specific rules prohibiting TPO while thirteen other leagues only had some measures to restrict third-party influence (EPFL 2012: 22-6).

Table n°20: TPO regulations

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	TPO prohibited	No restriction	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X		
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)		X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)			X
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)			X
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X		
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	X		
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)			X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X	
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X	
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

F. Transfer windows

The following tables (21-23) show the transfer windows according to the championship calendar. There are three types of calendars for the championships surveyed here:⁴¹

- Dual-year championships: championships beginning in one year and ending in the following year.
- Calendar-year championships: championships taking place almost entirely in the same calendar year.
- Other championships: the Argentinian Primera División is a specific case because the championship beginning in 2014 was a transitional one and lasted only one semester, from the middle of the year to the end of the year.

We compared the transfer windows taking place at the beginning and at the middle of each championship. Since the 2014 Argentinian competition had no middle transfer window, we took into account the transfer windows at the beginning and at the end of the championship. There are some general trends but interestingly, no clear north-south hemisphere divisions. Of the three southern hemisphere countries, two (South Africa and Australia) operated dual-year competitions and only Argentina ran a transitional championship since the country was moving from a dual-year to a calendar year one as of 2015. In the tables below the bars represent the number of weeks and the numbers represent the number of days per period. A bar may indicate a different number of days although the number of weeks – represented by the length of the bar – appears the same (i.e. England, Spain and Germany). This is due to the fact that a bar can contain an entire week if the transfer period covered at least four days of that week; three days or less and that week was not counted. The bars are designed to provide a general visual comparison; the numbers provide the exact totals.

As seen in the first table, the three major European championships surveyed (England, Spain and Germany) have the same periods for the transfer windows. The South African transfer windows also take place exactly at the same time. Apart from these four leagues, no other championships share the exact same transfer windows. The first transfer window usually begins before the beginning of a championship and ends slightly after a competition's start, while the second one takes place in the middle of the championship. The

41 For the information missing from the questionnaires we obtained the detailed periods from FIFA TMS (Transfer Matching System).

transfer window dates are dependent on the championship's start dates and the date of the half-season break (if there is one). For example, Ekstraklasa's second transfer window takes place later than other championships because the championship has a longer winter break. Similarly, the Australian A-League mid-season transfer window starts later than any others because the championship begins in October while most others begin in August.

Similarly to the dual-year championships, any differences between transfer window dates for the calendar-year competitions are due to differences in the championships' starting and end dates.

As previously explained the 2014 Argentinian Primera División is a specific case because it was a transitional championship and lasted only a half year.

Apart from the fact that Asian leagues had the longest transfer periods in 2013/14 and UEFA championships had similar durations (placed fifth to eighth in an descending order), there are no other significant observations, either from a confederation perspective, league model or from the FIFA Ranking point of view.

Figure n°10: Duration of transfer periods (number of days during one season)

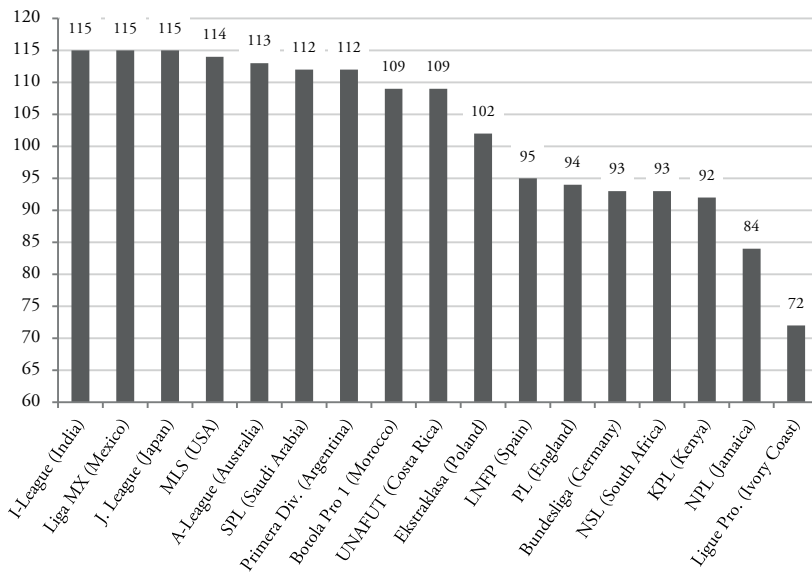


Table n°21: Transfer windows – dual-year championships

Month and year	June 2013	July 2013	Aug. 2013	Sept. 2013	Oct. 2013	Nov. 2013	Dec. 2013	Jan. 2014	Feb. 2014	Total # of days
Week	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
PL (England)			64 days					30 days		94
LNFP (Spain)			62					33		95
Bundesliga (Germany)			62					31		93
Ekstraklasa (Poland)		74							28	102
Borla Pro 1 (Morocco)			81				28			109
Ligue Pro. (Ivory Coast)				54					18	72
NSL (South Africa)			62					31		93
I-League (India)		84							31	115
A-League (Australia)				84				29		113
SPL (Saudi Arabia)			82				30			112
Liga MX (Mexico)		84						31		115
NPL (Jamaica)			54					30		84
UNAFUT (Costa Rica)			80					29		109

Table n°22: Transfer windows – calendar-year championships

Month and year	Dec. 2013	Jan. 2014	Feb. 2014	March 2014	April 2014	May 2014	June 2014	July 2014	Aug. 2014	Total # of days
Week	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
KPL (Kenya)		62					30			92
J. League (Japan)			84						31	115
MLS (USA)				84				30		114

Table n°23: Transfer windows – Argentina

Month and year	Jul. 2014	August 2014	Sept. 2014	October 2014	Nov. 2014	December 2014	January 2015	Feb. 15	
Week	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Total # of days
Primera Div. (Argentina)		84					28	112	

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

2.5. Facilities: rights and obligations

This sub-section studies the league regulations governing the relationships between a club and its stadium. In this sub-section, three indicators have been chosen:

- A. Ownership of the stadium: do clubs have to own the stadium in which they play?
- B. Minimum capacity: does the league require clubs to play in a stadium having a minimum capacity?
- C. Security and responsibility: which body (league, club, other) is responsible for the security in the stadium?

A. Ownership of the stadium

Among the leagues surveyed in this research, only the SPL gives clear requirements about stadia ownership since all facilities are owned by the Saudi government through the General Presidency of Youth and Welfare.⁴² In other countries, clubs may or may not own the stadium they are playing in. However, like in the following example, most leagues ask clubs to have a legal agreement with the body managing the stadium. For example, the English Premier League *Rules* state that ‘each Club shall either have own its ground and training facilities or have a legally enforceable agreement with its owner for its use by the Club, expiring not earlier than the end of the current Season’ (The Football Association Premier League Limited 2013: 130). In many cases, regulations do not exist or they state that there is no requirement for clubs to be the owner (or not) of the stadium. Nonetheless, some countries have similar approaches:

- In Poland, most Ekstraklasa stadia are owned by municipalities or regional governments.
- In Kenya, most KPL stadia are owned by local or national government.
- In Australia, no regulation exists, but A-League stadia are not owned by the clubs and are usually multiple sports facilities.
- In MLS, there is no publicly available regulation either, but the league tries to encourage clubs to have their own stadia. In 2014, seven clubs owned their own stadium, ten facilities were owned by local authorities (city or regional government) and two clubs played in mixed ownership stadia (Conventions, Sports & Leisure International, Integra Realty Resources and The Robert Bobb Group 2014: Appendix A, A-1-A-33).

42 We have no data concerning Morocco or Argentina.

B. Minimum capacity

With this indicator, we wanted to compare the regulations governing the capacity of the stadia in the leagues surveyed. However, since leagues including several divisions sometimes have different requirements for each division – for example, in Spain, LNFP requires Primera División stadia to have minimum capacity of 15'000 while Segunda División ones must have minimum capacity of 6'000 – we only compared requirements for top tier divisions. If most leagues have some specific information (ten out of sixteen leagues that replied), some do not have any regulations about the minimum capacity of their stadia.

Table n°24: Stadia minimum capacity

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Min. capacity	No regulation	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	15'000		
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	15'000		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	4'500		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)	500		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)		X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	5'000		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	15'000		
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	5'000		
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	20'000		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)		X	
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	1'500		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)		X	
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)	25'000		
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X	

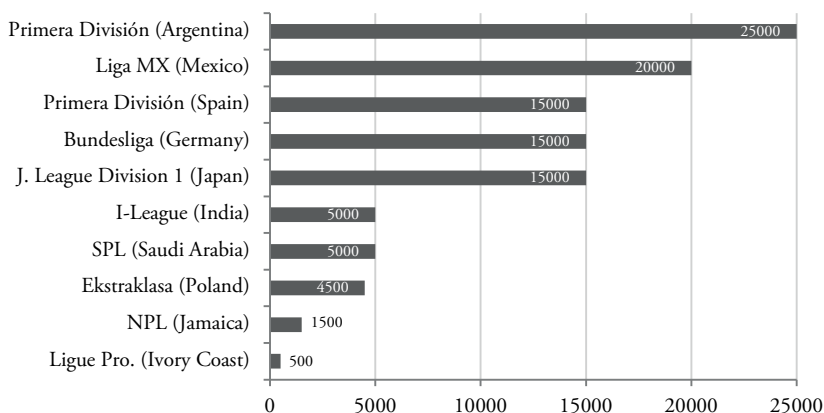
(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Apart from J. League Division 1, all divisions that have a high minimum capacity (15'000 or more) are first divisions from countries in the group ranked one to twenty in the FIFA Ranking. It is also interesting to note that the two divisions having the highest minimum capacity regulations are divisions from

Latin American countries where football is a very popular sport – Argentina and Mexico. Equally worth of note is the lack of any minimum for traditional football countries like England where football there has benefitted from large capacity stadia for more than one-hundred years and the strong demand for the sport probably makes any minimum capacity regulation unnecessary.

Of the divisions requiring a smaller minimum capacity, two AFC top tier divisions – I-League and SPL – require a minimum capacity of 5'000. According to information provided by SPL, this is because AFC requires stadia to have a minimum 5'000 capacity in order to take part in AFC competitions (AFC 2011: 24).

Figure n°11: Minimum capacity regulations for top tier divisions



C. Security and responsibility

For a large majority of cases, clubs are responsible for guaranteeing stadium security.⁴³ Exceptions include only Ivory Coast (where the Ligue Professionnelle is responsible in partnership with local authorities), South Africa (where clubs, league and stadium owners are all responsible) and Papua New Guinea (where the NSL is responsible for stadium security). In Australia, stadium security is managed according to an agreement between the clubs and stadium owners.

43 We have no data concerning Morocco, USA and Argentina.

2.6. *The promotion/relegation process – closed league admission criteria*

From a governance perspective it is the existing regulatory framework that outlines the process by which clubs are allowed to participate in league competitions. For example, article 9 of the *FIFA Statutes* lists a number of criteria for participation in league competitions of which promotion and relegation are the core concepts. However, this framework is broad covering ‘sporting, infrastructural, administrative, legal and financial considerations’ (FIFA 2015a: 66). Aside from a general principle of subsidiarity (national associations are responsible for deciding national issues), the existing criteria do not specifically address the situation of ‘closed leagues’ so there is a gap in the existing regulatory framework, something which this section explores.

This sub-section contains two parts. The first one concerns leagues using the most common competition format in the football world, the promotion/relegation one, while the second one studies leagues using the rarer ‘closed league’ format. For each part, here are the indicators we analysed:

Promotion/relegation format:

- A. Promotion/relegation processes
- B. Body issuing criteria for promotion/relegation
- C. Assistance or parachute payments to relegated teams

Closed league format:

- D. Criteria for entering the league

A. Promotion/relegation processes

Most leagues here use a promotion/relegation system in which teams move up or down from one division to another. In some cases, the process is simple – worst ranked teams at the end of the season are replaced by the best ranked teams from the lower division – while in other cases playoffs or even calculation of the average number of points per season are used to decide which teams are promoted or relegated.

The table below shows the processes used for promotion/relegation between the highest and the second highest divisions for each country surveyed. This table only shows countries where promotion/relegation processes are used; ‘closed leagues’ cases (A-League, MLS and Papua New Guinea’s NSL) will be discussed later.

Table n°25: Promotion/relegation processes⁴⁴

Conf.	Country	Promoted to/ relegated from: division (league)	Promoted from/ relegated to: division (league)	Number of clubs promoted/ relegated	Process
UEFA	England	The Premier League	Championship (The Football League)	3	- 3 last Premier League teams relegated - 2 first Champ. teams promoted - playoffs between Champ. teams ranked 3 to 6
	Spain	Primera División (LNFP)	Segunda División (LNFP)	3	- 3 last Primera D. teams relegated - 2 first Segunda D. teams promoted - playoffs between Segunda División teams ranked 3 to 6
	Germany	Bundesliga (Ligaverband)	2. Bundesliga (Ligaverband)	2 or 3	- 2 last Bundesliga teams relegated - 2 first 2. Bundesliga teams promoted - playoffs between 16 th Bundesliga and 3 rd 2. Bundesliga teams
	Poland	Ekstraklasa	I Liga (PZPN)	2	- relegation round between the last 8 teams in Ekstraklasa with bottom two relegated - 2 first I Liga teams promoted
CAF	Morocco	Botola Pro (FRMF)	Botola 2 (FRMF)	2	- 2 last Botola Pro teams relegated - 2 first Botola 2 teams promoted
	Ivory Coast	Ligue 1 (Ligue Professionnelle)	Ligue 2 (Ligue Professionnelle)	2	- 2 last Ligue 1 teams relegated - first team of each Ligue 2 group promoted
	South Africa	PSL (NSL)	NFD (NSL)	1 or 2	- last PSL team relegated - first NFD team promoted - playoffs between 15 th PSL, 2 nd and 3 rd NFD teams
	Kenya	KPL	NSL (FKF)	2	- 2 last KPL teams relegated - first team of each NSL group promoted
AFC	India	I-League (AIFF)	2 nd Division League (AIFF)	4 relegated/ 1 promoted/ 1 new team	- last I-League team relegated - 3 I-League teams excluded/relegated for non-sporting reasons - a five-team playoff between 2 first teams from both groups of 2 nd Division League and the team relegated the prior season from I-League
	Japan	J. League Division 1 (J. League)	J. League Division 2 (J. League)	3	- 3 last J. League Division 1 teams relegated - 2 first eligible J. League Division 2 teams promoted - playoffs between 3 subsequently eligible J. League Division 2
	Saudi Arabia	SPL	SFD (SPL)	2	- 2 last SPL teams relegated - 2 first SFD teams promoted
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX	Ascenso MX	1	- Liga MX team having the worst average number of points per game for the last 3 seasons relegated - winner of playoffs between the winners from both Ascenso MX tournaments (Apertura/Clausura) promoted
	Jamaica	NPL (PFAJ)	4 regional divisions (managed by regional associations)	2	- 2 last NPL teams relegated - playoffs between first teams from each regional division, 2 first teams promoted
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT Primera División (UNAFUT)	Liga de Ascenso (LIASCE)	1	- team with the lowest accumulated number of points from both tournaments (Invierno/Verano) relegated - winner of the final between both Liga de Ascenso tournament winners (Apertura/Clausura) promoted
CONMEBOL	Argentina*	Primera División (AFA)	No relegation	10 (promotion only)	- no relegation - 10 clubs promoted: 3 first clubs and 2 first clubs of the playoffs between clubs ranked 3 rd to 6 th of Primera B Nacional zone A and 4 first clubs and winner of the playoffs between clubs ranked 5 th and 6 th of Primer B Nacional zone B

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

*Argentinian Primera División 2014 was a transitional competition

44 If the league's name is different from the division's one, it is indicated in parenthesis.

Of the promotion/relegation procedures presented in the table above, further clarifications should be made about the cases in India, Japan and Argentina:

- In India's I-League, three clubs were excluded because they failed to meet AIFF club licensing criteria.⁴⁵
- Japan's J. League regulations stipulate that clubs competing for promotion to J. League Division 1 must be eligible for it. This means that clubs must meet the non-sporting criteria required by J. League to compete in J. League Division 1. Consequently, if the winner of J. League Division 2 is not eligible, the clubs ranked second and third will be promoted, and so forth.
- In Argentina, there was no relegation after the 2014 Torneo de Transición because AFA decided to change the format of the tournament for the following season: from 2015, it will include 30 teams. As such, none of the twenty teams were relegated and ten teams were promoted from Primera B Nacional.

As the Indian case shows, similar to other domestic licensing programmes around the world, teams can be relegated or excluded from a competition because of non-sporting criteria. Most of the leagues studied here answered that relegation for non-sporting causes was possible in their competitions. The majority gave the example of the refusal/withdrawal of the club licence.

The club licence is a certificate, granted by the league or the national association, which gives clubs the right to take part in the competition organised by the league or the national association. The club licence is independent from the sporting results obtained during the previous season. For example, if the club that wins the competition does not obtain its licence for the following season, it will not have the right to defend its title and will have to compete in a lower division. To cite an example, *J. League Club Licensing Regulations* require clubs to meet the following criteria (J. League 2014) which reflect the five general categories in FIFA and AFC club licensing:

- Sporting criteria: not related to results but rather to the existence of an academy, amateur/youth, women's teams, etc.
- Infrastructure criteria: stadium and training facilities.
- Personnel and administrative criteria: club staff and organisation.
- Legal criteria: legal requirements for the club.
- Financial criteria: financial requirements for the clubs.

45 <http://www.theshillongtimes.com/2014/05/22/fans-lament-rufc-exclusion-2/> (last consultation: 3 June 2014)

It must also be noted that Ivory Coast's Ligue Professionnelle was the only league which stated that criteria for promotion/relegation were only related to the ranking at the end of the season and that there were no non-sporting criteria.

B. Promotion/relegation: body issuing criteria for promotion/relegation

With this indicator, we wanted to identify which body is responsible for issuing the sporting and non-sporting criteria related to promotion/relegation. Actually, when we study the different promotion/relegation procedures, it is possible that two – or more – different bodies are involved in the selection of criteria because promotion/relegation often concerns two competitions that are not necessarily governed by the same body. For example, in England, the Premier League and the Championship – the two top divisions – are not managed by the same organisation. In other cases, it is also possible that a national association is also involved, since it is the supreme body governing football in the country.

The simplest cases are the ones where the national association manages all football competitions in a country. In these cases, logically, the national association is the only body responsible for promotion/relegation criteria. This is the case in Ivory Coast, India, Saudi Arabia and Argentina.⁴⁶

When the two top tier divisions are managed by the same league – which is not dependent on the national association, the criteria are decided by the league. This is the case in Spain (LNFP), Germany (Ligaverband) and South Africa (NSL). Among these three, two leagues – LNFP and NSL – explained that the criteria must be approved nonetheless by the national association.⁴⁷

The table below shows only cases where the two top tier divisions are managed by different bodies. We can see in the table that the responsibility for defining promotion/relegation criteria, when concerning divisions governed by different bodies, is managed differently in each case. In England, it is the Premier League that decides but it needs the approval of the national association (through the 'special share' owned by that latter) and must find an agreement with the league governing the second division. In Poland, due to the specific governance model, PZPN is the only body deciding the criteria and the league has no say in the matter.⁴⁸ In Kenya, since FKF (Football

⁴⁶ We have no data for Morocco.

⁴⁷ We have no data for Japan.

⁴⁸ The national association is responsible for all regulations concerning sporting matters.

Kenya Federation) manages the second division, both the league and the national association decide on the criteria. In Mexico, criteria are decided by both Liga MX and Ascenso MX, the two leagues managing the two Mexican top tier divisions. In Costa Rica, only UNAFUT, the body governing the top tier division decides on these criteria. However, the national association has a say as well, because it is the body responsible for issuing the club licenses.

Table n°26: Bodies responsible for promotion/relegation criteria

Confederation	Country	Top tier div. managing body	Second tier div. managing body	Responsible for promotion/relegation criteria		
				Top tier division	Second tier division	National association
UEFA	England	The Premier League	The Football League	X	X	X
	Poland	Ekstraklasa	PZPN			X
CAF	Kenya	KPL	FKF	X		X
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX	Ascenso MX	X	X	
	Jamaica	PFAJ	JFF			X
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT	LIASCE	X		X

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

C. Promotion/relegation: assistance or parachute payments to relegated teams

In order to assist in the clubs' budgetary transition related to relegation, some leagues or national associations grant relegated clubs financial assistance, usually called parachute payments. However, according to the answers we received, only a minority of top tier football governing bodies actually do so. This is only the case in England, Spain and Ivory Coast.⁴⁹ For example, in England, relegated clubs from the Premier League to the Championship

receive the following fees:

D.28.1. in the first Season after being relegated, a sum equivalent to 55% of 1 share of each of the Basic Award Fund and Overseas Broadcasting Money;⁵⁰

⁴⁹ We have no data for Morocco, Jamaica and Argentina.

⁵⁰ The 'Basic Award Fund' represents half of the 'UK Broadcasting Money' redistributed by the league to the clubs. Each Premier League club receives one share of that fund.

D.28.2. in the second Season after being relegated, a sum equivalent to 45% of 1 share of each of the Basic Award Fund and Overseas Broadcasting Money; and

D.28.3. in each of the third and fourth Seasons after being relegated, a sum equivalent to 25% of 1 share of each of the Basic Award Fund and Overseas Broadcasting Money (The Football Association Premier League Limited 2013: 102).

Costa Rica is a specific case because clubs in the UNAFUT Primera División which do not qualify for the playoffs – clubs ranked from fifth to twelfth after the regular season – share 10% of all playoff ticketing revenue.

D. Closed leagues: criteria for entering the league

Contrary to leagues with promotion/relegation, where the first and most important criterion to enter the league is sporting performance, this is not necessarily the case in closed leagues. Newly founded clubs can enter the league and other existing clubs may disappear or relocate. For example, in the transition between the 2014 and 2015 MLS seasons, Orlando City SC and newly created New York City FC joined MLS while Chivas USA folded with the franchise being sold to a new investor-operator group that will begin competing in 2018. The following points explain, for each closed league included in the study – Australia's A-League, USA/Canada's MLS and Papua New Guinea's NSL, what the criteria for entering the league are:

- In Australia, there is no invitation or application to join the league. It is FFA – which manages A-League – which decides if, in a specific city or region, there is a football and commercial case for expanding the league. Three initial criteria are fundamental for considering an expansion:

- The general population base
- The football participation (registered football players in the area)
- The proper football development market

Then, if a place is identified which satisfies these criteria, FFA would enquire if any operators, a consortium or a possible owner could demonstrate that they have the capital to invest and run a club. It is also possible that FFA set up and run a club until other applicants are found – this was the case for Western Sydney Wanderers. In short, it varies from case to case.

- In MLS, the decision to expand the league to new clubs is made by the league. In 2013, six major criteria were taken into account to envisage league expansion:

- Committed and engaged ownership
- A comprehensive stadium plan

- Demonstrated fan support for professional soccer in the market
- Support from sponsors, television partners and other constituents
- Geographic location
- A strategic business plan for the launch and successful operation of the club⁵¹

If the league is willing to expand the number of clubs, future club investors will have to find a location fulfilling all these requirements. However, these criteria are somewhat flexible. MLS has repeatedly stated the requirement for a stadium plan for Miami's bid.⁵² However, New York City FC was awarded a franchise without a defined long-term stadium plan.⁵³

– In Papua New Guinea, clubs must apply if they want to enter the league. Criteria are fixed by the board of the league and only clubs satisfying these criteria are allowed to enter the league.

2.7. *Disciplinary regulations*

In order to compare league disciplinary regulations, we chose two indicators:

- A. Responsibility for general disciplinary procedure: which body (league or national association) is responsible for dealing with general disciplinary procedures (first and second instance procedures)?
- B. Compliance with FIFA regulations about not taking a dispute to ordinary courts and the recognition of CAS (Court of Arbitration for Sport) (FIFA 2015a: 47-49).

A. Responsibility for general disciplinary procedures

For most football governing organisations (leagues or national associations), there is a usual procedure of dealing with disciplinary matters. It usually consists of recourse to a disciplinary committee (first instance) and then, if necessary, to an appeal committee (second instance). In some cases, when the disciplinary case does not concern serious misconduct (e.g. on field usual misconduct), a preliminary decision is taken by another body: a commission, a single judge or

51 <http://pressbox.mlssoccer.com/content/major-league-soccer-add-four-teams-2020> (last consultation: 4 June 2015)

52 <http://www.mlssoccer.com/news/article/2014/07/29/miamiexpansionbidhingesdowntownstadiummlscom> missionerdongarbertell (last consultation: 22 May 2015).

53 <http://www.mlssoccer.com/news/article/2013/05/21/majorleaguesoccerannouncesnewyorkexpansionteam> newyorkcityfootball (last consultation: 23 May 2015).

even the executive committee. Without going too much into detail about each league's specific procedure, we tried to identify, for each league, the usual procedure and the major disciplinary bodies. The objective here is to understand which governing body (league or national association) is in charge of disciplinary matters concerning the league. There are three usual models:

- League responsibility: the league is responsible for both first and second instance procedures.
- National association responsibility: the national association is responsible for both first and second instance procedures.
- Mixed responsibility: in the usual mixed responsibility model, the league is responsible for the first instance while the national association is responsible for procedures at the second instance. However, in some cases, mixed responsibility can be organised in a more specific way, for instance depending on the nature of the dispute (e.g. sporting and non-sporting). The table below shows which model is used in each league surveyed.

Table n°27: Disciplinary procedure responsibility

			League	National association	Mixed	N/R
Confederation	Country	League (championship)				
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X			
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)	X			
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)			X	
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)			X	
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)				X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)		X		
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)			X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)			X	
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)		X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)	X			
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X		
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)		X		
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)		X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)				X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)		X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X			
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)		X		
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)		X		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

It can be seen in the table that the most frequent case is the one where the national association is responsible for disciplinary procedures with eight out of sixteen leagues for which we managed to obtain information. However, this result is easily explainable by the fact that in many of these cases the national association manages the league – Ivory Coast, India, Australia, Saudi Arabia, Argentina and Papua New Guinea. It is more surprising for Mexican Liga MX, but it is possible that the national association manages one or several fields of a league's operations, in this case the disciplinary procedure. In Jamaica, since the league is a company owned jointly by the club association and by the national association, it seems logical that some fields are entirely managed by the JFF. Concerning the four leagues managing the entire disciplinary procedure on their own, it is unsurprising to note that they are largely independent leagues.

Finally, for the cases of mixed responsibility, the league manages the first instance while the national association manages the second one in Poland, South Africa and Kenya. In Germany, the situation is specific since all procedures concerning club licensing regulations are managed by the league, while other procedures are dealt with by the national association.

B. FIFA disciplinary regulations: recourse to ordinary courts and recognition of CAS

This part explores what provisions leagues have in place regarding disputes, the recourse to a public court and the requirement for the recognition of CAS. The first table below shows if leagues have a provision for FIFA's rule prohibiting taking cases to public courts and the second one covers the recognition of CAS. An important caveat should be mentioned: FIFA regulations specify that recourse to public courts is prohibited 'unless specifically provided for' (FIFA 2015a: 49). Consequently, there is a certain degree of flexibility to accommodate national specificities and respect the national legal frameworks.

Among the thirteen leagues which answered the question, a large majority of leagues – nine – prohibits their members from resorting to public courts.

Table n°28: Prohibition against recourse to public courts

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Prohibition against recourse to public courts	No prohibition	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)		X	
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)		X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)		X	
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)			X
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)		X	
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)		X	
	Australia	FFA (A-League)	X		
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)			X
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)			X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X		
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)	X		
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)	X		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Of the leagues that do not specifically prohibit recourse to a public court, the English Premier League explained that ‘under the law of England and Wales, it is not possible to prohibit access to the court. However, what the law will recognise is a properly constituted arbitration tribunal, which complies with the law relating to arbitration’.⁵⁴ In Poland, Ekstraklasa stated that resort to public courts is actually mandatory in order to comply with Polish labour law. The South African NSL answered that no recourse to public courts is allowed unless all internal remedies have been exhausted. Finally, the J. League stated that there is no article in their statutes that prohibits members against recourse to public courts.

54 E-mail correspondence with The Premier League, 27 April 2015.

Table n°29: Recognition of CAS

Confederation	Country	League (championship)	Recognition of CAS	Specific	N/R
UEFA	England	The Premier League (The Premier League)	X		
	Spain	LNFP (Primera División)		X	
	Germany	Ligaverband (Bundesliga)	X		
	Poland	Ekstraklasa (Ekstraklasa)	X		
CAF	Morocco	FRMF (Botola Pro)			X
	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle (Ligue 1)			X
	South Africa	NSL (PSL)	X		
	Kenya	KPL (KPL)	X		
AFC	India	AIFF (I-League)	X		
	Japan	J. League (J. League Division 1)			X
	Australia	FFA (A-League)		X	
	Saudi Arabia	SPL (SPL)	X		
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX (Liga MX)	X		
	USA/Canada	MLS (MLS)			X
	Jamaica	PFAJ (NPL)	X		
	Costa Rica	UNAFUT (UNAFUT Primera División)	X		
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA (Primera División)			X
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA (NSL)	X		

(In white: FIFA Ranking 1-20; in light grey: FIFA Ranking 21-80; in dark grey: FIFA Ranking 81-209)

Here again and even more so than for the prior question, a large majority of leagues comply with FIFA regulations and recognise CAS – eleven out of thirteen leagues. Only the Spanish LNFP and Australian A-League, did not state that they recognise CAS as the supreme arbitration body for their league. This can be explained by the fact that both leagues actually have their own national arbitration court, which is the supreme arbitration body for disciplinary matters concerning their league. One final interesting case is in regards to the SPL. While CAS is recognized, if both parties are Saudis then before taking their case to CAS they have to ask permission from the SAFF general secretary as per the statutes of SAFF. However, if one party is non-Saudi, it can go directly to CAS after the SAFF appeal committee decision.

3. Summary – balance of power, influence and decision-making

As seen in this chapter, the balance between clubs and leagues is a complex one. Across the eighteen countries surveyed, the situation is vastly different. Nonetheless, there are some general observations that can be made.

In the area of ownership it is unsurprising perhaps to find that the leagues studied here are split between requiring a specific company structure and allowing clubs to choose their own form. Multiple ownership of clubs is fairly widely restricted at least in some manner. There are few guidelines as to how clubs should operate at the director level as this is an area left to the clubs to manage themselves. While there are some provisions for owner suspension there is no universal approach at league level globally. Overall, in regards to ownership the reality is as diverse as can be, even across league structural models (association model and separate entity model).

Representation at league level is also diverse but there are some strong parallels between the countries studied. Most leagues have similar structures in place with specific leadership roles (president, CEO, chairman) and bodies (general assemblies and executive committees). In most leagues clubs have the large majority of voting power and representation in comparison with the national association or other stakeholders.

In terms of finances, some leagues require a club participation fee but few leagues ask that clubs provide a portion of their revenues to the league. The large majority of leagues negotiate their media/broadcast rights collectively but the redistribution mechanisms vary significantly in the way they share this income. Most leagues also exercise some level of control on club finances.

There are no real global trends in terms of player contracts. There are no standard approaches to types and duration of contracts and most do not have any regulations on salary limitations. It is rather the exceptions that stand out here. A handful of leagues apply salary limitations; unsurprisingly, two of the three exceptions come from countries where the league is a closed one and has some degree of monopoly on the player labour market. There are significant continental differences on the restrictions on the number of foreign players (present everywhere but Europe) and the promotion of home grown player policies (principally found in Europe or leagues which try to attract foreign talent but also actively provide opportunities for local talent development such as the SPL or MLS). Transfer windows vary greatly from

one country to the next and TPO restrictions also differ with some areas promoting this more aggressively than others (Asia and Europe).

Regarding facilities there are few explicit league regulations on stadia ownership or management other than the existence of a club-stadium owner agreement. There is a wide variety in stadia ownership ranging from public to private to mixed and a multiplicity of minimum capacities. In most leagues clubs are responsible for security in their stadia.

Promotion and relegation is the most common competition structure but these mechanisms operate within a significant range of diversity (e.g. direct accession, playoffs, and aggregated results). Most leagues have non-sporting conditions that play a role in whether clubs can participate in their competitions. However, different bodies are responsible for these criteria, in some cases the league, in others the national association. Despite a majority of leagues operating promotion and relegation, few leagues actually provide any financial support to clubs going down. Lastly, only a few leagues run closed or franchise-based systems and the entry criteria are not laid out in detail publicly (aside from general principles such as financial support, a market base and basic infrastructure requirements).

In the final area, disciplinary, it is mainly the national association that is responsible for defining and managing these procedures. In most cases, leagues apply the principles found in the *FIFA Statutes*.

Overall, then, clubs have quite a strong say in the management and governance of the leagues. Even for leagues that are run from the national association, many of the governance structures internally (executive committee, general assembly) are dominated by club votes. This is valid across continents, FIFA country rankings and structural models. The few areas clubs have little hold on, however, are disciplinary and promotion/relegation. It is only in more independent leagues (separate entity ones or association model with self-management) where the league, and by extension the clubs, have some control over how promotion/relegation is managed.

Now that we have explored some of the frontiers between league and club rights and responsibilities, we can turn to a more focused analysis of internal club governance. The following chapter presents some global perspectives on what kind of governance structures can be found in clubs.

III. Internal club governance

After having studied the relationship between clubs and their leagues – or, in some cases, the national association – this chapter discusses the internal governance of clubs. As this is a broad topic, we chose five main categories for this exploratory global comparative study:

- Legal form and ownership structure: we asked clubs to provide information about their legal form, ownership structure, distribution of shares and overall club structure.
- Political representation and management: similarly for the leagues this point covers club officials (president, executive committee members, general assembly members), if they represent any particular body, how the voting power is structured.
- Administrative structure: this includes information about the number of employees in a club and the different departments in which they are working.
- Role of supporters: this point examines if clubs have particular links with their supporters, if the supporters have responsibilities in some areas of club organisation and if they have any decision-making power in club management.
- Role of community: the last category reviews the state of the relationship with local authorities and if they have any influence on a club's organisation and management. Equally, we also asked clubs if they have any community support programmes and if they rely on volunteers to assist them in the management of the club and its events.

As explained in the introduction, out of the 141 clubs to which we sent questionnaires, we obtained valid and relevant information for a maximum of 102 clubs. Not all clubs provided information on each question. Thus, some graphs present data for fewer than 102 clubs. Comparisons across some of the topics discussed here remain limited due to the differences in response rate. Where such analysis is possible, we have identified the comparison or contrast. Since the sample is much larger than the previous chapter concerning the leagues, the analysis here is more statistical with few individual examples and principally highlights the trends and differences at confederation and FIFA Ranking levels.

1. Legal form and ownership structure

In this section, three indicators are studied:

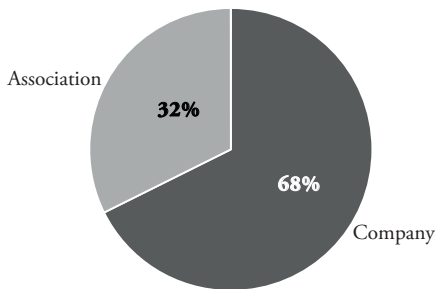
- Club legal form
- Club ownership structure
- Separation of a club's football/professional section from the parent club/amateur section

1.1. Legal form

Of the answers we received from clubs surveyed, there are two major types of legal form:⁵⁵

- Company: the club is organised as a business company. There are different types of companies concerning football clubs.
- Association: the club is organised as an association. In this case, most of the time, football clubs are non-profit associations.

Figure n°12: Legal form of clubs (overall; 102 clubs)



55 We did not receive any answer from MLS about the clubs or responses from the individual clubs. However, contrary to clubs from other countries, some data about MLS is available on the Internet (in addition to club and league websites). For example, the information about the legal form of clubs comes from online state (USA) or province (Canada) corporate registers. Concerning three Argentinian clubs (Club Estudiantes de La Plata, Club Atlético Newell's Old Boys and Club Atlético Tigre), we did not receive any questionnaire answers but we managed to find information about them in their statutes, which were available on their website.

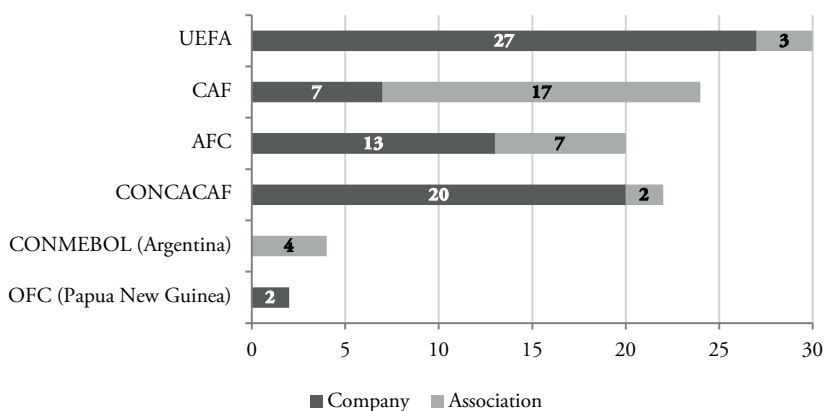
The graph above shows that a large majority of surveyed clubs have the legal form of a company.

The two categories of legal form appearing here are generic categories and clubs can have a different legal form within each category. For example, in some Hispanic countries (Spain and Costa Rica), clubs with the legal form of a company are in fact public limited sports companies (*sociedad anónima deportiva*), a legal form that does not necessarily exist in other countries. Similarly, in Germany, the most commonly found form in clubs is the limited company (GmbH) or another – more unusual – kind of company (e.g. GmbH & Co. KGaA).

It must be noted that these results are, in some cases, influenced by league or national association regulations since in some countries, the organising body requires clubs to have a particular legal form (see chapter II, sub-section 2.1.A.). For example, it is rather logical to have a large majority of companies since in five countries (England, Spain, Poland, Australia and Papua New Guinea) first division clubs must have the legal form of a company – with some statutory exceptions in Spain.

Similarly, in Saudi Arabia, SPL clubs are associations because the Saudi sports ministry, which owns the clubs, requires them to be organised in such a way.

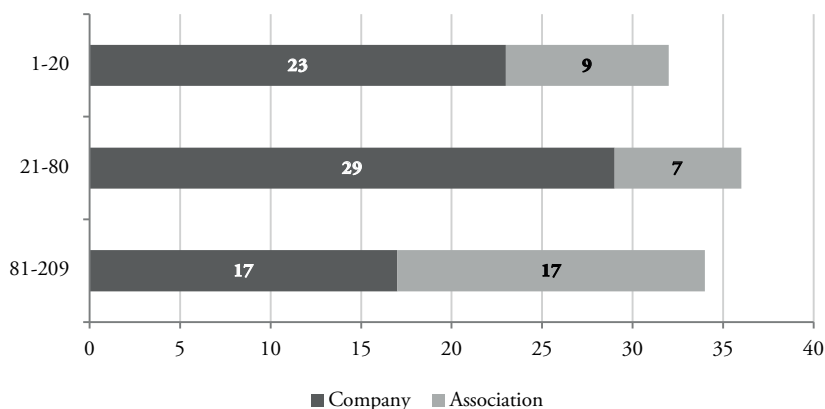
Figure n°13: Legal form of clubs (confederations; 102 clubs)



Relating to confederation differences, as seen above, in most confederations the company is the most used legal form for clubs. The African exception is due to the fact that all clubs in Ivory Coast and Morocco are associations and

that, contrary to the two other CAF countries surveyed (Kenya and South Africa), we obtained information about club legal form for all clubs surveyed from Ivory Coast and Morocco. Had we obtained more answers from Kenya and South Africa, the CAF results may have been more balanced. Concerning CONMEBOL (Confederación Sudamericana de Fútbol), all Argentinian clubs for which we managed to get information are associations because the national association obliges clubs to have that legal form.

Figure n°14: Legal form of clubs (FIFA Ranking; 102 clubs)



In regards to the comparison related to FIFA Ranking, we can observe that, for the first two categories (1-20 and 21-80), the company form is clearly predominant. In the first one (1-20), four Argentinian, two Cost Rican, two German and one Spanish club have the legal form of an association. In the second category (21-80), all seven associations are clubs from Ivory Coast. In contrast, the third category presents a more balanced composition with an equal distribution of the two categories among clubs.

1.2. Ownership structure

Ownership structure is strongly connected to legal form since the legal form of a club will, by definition, determine the range of ownership structures. While the legal form generally defines ownership narrowly, in some cases one legal form may have several kinds of ownership structures.

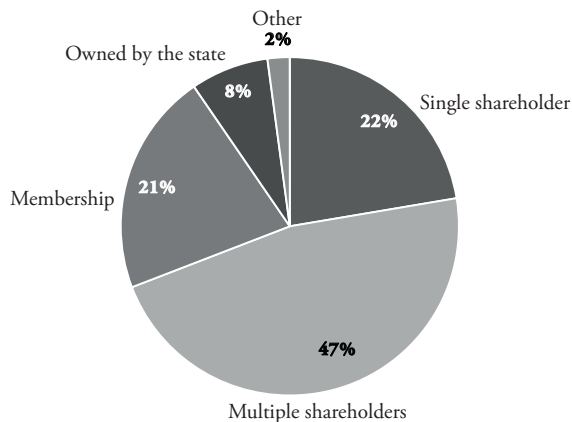
The association legal form is rather straightforward and the ownership structure is always one of membership. In this case, members are asked to pay a membership fee and, by doing so, they acquire the right to have a form of decision-making power in club management. Similarly, when the club is an association owned by the state like in Saudi Arabia, there is only one ownership structure possible, since the state is the only owner of the club.

However, when the club is a company, several ownership structures can be encountered:

- Single shareholder: the club is owned by a single person or company.
- Multiple shareholders: the club is owned by several persons or companies. In that case, two possible scenarios can occur:
 - Multiple shareholders with a majority shareholder: a single person or company owns the majority of shares (more than 50% of the shares) of the club. This person or company will then have a majority in the club management decision making.
 - Multiple shareholders without majority shareholder: no person or company owns more than 50% of the shares of the club.

The observations and comparisons concerning the ownership structure are similar to the ones in the previous sub-section but are more detailed concerning clubs with the legal form of a company.

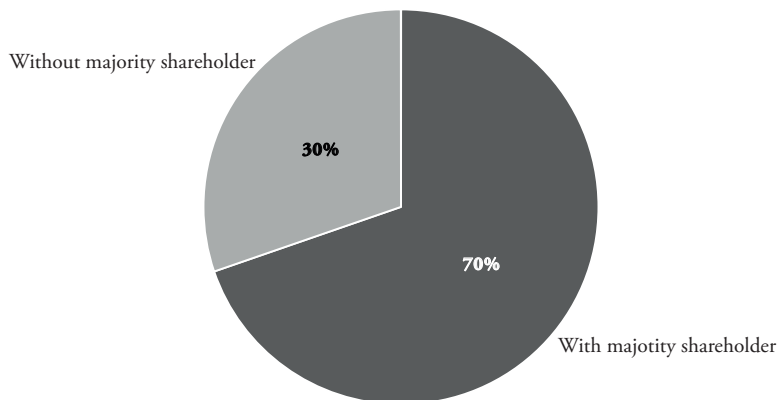
Figure n°15: Ownership structure of clubs (overall; 94 clubs)



The graph above shows that the most common ownership structure is the multiple shareholders structure, since nearly half of the clubs have that structure. Single shareholder and membership structures are almost equally common, while clubs owned by the state are only found in Saudi Arabia, as explained previously. Two German clubs have a specific ownership structure ('other' category in the graph):

- Borussia Dortmund: majority free float and multiple minority shareholders.
- TSG 1899 Hoffenheim: two shareholders and an atypical silent partnership.

Figure n°16: Club ownership structure: multiple shareholders – shares distribution (overall; 33 clubs)



Among the clubs having a multiple shareholders structure, most have a majority shareholder. If we combine the results from this graph with the results from the previous one, it can be noted that 55% of the clubs surveyed are owned either by a single shareholder or a majority shareholder.

Table n°30: Club ownership structure (confederations)

	Single shareholder	Multiple shareholders	Membership	Owned by the state	Other	Total
Confederation						
UEFA	5	20	3	-	2	30
CAF	3	4	10	-	-	17
AFC	3	9	-	7	-	19
CONCACAF	9	10	3	-	-	22
CONMEBOL (Argentina)	-	-	4	-	-	4
OFC (Papua New Guinea)	1	1	-	-	-	2
Total	21	44	20	7	2	94

From the table above we can observe that many clubs in the sample with a single shareholder are found in the CONCACAF region. This is due to the fact that many MLS clubs are owned by a holding company or principal investor. These clubs are considered here as having a single shareholder structure.

The proportion of different ownership models across FIFA Ranking groups is relatively similar. The only exceptions that stand out are the absence of any clubs owned by the state in the 1-20 and 21-80 ranking groups and the two previously mentioned German clubs ('other'). For state ownership this may simply be due to the selected countries and with a wider sample we may find state-owned clubs in countries with higher FIFA Rankings.

Table n°31: Club ownership structure (FIFA Ranking)

	Single shareholder	Multiple shareholders	Membership	Owned by the state	Other	Total
FIFA Ranking						
1-20	4	16	10	-	2	32
21-80	12	17	7	-	-	36
81-209	5	11	3	7	-	26
Total	21	44	20	7	2	94

1.3. Separation of a club's football/professional section from the parent club/amateur section

With this sub-section, we wanted to study the structure of the football section in relation to the rest of the club. We asked clubs if their professional football section is separate from the amateur section or, if the club is a multisport club, if the football section is separate from the rest of the club. By separate, we mean that the separate section has its own administration, governing bodies or even statutes.

We received answers from 84 clubs, and most of them (57) stated that all sections of the club are under the same umbrella. However, these answers did not provide the level of detail necessary for a clear differentiation between clubs comprising only football and multisport clubs in which the football section is not separate from the parent club.

Of the twenty-seven clubs for which there is some separation, fourteen clubs described that the structure of their club includes a separate football section. However, the questionnaire responses were insufficient to clearly establish if the separate section is the professional one (from the rest of the football club) or the football one (from the rest of the multisport club). We must also note that these fourteen clubs include six Saudi clubs for which we received generic information from the league.

Concerning the thirteen remaining clubs with a separate section, we can note that in nine clubs the professional section is separate from the amateur section. Among these clubs, it is not surprising to see that five of them are German clubs. Many German professional clubs have a hybrid legal form, within which a company (the professional club) is separate from the association (the parent club). The other clubs come from Ivory Coast (two clubs), Saudi Arabia and Costa Rica.

Finally, four clubs reported that they are multisport clubs and that their football section is separate from the parent club. These clubs are from Poland, Ivory Coast, India and Jamaica.

Because of the low response rate and lack of detailed answers, it is impossible to provide meaningful confederation or FIFA Ranking comparisons.

2. Political representation and management

This section aims to describe – similar to the leagues in the previous chapter – who is responsible for governance in the clubs surveyed, what is the process for their appointment and if they represent any particular stakeholder. In order to do that, three indicators have been chosen:

- Appointment of the club president
- Appointment of the club executive committee
- Representation at the club general assembly

2.1. Appointment of the club president

In this sub-section, we wanted to show which stakeholder(s) appoint(s) – or elect(s) – the president of the clubs surveyed. As with the previous sub-sections, the process of appointment is related to the legal form of the club since, in many cases, a club's president will either be appointed by the shareholders if the club is a company or by the members if the club is an association.

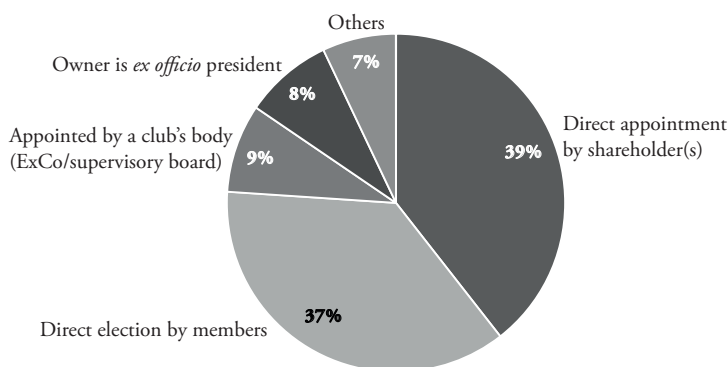
Based on the survey responses, we have identified five different categories of stakeholder(s) who appoint or elect the club president:

- Direct appointment by shareholder(s): the shareholder(s) of the club appoint(s) the club president directly. Most of the time, the appointment process takes place at a club executive committee meeting or the general assembly which brings together all club shareholders. The direct appointment by shareholder(s) only concerns clubs having the legal form of a company.
- Direct election by members: the members of the club directly elect the club president. Most of the time, the appointment process takes place during the club's general assembly. The election by members only concerns clubs having the legal form of an association.
- Appointment by a club body: in this category, the president of the club is appointed by the club's executive or supervisory committee. Contrary to the previous examples, the body that appoints the president is not composed of the club's shareholders or members. The body responsible for appointment is, however, in most cases elected or appointed by the shareholders or the members of the club. In short, the process is as follows:

the shareholders or members appoint individuals to the body (executive or supervisory committee) who, in turn, appoint the club president. As such, this process could be referred to as an indirect appointment of the club president by the shareholders or members of a club.

- Owner is *ex officio* president: the owner of the club is the *ex officio* president of the club. In this category, there is no process of election or appointment.
- Other methods: specific process of appointment or specific stakeholders appoint the club president.

Figure n°17: Appointment of club president (overall; 71 clubs)



As seen in the graph above, for a large majority of the clubs surveyed, the president is directly appointed or elected either by the shareholders – when the club is a company – or by the members of the club – when the club is an association.

In these cases, the appointment process is rather similar for every club. For clubs having the legal form of an association, it is always the general assembly – which includes all members of the club – that elects the president. On the other hand, for clubs structured as a company, the body that acts as the meeting of all shareholders is responsible for appointing the president. Sometimes this is the executive committee, sometimes the general assembly or even another body (e.g. the supervisory board). For example, the president of Sporting Goa (India) is appointed by the executive committee while at Espanyol de Barcelona the president is elected by the club's general assembly.

The 39% of clubs where the president is appointed by the shareholders includes cases in which the club has a single shareholder. Here, the clubs do not require any particular process of appointment since only one person is responsible for the appointment, and not a body such as the executive committee or the general assembly. Brisbane Roar and Newcastle Jets in the Australian A-League use this method.

Two clubs in Spain, Elche and Granada, are good examples for rather specific processes of direct appointment by the shareholders. For Elche, the general assembly, which brings together all shareholders, must approve the appointment of the president by the majority shareholder. Similarly, concerning Granada, the majority shareholder proposes someone for the president position and the executive committee, bringing together all shareholders, must approve the appointment.

In contrast to the prior examples, Piast Gliwice's (Poland) presidential appointment is an example of appointment by another club body: the shareholders of the club appoint the supervisory board members who, in turn, appoint the club president. This also illustrates why that process of appointment has been described previously as indirect appointment by the shareholders.

Concerning cases where the owner of the club is the *ex officio* president, we can cite Black Aces FC (South Africa) as an example since the two owners, who each own 50% of the club, are both co-chairmen of the club.

Table n°32: Appointment of club president (confederations)

Confederation	Direct appointment by shareholder(s)	Direct election by members	Appointed by another club's body (ExCo/supervisory board)	Owner is <i>ex officio</i> president	Others	Total
UEFA	11	2	6	-	2	21
CAF	4	9	-	3	1	17
AFC	8	7	-	1	1	17
CONCACAF	5	4	-	1	-	10
CONMEBOL (Argentina)	-	4	-	-	-	4
OFC (Papua New Guinea)	-	-	-	1	1	2
Total	28	26	6	6	5	71

While the method for appointment is direct in a majority of clubs, an analysis by confederation reveals some additional points of interest.

The table above shows that European clubs are the only ones in the sample in which the president can be appointed by another club body and therefore not directly by the club's shareholders or members. In fact, examples of this indirect form of appointment were found in every UEFA country surveyed but not in other confederations.

On the other hand, cases in which the owner of the club is the *ex officio* president are not found at all in sampled UEFA and CONMEBOL (Argentina only) countries. Obviously, the sample size is restrictive and there may well be examples in countries outside the sample. Nonetheless, it is possible to state that presidential appointment processes in UEFA include more complex mechanisms. In fact, in all UEFA clubs surveyed, the appointment of the president involves one or even two different bodies within the club. For example, in some clubs, the general assembly – which most of the time includes shareholders or club members – elects the executive committee which, in turn, elects the president. Additionally, no club in the UEFA sample is directly presided by the owner or the majority shareholder without an election or appointment process. However, countries in UEFA outside the sample may have such direct presidential appointments.

Table n°33: Appointment of club president (FIFA Ranking)

FIFA Ranking	Direct appointment by shareholder(s)	Direct election by members	Appointed by another club's body (ExCo/supervisory board)	Owner is <i>ex officio</i> president	Others	Total
1-20	10	8	5	-	2	25
21-80	9	8	1	3	1	22
81-209	9	10	-	3	2	24
Total	28	26	6	6	5	71

Concerning FIFA Ranking distribution, the distribution of the different categories of presidential appointment is rather homogenous from top to bottom ranked countries. In connection to the analysis by confederation, clubs in which the president is appointed by another body (indirect appointment by members or shareholders) come mainly from the first FIFA Ranking category (1-20). This may be because most of the surveyed UEFA clubs come from top ranked FIFA nations. In addition, there are no examples in the surveyed clubs from FIFA ranked countries 1-20 in which the club owner is the *ex officio* president.

The 'others' category includes a different process of presidential appointment. The two cases in the 1-20 FIFA Ranking category are German clubs and are, as it has been previously described, related to the hybrid legal form that can be found in Germany. These clubs are in most cases a hybrid combination between the parent body – an association – and the professional section – a company. For example, managing directors of Fußball-Club Augsburg 1907 are elected by the board of the non-profit club – the association – which is also one of the shareholders of the club.

Still in the 'others' category, the club from the 21-80 sample is Ivory Coast's SO Armée, which is a multisport club belonging to the national army. In this case, the president of the football section is appointed by the president of the multisport club.

Finally, in the 81-209 FIFA Ranking category, the two 'other' presidential appointment methods are found in clubs from India and Papua New Guinea. In India, the president of the Mohun Bagan AC's club sponsor is in fact the *ex officio* club president as well. In Papua New Guinea, Besta United PNG FC is a specific case because the club is a development programme initiative developed by PNGFA targeting a specific age group of between 16 and 20 year olds. The club told us that there is no specific internal governance mechanism. The partner – a company – appoints a representative to assist with the administration of the club as the administrator while PNGFA appoints the technical staff.

2.2. Appointment of the club executive committee

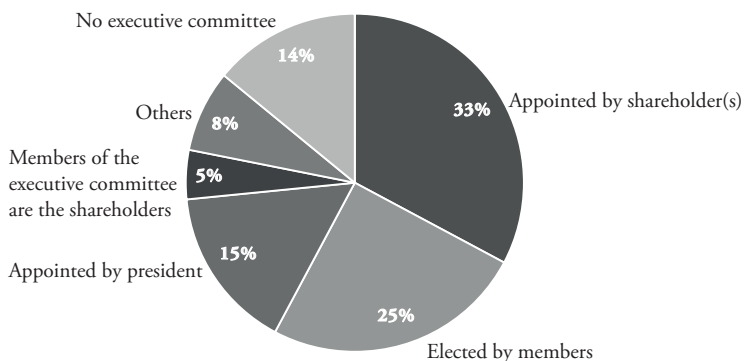
This sub-section addresses how clubs appoint or elect their executive committees. We identified six main ways in which the club executive committee is appointed/elected:

- Appointed by shareholder(s): the executive committee members are chosen by the shareholder(s) of the club.
- Elected by the members: the executive committee members are elected by the members of the club.
- Appointed by the president: the executive committee members are chosen by the president of the club.
- *Ex officio*: members of the executive committee are the shareholders of the clubs.
- Others: a specific process of appointment or different stakeholders responsible for appointing the club's executive committee members.

- No executive committee: in some clubs, there is simply no executive committee.

As for the previous sub-chapter, the first two categories are related to legal form of the clubs: executive committee members can only be appointed by shareholder(s) in a club having the legal form of a company while they can only be elected by members in an association.

Figure n°18: Appointment of club executive committee (overall; 64 clubs)



Regarding the overall situation and given the omnipresence of associations and companies as club structures, it is rather logical to see that in a majority of cases executive committee members are appointed by the club shareholders – for a company – or by the members – for an association. In many of these cases, the appointment or election takes place during the club's general assembly.

In contrast, there are also many cases where the executive committee members are appointed directly by the president of the club or where there is simply no executive committee. In these two categories, we find clubs where presidents seem to have more decision-making power in comparison with the clubs where the executive committee is appointed by either the shareholders or the members. This is due to the fact that either the general assembly is not included in the appointment of the executive committee members or there is no executive committee at all; as a result, the president has, theoretically, significant executive power.

In only a few cases, club shareholders are automatically members of the executive committee. What is interesting to note here is that clubs which have no executive committee in their governance structure can be found on almost all continents. Equally clubs where it is the president who appoints the executive committee can also be found across the globe.

Table n°34: Appointment of club executive committee (confederations)

Confederation	Appointed by shareholder(s)	Elected by members	Appointed by president	Members of the ExCo are the shareholders	Others	No ExCo	Total
UEFA	12	1	1	-	4	2	20
CAF	3	2	7	2	-	1	15
AFC	3	7	1	-	1	4	16
CONCACAF	3	2	1	1	-	1	8
CONMEBOL (Argentina)	-	4	-	-	-	-	4
OFC (Papua New Guinea)	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
Total	21	16	10	3	5	9	64

At confederation level, the cases in which the executive committee is appointed by shareholders represent a majority in Europe. Similarly, election by the association's membership is found mostly in Asia and South America. This is largely because Saudi and Argentinian clubs all use the same election process. The table also shows that cases where the president appoints executive committee members directly is common form in Africa – and above all in Ivory Coast with five cases – whereas this process is unusual in other confederations.

Table n°35: Appointment of club executive committee (FIFA Ranking)

FIFA Ranking	Appointed by shareholder(s)	Elected by members	Appointed by president	Members of the ExCo are the shareholders	Others	No ExCo	Total
1-20	11	7	1	-	2	1	22
21-80	6	1	7	2	2	2	20
81-209	4	8	2	1	1	6	22
Total	21	16	10	3	5	9	64

Concerning the comparison across FIFA Ranking, we can see in the table above that executive committee member appointment by the shareholders

decreases as FIFA Ranking decreases as well. This is in contrast to the general ownership structure of the club discussed earlier (table 31); however this may be due to the different sample sizes between the two tables. Other observed contrasts can be explained by differences between continents or specific situations in some countries. For example, the eight clubs whose committee is elected by the membership in the ranking group 81-209 include the seven Saudi Arabian clubs. Five of the seven cases of executive committee appointment by the president in the ranking group 21-80 category are from Ivory Coast clubs.

In the 'others' category, four cases are found in UEFA clubs – two German clubs, Borussia Dortmund and Hamburger SV, and two Polish clubs, Lechia Gdańsk and Ruch Chorzów – and one in Australia, Western Sydney Wanderers.

- Borussia Dortmund's executive committee appointment process is related to the hybrid legal form of the club: executive committee members are elected by an advisory board including members of the company (legal form: GmbH & Co. KGaA) and members of the parent club (legal form: association).
- One member of Hamburger SV's executive committee is appointed by the general assembly, including members of the clubs. The three other members are appointed by a supervisory board including eight members elected by the general assembly, one member appointed by senior members of the club, one member appointed by the amateur section and one member appointed by the supporters.
- Lechia Gdańsk executive committee members are chosen by a supervisory board. One of the three executive committee members is recommended by the minority shareholders. It should be noted that the supervisory board includes representatives from the main club sponsor and representatives from the official supporters' association.
- Ruch Chorzów executive committee members are also appointed by a supervisory board. However, we have no further information about the composition of that supervisory board.
- Finally, the executive committee at Western Sydney Wanderers is composed of the shareholders with additional *ex officio* members. These *ex officio* members are the chief financial officer and company secretary of the club.

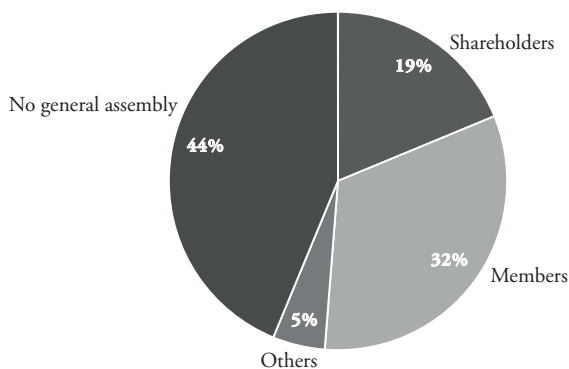
2.3. Representation at the club general assembly

In this sub-section, we analyse the composition of the general assembly of the clubs surveyed. Concerning representation at the general assembly, we received four kinds of answers from the clubs:

- Shareholders: the members of the general assembly are the shareholders of the club – or, in a few cases, they are appointed by them.
- Members: the general assembly of the club is composed of club members. It can be observed here that, in many cases, clubs specified that members can only vote if they have reached a certain age (usually sixteen or eighteen) or/and if they have paid their annual club dues.
- Others: specific cases of representation at the club's general assembly.
- No general assembly.

The graph below shows the overall situation concerning representation at the general assembly.

Figure n°19: General assembly representation (overall; 80 clubs)



As in the previous sub-sections, the results concerning representation at the general assembly are strongly related to the legal form of clubs. However, the results here differ from the previous sub-sections because the most common scenario is the one where there is no general assembly. This is due to the fact that clubs having the legal form of a company – the most common situation – often have no general assembly. It is often the case in these clubs that the shareholders or their representatives are included in the executive com-

mittee of the club. When the club is an association the general assembly is usually composed of members of the club.

Table n°36: General assembly representation (confederations)

	Shareholders	Members	Others	No GA	Total
Confederation					
UEFA	11	5	1	1	18
CAF	-	7	2	6	15
AFC	1	7	-	12	20
CONCACAF	3	3	1	15	22
CONMEBOL (Argentina)	-	4	-	-	4
OFC (Papua New Guinea)	-	-	-	1	1
Total	15	26	4	35	80

At confederation level, we observe that only UEFA has a majority of club general assemblies composed of shareholders and few clubs with no general assembly. We should note that the above graph shows five clubs in UEFA where members are part of the general assembly which contrasts with Figure 13 in which there are only three European clubs with an association legal form. This is due to the hybrid form of some German clubs in which the parent club (association) has a general assembly that serves as the general assembly for the professional club (company). A general assembly including club members is the most common situation in CAF and CONMEBOL (Argentina). In AFC and CONCACAF, a majority of clubs do not have a general assembly.

Table n°37: General assembly representation (FIFA Ranking)

	Shareholders	Members	Others	No GA	Total
FIFA Ranking					
1-20	7	11	1	2	21
21-80	8	6	2	18	34
81-209	-	9	1	15	25
Total	15	26	4	35	80

At FIFA Ranking level, we can see that, in the last category (81-209), there is no club where its shareholders are the members of the general assembly. It can be inferred, with the results obtained in the previous sub-sections, that

clubs with the legal form of a company in the 81-209 ranking group give a more direct power to shareholders than clubs in the two other groups. Here, clubs in the form of a company often directly appoint the president and the executive committee without the need for a general assembly. The contrary can be seen for clubs in the form of a company from the first category (1-20) since there are only two cases where there is no general assembly.

Four clubs have a specific method of representation at their general assembly: FC Augsburg 1907 (Germany), SO Armée (Ivory Coast), Sofapaka FC (Kenya) and Portmore United (Jamaica). The general assembly includes 'board and executives' at Augsburg, 'members of general committee, other sections' presidents and football section executive committee members' at SO Armée (a multiple sports club), 'club executives, staff and players' at Sofapaka and 'executive and club members' at Portmore United.

After having explored the political side of the internal governance of the club president, executive committee and general assembly, the next section discusses some administrative aspects of club management.

3. Administrative structure

In this section, we study club size in terms of the number of employees and the range of activities, directly linked or not to football, that a club can have. In order to do this, two indicators are studied:

- The number of employees
- The number and the functions of departments

3.1. Number of employees

This sub-section sets out to show the range of sizes of the clubs surveyed in terms of employees. The aim was to show how many employees work at a club (not including the players). We received a large range of answers, but not all of them specified whether the number of employees included the players or not. As a result, this is how the numbers were used:

- When we received a number without any description or specification, we used this number. While it may result in a slight bias, due to the large

number of answers we received, this should not significantly skew the results. Harbour View FC in Jamaica is a good example. The club answered that it has 60 employees but, compared to other answers from Jamaica – twelve to 22 employees for other clubs – one could presume that this number includes players. However, since we have no further information, we used this number as we received it (25 clubs concerned).

– When a club answered that the number included players without specifying how many players the club has, we did not use that number. While we could have subtracted a set number representing the number of players, it was too complex to establish a reliable figure since the number of players under contract may vary significantly from one club to another. So for these answers, we did not use the data. For example, when considering Villarreal (Spain, 250 employees including players), one could imagine that players under contract are not only players from the first team but as well players from the reserve team or even players in the academy. In contrast, Kenyan Sofapaka FC (40 employees including players) surely has only first team players under contract.⁵⁶

– We received answers from some English clubs which specified how many people are part of the football staff (players, managers, coaches). We choose to remove this number from the total number of employees to focus only on the non-technical staff. For example, Chelsea FC answered that it has 669 employees, including 89 players, coaching and managers. In this case we used the number 580 in our analysis.⁵⁷

– We did not take into account employees that only work during match days, who are employees with part-time and specific contracts, when it was indicated in the answer. As could be expected, clubs employ a large number of people only for match days and this could skew the results. For example, Arsenal FC (England) specified that, on match days, its number of employees could swell to up to 860 employees whereas it has only 481 ‘normal’ employees (without players).

Now that we have explained how the data from the clubs’ answers was processed, we can present the results in the table below. The total sample used here covers 69 clubs.

56 Apart from Villarreal and Sofapaka, this concerns two other clubs: Schalke 04 (Germany, 626 employees) and Nairobi City Stars (Kenya, 38 employees).

57 Apart from Chelsea, Crystal Palace (total: 142; football staff: 88; number of employees used in our analysis: 54), Hull City (185; 137; 48), Manchester City (314; 112; 202) and Tottenham Hotspur (380; 188; 192) are as well concerned.

Table n°38: Number of employees

	Minimum	Average	Maximum
Total (69 clubs)	2	105.67	895
UEFA (27 clubs)	15	177.48	790
CAF (14 clubs)	2	34.29	180
AFC (13 clubs)	8	21.46	51
CONCACAF (12 clubs)	12	35.92	102
CONMEBOL (Argentina) (2 clubs)	410	652.50	895
OFC (Papua New Guinea) (1 club)	4	4.00	4
FIFA Ranking 1-20 (26 clubs)	15	231.96	895
FIFA Ranking 21-80 (27 clubs)	6	36.15	180
FIFA Ranking 81-209 (16 clubs)	2	17.75	37

Concerning the overall results, there is an enormous difference between the minimum (two employees, Gor Mahia FC, Kenya) and the maximum (895 employees, Vélez Sarsfield, Argentina). The average number of employees is relatively high, with more than 105 employees.

Rather surprisingly, UEFA is not the confederation with the highest average. Actually, it is in CONMEBOL (Argentina) where we find the highest numbers. However, these average numbers should not be extrapolated as global averages for Argentina (or for CONMEBOL) because of the low number of responses (two clubs replied). The UEFA numbers (27) are a bit more representative. Nonetheless, it is still interesting to note that both CONMEBOL clubs concerned here have more than 400 employees each. This can be explained by the fact that these clubs – and, more generally, many Argentinian and even South American clubs – are multisport clubs. Furthermore, some clubs also have an education role, as exemplified by Vélez Sarsfield, which answered that 298 of its employees are working in the educational institution of the club.

Finally, the FIFA Ranking comparison is here particularly relevant, with minimum, maximum and average number of employees by club decreasing as the FIFA Ranking of the national association of the club decreases as well. This most likely reflects a correlation between a strong national team and an extensively developed national professional structure at club level.

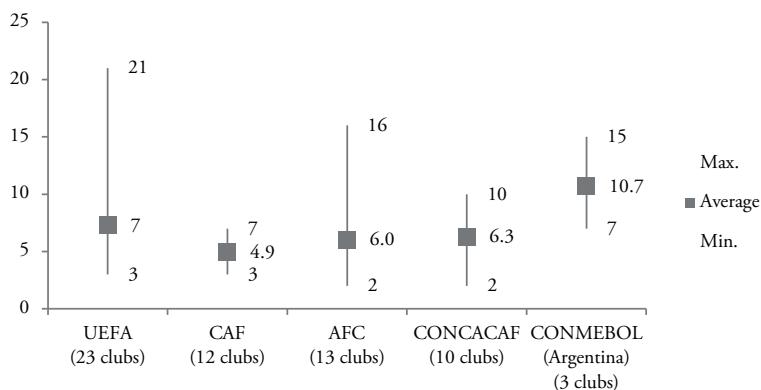
3.2. Number and function of club departments

With this sub-section, we wanted to provide an indication about the different fields of activity in the clubs surveyed. This part explores the number and the different functions of club departments. Concerning the overall situation, we obtained usable data from 61 clubs. We should also note that OFC is not taken into consideration here because we did not receive any usable data from the clubs surveyed from this confederation. The situation ranges from as few as two departments to twenty-one. As the questionnaire replies did not include how many staff work in each division, the range of departments should be read with some caution since a 'department' could theoretically have only one staff member while others may have many more. On the more compact side, the two clubs with only two departments are Newcastle Jets (Australia – commercial and football departments) and CS Cartaginés (Costa Rica – administration and sport departments). The club with the highest number of departments among the clubs surveyed is FC Barcelona (Spain) and here is the list of the different departments:

- Communications
- Institutional relations and protocol
- Economics/finance area
- Social area
- Commercial area
- Audiovisuals
- Human resources
- Operations
- Medical services
- Information technologies
- Legal services
- FCB foundation
- 'Oriol Tort - La Masia' (youth academy)
- Social area projects
- Digital and innovation department
- Department for the exploitation of installations
- Marketing department
- Professional football
- Youth football
- Football administration
- Sports sections

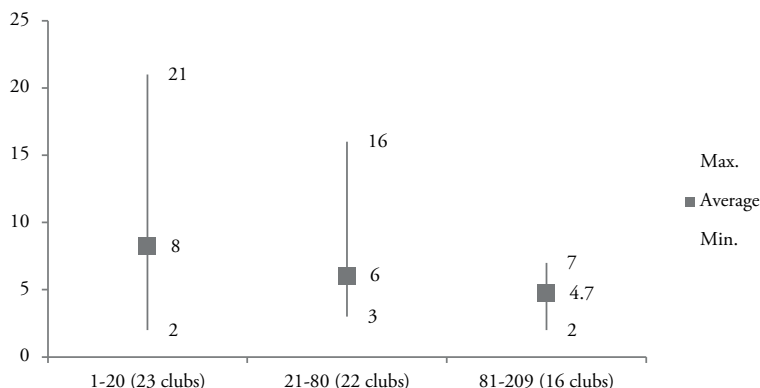
When considering all clubs surveyed with usable data, the average number of departments is 6.5.

Figure n°20: Range and average number of departments (confederations; 61 clubs)



The graph above shows that, in many confederations, the variance between the maximum and minimum number of departments is significant. The confederation with the highest average number of departments is CONMEBOL. However, this result is not very representative due to the small number of clubs for which we obtained usable data.

Figure n°21: Range and average number of departments (FIFA Ranking; 61 clubs)



Concerning FIFA Rankings, the results presented in the graph above are clear regarding average numbers. Clubs from national associations with a high FIFA Ranking have the highest average number of departments and this number falls as the FIFA Ranking drops.

When studying the departments in more detail, we identified a range of categories in order to show which areas of activity are the most common in the clubs surveyed. These categories are the following:

- Administration and finance
- Professional football and technical department
- Marketing, sales and services
- Public relations
- Youth football and academy
- Facilities and maintenance
- Legal
- Security and safety
- Social and community
- Supporters
- Medical department
- Membership, *socios*
- Other sports (multiple sports clubs)
- Amateur football
- IT and new technologies
- Scouting and match analysis
- Others

In the ‘others’ category, we find departments that are either found in only one club (travel department at Sevilla FC in Spain) or departments for which the function is difficult to determine (institutional relations departments at Newell’s Old Boys and Vélez Sarsfield in Argentina).

The table below shows that four types of departments are found in a majority of clubs: administration and finance, professional football and technical department, marketing, sales and services, and public relations.

Table n°39: Club departments by specific area (overall; 61 clubs)

Department	Frequency
Administration and finances	93%
Professional football and technical department	89%
Marketing, sales and services	80%
Public relations	61%
Youth football and academy	33%
Facilities and maintenance	25%
Legal	21%
Security and safety	20%
Social and community	18%
Supporters	13%
Medical department	11%
Membership, <i>socios</i>	7%
Other sports	5%
Amateur football	5%
IT and new technologies	5%
Scouting and match analysis	3%
Fundraising	3%
Others	15%

The remaining categories have lower percentages because some of them are common in some countries but far less common – or even absent – in others. For example, among the twelve clubs with a security department, five of them are Polish clubs (out of eight clubs surveyed in Poland). These differences can sometimes be explained by the regulations of the league or the national association. To continue with the Polish example regarding security departments, this is explained by the emphasis that Polish football organisations place on managing and avoiding violence in stadiums. To wit, of the few regulation

documents (only three) that can be downloaded from the Ekstraklasa website, one of them is a convention against supporter violence.

Table n°40: Club departments by specific area (confederations; 61 clubs)

Department	Frequency				
	UEFA (23 clubs)	CAF (12 clubs)	AFC (13 clubs)	CONCACAF (10 clubs)	CONMEBOL (3 clubs)
Administration and finances	100%	100%	69%	100%	100%
Professional football and technical department	83%	100%	92%	80%	100%
Marketing, sales and services	100%	50%	85%	70%	67%
Public relations	83%	33%	46%	50%	100%
Youth football and academy	35%	33%	46%	20%	0%
Facilities and maintenance	26%	42%	0%	40%	0%
Legal	26%	0%	31%	20%	33%
Security and safety	35%	8%	23%	0%	0%
Social and community	13%	8%	31%	10%	67%
Supporters	13%	25%	8%	0%	33%
Medical department	0%	25%	8%	20%	33%
Membership, <i>socios</i>	0%	0%	23%	0%	33%
Other sports	4%	0%	0%	0%	67%
Amateur football	4%	0%	0%	0%	67%
IT and new technologies	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Scouting and match analysis	4%	8%	0%	0%	0%
Fundraising	0%	0%	0%	20%	0%
Others	13%	0%	8%	30%	67%

Table n°41: Club departments by specific area (FIFA Ranking; 61 clubs)

Department	Frequency		
	FIFA Ranking 1-20 (23 clubs)	FIFA Ranking 21-80 (22 clubs)	FIFA Ranking 81-209 (16 clubs)
Administration and finances	100%	95%	81%
Professional football and technical department	83%	91%	94%
Marketing, sales and services	87%	82%	69%
Public relations	83%	50%	44%
Youth football and academy	30%	32%	38%
Facilities and maintenance	30%	32%	6%
Legal	235%	5%	25%
Security and safety	13%	27%	19%
Social and community	22%	14%	19%
Supporters	17%	9%	13%
Medical department	9%	14%	13%
Membership, <i>socios</i>	4%	0%	19%
Other sports	13%	0%	0%
Amateur football	13%	0%	0%
IT and new technologies	9%	5%	0%
Scouting and match analysis	4%	5%	0%
Fundraising	0%	9%	0%
Others	26%	14%	0%

While it is difficult to draw extensive conclusions from the above tables due to the small sample size and response rate, there are one or two observations worth mentioning. Firstly, public relations departments are commonplace in the ranking group 1-20 but are only present in 50% or fewer clubs from lower ranked FIFA nations. In addition, the 1-20 ranking group is the only one that includes the full diversity of club departments.

4. Role of supporters

This section examines the role of supporters at the clubs surveyed. The aim here is to provide an exploratory comparison of the role and number of supporters in clubs from different parts of the world. Three indicators have been chosen, two about the number of supporters – number of official supporters' groups and number of season ticket holders – and a third one about the decision-making power of supporters.

4.1 Number of official supporters' groups

The number of official supporters' groups per club gives us some indication about the popularity of the club and how structured its supporters are. We chose official supporters' groups in order to receive precise information from the clubs, but we must keep in mind that the data discussed here only concerns official groups and that there may be other unofficial supporters' groups.

60 clubs gave us usable answers about this question and the average number of supporters' groups per club is 109, which is a surprisingly high number. However, as seen in the tables below, the differences are significant between UEFA and the other confederations as well as the differences between clubs from national associations ranked between first and twentieth places in the FIFA Ranking and in other clubs. In fact, the average number of groups per club falls to 2.2 if we remove UEFA clubs from the sample and respectively 2.8 if we remove clubs from national associations ranked from one to twenty in the FIFA Ranking.

If we separate the clubs into categories according to the number of supporters' groups they have (table 43), it can be observed that all UEFA clubs have at least one official supporters' groups. The same observation is valid for CONMEBOL but, as we have data for only one club, it cannot be generalized for the rest of the confederation. In the 1-20 FIFA Ranking category the situation is somewhat polarized. In that category, the six clubs which have no supporters' groups are all from Costa Rica. No clubs have between one to ten supporters' groups. Finally, all the clubs which have more than 100 supporters' groups are UEFA clubs in the 1-20 FIFA Ranking category. To be more precise, all these clubs come from either Spain or Germany, since we have no data about English clubs. Even when we look at the category of 11-100 num-

ber of supporters' groups, only four clubs are not Spanish or German clubs: Pogoń Szczecin and Ruch Chorzów in Poland, Bloemfontein Celtic in South Africa and Vélez Sarsfield in Argentina.

Table n°42: Average number of official supporters' groups

	Average number of official supporters' groups
Total (60 clubs)	109.22
Total without UEFA (38 clubs)	2.18
Total without FIFA Ranking 1-20 (38 clubs)	2.84
UEFA (22 clubs)	294.09
CAF (14 clubs)	3.57
AFC (12 clubs)	0.42
CONCACAF (10 clubs)	0.20
CONMEBOL (Argentina) (1 club)	26.00
OFC (Papua New Guinea) (1 club)	0.00
FIFA Ranking 1-20 (22 clubs)	292.95
FIFA Ranking 21-80 (21 clubs)	4.76
FIFA Ranking 81-209 (17 clubs)	0.47

Table n°43: Number of official supporters' groups

Number of official supporters' groups		0	1 to 10	11-100	101-500	+500
Number of clubs	Total (60 clubs)	23	18	9	3	7
	UEFA (22 clubs)	0	5	7	3	7
	CAF (14 clubs)	6	7	1	0	0
	AFC (12 clubs)	7	5	0	0	0
	CONCACAF (10 clubs)	9	1	0	0	0
	CONMEBOL (Argentina) (1 club)	0	0	1	0	0
	OFC (Papua New Guinea) (1 club)	1	0	0	0	0
	FIFA Ranking 1-20 (22 clubs)	6	0	6	3	7
	FIFA Ranking 21-80 (21 clubs)	7	11	3	0	0
	FIFA Ranking 81-209 (17 clubs)	10	7	0	0	0

The results would probably be different and a bit more balanced had we received more answers from countries where football is particularly popular and with strong supporter cultures like in Argentina or maybe Mexico. However, based on the data obtained, we could summarize the following:

- No German or Spanish clubs have less than ten supporter's groups (actually, Villarreal has the smallest number of supporters' groups in comparison with other Spanish and German clubs: eighteen).
- Apart from the four abovementioned clubs, all other clubs from national associations outside Germany and Spain have only one or two supporters' groups.
- From the sample, more than one third of the clubs (23 clubs out of 60) do not have any official supporters' groups.

4.2. Number of season ticket holders

Like the previous one, this sub-section should give an initial indication about the fan base of the clubs surveyed. We asked here the clubs to tell us how many season ticket holders they have. For this question, we received 73 usable answers, with all UEFA clubs having answered, while we have no indication about CONMEBOL clubs.

The table below also illustrates the number of clubs that have no season ticket holders and, among these, the number of clubs which answered that they do not use a season ticket system.

Similar to the number of official supporters' groups, it not surprising to note that the clubs in UEFA and 1-20 FIFA Ranking categories have significantly higher numbers than the other confederations and FIFA Ranking categories. Furthermore, in both the UEFA and the 1-20 FIFA Ranking group, all clubs have some season ticket holders and they all use season ticket systems. The club with the highest number of season ticket holders across both categories is FC Barcelona (Spain) while the clubs with the lowest number are Podbeskidzie Bielsko-Biała (Poland) for the UEFA category and CS Cartaginés (Costa Rica) for the 1-20 FIFA Ranking category. We can also observe that there is an important difference between English, Spanish and German clubs and the other clubs from UEFA and the 1-20 FIFA Ranking group (but we lack data for Argentinian or Mexican clubs). For example, the minimum number of season ticket holders when analysing England, Spain and Germany is 13'234 (TSG 1899 Hoffenheim) while the maximum num-

ber for Poland is 10'000 (Legia Warszawa). The average number for English, Spanish and German clubs together is more than 30'000 while the average for Polish clubs is less than 5'000.

At a global level and aside from other UEFA leagues, only two leagues have a higher average than Polish Ekstraklasa: A-League (12'551) and MLS (10'214).⁵⁸ In fact, apart from Spanish, English, German, Polish, Australian and American clubs, only two clubs have more than 1'000 season ticket holders: Ajax Cape Town (South Africa, 7'000) and FC Tokyo (Japan, 9'400). The relatively high averages in CONCACAF, AFC, 21-80 and 81-209 FIFA Ranking categories are largely due to A-League and MLS clubs.

In the remaining countries from which we received data (Ivory Coast, Kenya, Jamaica, Saudi Arabia, India, and Papua New Guinea), clubs did not report having any season ticket holders.

Table n°44: Number of season ticket holders

	Min.	Average	Max.	Number of clubs without any season ticket holders	Number of clubs without a season ticket system
Total (73 clubs)	0	11'698.33	84'942	22	12
UEFA (30 clubs)	1700	23'405	84'942	0	0
CAF (11 clubs)	0	643.64	7'000	8	2
AFC (17 clubs)	0	4'258.71	22'000	9	9
CONCACAF (14 clubs)	0	5'167.86	17'000	4	1
CONMEBOL (Argentina) (0 club)	-	-	-	-	-
OFC (Papua New Guinea) (1 club)	0	0	0	1	0
FIFA Ranking 1-20 (23 clubs)	700	29'123.39	84'942	0	0
FIFA Ranking 21-80 (29 clubs)	0	4'175.24	17'000	9	3
FIFA Ranking 81-209 (21 clubs)	0	3'002.76	22'000	13	9

58 We received data from only one club in Japan (FC Tokyo), so it is not possible to give an average number for J-League. However, it can be noticed that FC Tokyo has a relatively high number of season ticket holders (9'400).

4.3. Supporters' decision-making power

Among the clubs surveyed, only a few allow supporters to wield decision-making power. In fact, among the 77 clubs that replied, 63 clubs answered that supporters do not have any decision-making power over club management.

Concerning the thirteen clubs which gave a positive answer, seven indicated that supporters can have decision-making power if they become members of the club. By doing so, they will usually obtain a vote at the club general assembly. This is the case for example with FC Barcelona (Spain) and Estudiantes La Plata (Argentina). In both cases, supporters can become *socios* (members) of the club. The five other answers that mention club membership come from the generic answers we received from the SPL. However, it is interesting to note that one Saudi club from which we received an individual club questionnaire (Al-Tawoon FC) explained that supporters do not have decisional power and did not make the link with a vote through club membership.

Other clubs mentioned that supporters have direct decision-making power over the club though in varying degrees:

- Elche CF (Spain) answered that most season ticket holders are shareholders, although in a small minority, which prevents having much decision-making power.
- Hamburger SV (Germany) supporters elect one member to the supervisory board of the club. Furthermore, supporters have their own section inside club management and they manage for example fan-related communication, merchandising or ticketing for away games.
- At Lechia Gdańsk (Poland), supporters have a representative at the club supervisory board.

Finally, two African clubs, Difaâ Hassani d'El Jadida (Morocco) and Gor Mahia FC (Kenya), answered positively but without specifying what kind of power the supporters have.

It should be noted that, if supporters have decision-making power in only a few clubs, a lot of clubs mentioned that they have regular links and exchanges with their supporters. Indeed, when clubs were asked if they had links with their supporters, only thirteen (one in Ivory Coast, one in Kenya, one in South Africa, one in Australia, three in India, four in Costa Rica and two in Jamaica) out of the seventy-eight clubs that answered indicated that they have no links at all with their supporters. On the other hand, all UEFA clubs have answered that they have some links with the supporters which is

unsurprising since the UEFA club licensing regulations require clubs to have a supporter liaison officer.⁵⁹

Many clubs answered that there are regular exchanges and meetings between the club and its supporters' groups. More specifically, all English clubs and many German and Polish have one or several employees – often called 'supporter liaison officer(s)' – at the club who are specifically responsible for the exchanges and links between the club and the supporters. At Borussia Dortmund (Germany), the parent club (an association, separate from the professional section of the club which is a company) includes a fan project department whose aim is to represent the interests of the supporters and organise some joint projects.

In other cases, the club may assist the supporters in many ways: financially, for the transportation for away matches or by making premises available for supporters' activities. For example, Villarreal CF (Spain) makes a storage facility available for supporters and provides monthly financial support, mainly to help for travel and events.

Clubs sometimes delegate responsibilities to supporters, like selling tickets, being responsible for the social media management of the club or participating in social community events. Apart from UEFA clubs, in which supporters are very active in club activities, at least one Kenyan club, two Indian ones, one Costa Rican and two Jamaican clubs answered that supporters are a key part of the running of the club. Gor Mahia FC in Kenya is a specific example of responsibility that can be given to the supporters since the supporters, through a foundation, are responsible for the management of the club's youth teams.

5. Role of community

In this final section, the aim is to study the relationship that a club can have with the local community (its neighbourhood, city or region). The focus here

59 It is not very relevant to make confederation or FIFA Ranking advanced comparisons here because we did not receive any answers about that topic from CONMEBOL (apart from Estudiantes La Plata as explained above), OFC, MLS or many Saudi clubs. Furthermore, many answers were rather vague, only stated that links between supporters and clubs existed, but without explaining the kind of links.

is on knowing if the clubs are involved in the community and, if yes, in what way. In order to answer these questions, three indicators have been studied:

- Links with local authorities: are the local authorities (city, region, etc.) involved in the life of the club and, if yes, in what way?
- Clubs' community support programmes: does the club have community support programmes and what kind of programmes does it have?
- Volunteers: do the clubs rely on volunteers?

5.1. Links with local authorities

When asked about their links with local authorities, a significant majority of clubs answered that they do have links with local authorities. Actually, out of the 88 clubs that answered, only seven answered negatively (two from Ivory Coast, three from Kenya and two from Papua New Guinea).

From the positive answers, the level of detail varied and, as a result, it is rather difficult to establish statistical results concerning confederations or FIFA Ranking levels. However, some general observations can be made:

- Among positive answers, the ones that occur the most frequently concern formal relationships related to match day organization: relationships about security (police, firefighters, emergency services, and hospitals), traffic regulation and public transportation.
- Other recurring answers concern usual formal relationships with local authorities on topics such as taxes and authorizations (e.g. about organizing events or advertising).
- Several clubs also stated that they work with local authorities for community events.
- Of the more specific answers, some clubs explained that the local authorities are involved in club management since they are shareholders of the club. This kind of answer mainly came from Polish clubs:
 - The city of Kielce is the sole shareholder of Korona Kielce.
 - The city of Gliwice is the majority (66%) shareholder of Piast Gliwice.
 - The city of Bielsko-Biała is the majority shareholder (65%) of TS Podbeskidzie Bielsko-Biała.
 - The city of Chorzów is a minority shareholder (20,09%) of KS Ruch Chorzów.

Apart from these Polish examples, only FC Tokyo (Japan) stated that local authorities are part of the shareholder structure of the club.

- Some clubs specified that they have links with local authorities because they are the owners of (or of some) club facilities, like the stadium for example:
 - German club Werder Bremen told us that the city of Bremen owns 50% of the operating company of the stadium, while the other half is owned by the club.
 - Bloemfontein Celtic (South Africa) answered that the stadium is owned by the local authorities.
 - In India, all clubs from the state of Goa (Dempo SC, Salgaocar and Sporting Goa) told us that the football authorities of the state (Goa FA) provide stadia to the clubs.
 - We found that many MLS clubs (Columbus Crew, Houston Dynamo, LA Galaxy, New York Red Bulls, Philadelphia Union, Toronto FC) have a lease agreement with local authorities about the land where the stadium lies (Conventions, Sports & Leisure International, Integra Realty Resources and The Robert Bobb Group 2014: 9-11, A-7-A-33).
- Finally, many clubs answered that local authorities assist them economically through a financial contribution or sponsoring system. This is the case for three clubs from Ivory Coast (ASI d'Abengourou, CO Bouaflé and Séwé Sports), all clubs from Morocco according to the generic answer we received from the FRMF, and two clubs from Costa Rica (CS Cartaginés and AD Santos de Guápiles). Vélez Sarsfield (Argentina) answered that the local authorities (the city of Buenos Aires) give them financial help for the educational institution of the club, including primary, secondary and tertiary classes and more than 200 students.

5.2. *Club community support programmes*

In this sub-section, we wanted to know if clubs are involved in the community and particularly if they take part in community support programmes. Like in the previous sub-section, we received a large number of positive answers: among the 81 clubs that answered that question, only ten clubs answered that they do not organize any community support programmes. The negative answers came from Ivory Coast (seven clubs: ASEC Mimosas, ASI d'Abengourou, CO Bouaflé, Denguelé Sports, Séwé Sports, SO Armée – concerning Ivory Coast, only Stella d'Adjamé answered positively), Kenya (Sofapaka FC), Costa Rica (Deportivo Belén) and Papua New Guinea (Besta United and Eastern Stars).

Concerning positive answers, the level of detail of the answers is variable and, once again, it is difficult to present clear overall statistical results about the number and function of the community support programmes of the clubs. For example, some clubs only answered that they have such programmes, without specifying their number and function, while others gave many details, like for example Melbourne Victory (Australia), which told us that the club has between fifteen and twenty community support programmes, ranging from clinics and school visits, charity partnerships, match day hospitality, awareness campaigns and youth development.

However, some general tendencies can be identified:

- The most common answers are grassroots programmes and programmes for children, often mixing sport and educational functions.
- Many clubs also answered that they organize visits to hospitals and orphanages.
- All English clubs for which we managed to obtain some information (Arsenal, Chelsea, Crystal Palace, Hull City, Manchester City, Manchester United, and Tottenham Hotspur) have their own foundation. These foundations have many community support programmes. For example, the Tottenham Hotspur website indicates that the foundation is active in the following fields:⁶⁰
 - Health and well-being
 - Community development
 - Education
 - Employment and skills training
 - Equality and inclusion
 - Sports development
- Apart from English clubs, some other clubs surveyed also have a foundation: FC Barcelona, Málaga CF and Valencia CF in Spain and Deportivo Saprissa in Costa Rica.
- As discussed earlier, Vélez Sarsfield (Argentina) has its own school, with more than 200 children. It may be possible that other clubs, particularly in Argentina and South America, also have educational institutions.

In summary, it can be stated that nearly all clubs for which we received an answer have community support programmes. Most of the clubs have programmes related to football and concerning children (programmes mixing football and education, free training and free or easier access to football

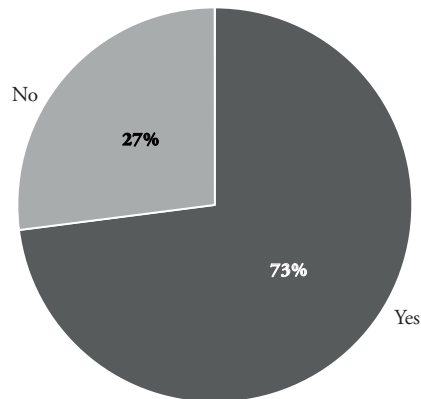
60 <http://www.tottenhamhotspur.com/foundation/what-we-do/> (last consultation: 6 July 2015)

facilities or matches for children from underprivileged backgrounds, football camps, etc.). However, in countries where clubs are more developed (England, Spain, Germany, Poland, Australia, United States and Canada, Japan, and Argentina), it seems that support community programmes reach beyond purely football and engage with other sections of the population (programmes for health and nutrition, for disabled people, for social inclusion, prevention against violence, etc.).

5.3. *Volunteers*

This sub-section analyses the recruitment of volunteers for the clubs surveyed. Concerning this indicator, we received 74 answers and the graph below shows the proportion of clubs recruiting volunteers. As seen here, nearly three quarters of the clubs responded positively.

Figure n°22: Volunteers (overall; 74 clubs)



Concerning confederation differences, the graph below shows that UEFA and CAF clubs are less likely to recruit volunteers, even though the majority of clubs from these two confederations still recruit volunteers in some capacity.

Figure n°23: Volunteers (confederations; 74 clubs)

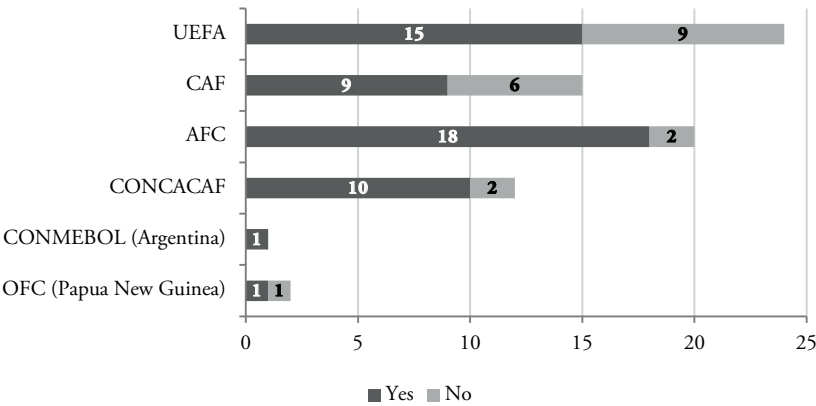
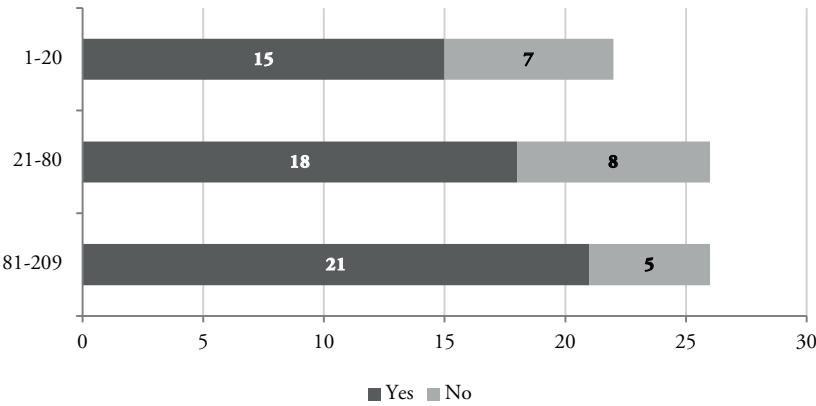


Figure n°24: Volunteers (FIFA Ranking; 74 clubs)



At FIFA Ranking level, there is no real difference between the first two categories but the proportion of clubs recruiting volunteers is higher in the third category.

When we look more closely at individual answers from the clubs, it can be seen that the differences are mostly related to country variance. For example, among the eight Spanish clubs from which we received an answer, half of them do not recruit volunteers. On the other hand, in Germany, which is in the same confederation and FIFA Ranking category as Spain, all clubs (seven) answered that they rely on volunteers. Besides Spain, half of the clubs from two other countries reported not relying on volunteers: Poland (four out of eight) and Ivory Coast (three out of six).

Finally, it can be added that, among the positive answers we received, only a few explained why the club recruits volunteers. Unsurprisingly, most stated that volunteers were recruited mainly for match day needs (stadium stewards, ticket selling, marketing and press activities, etc.). Only Al-Tawoon FC (Saudi Arabia) and Vélez Sarsfield (Argentina) referred to using volunteers for functions other than match day activities. Concerning Al-Tawoon FC, most of the club members are volunteers and work in a variety of club areas (e.g. as sporting team administrators or in the media department). At Vélez Sarsfield, volunteers assist in various subcommittees that are responsible for educational and cultural activities, outside the professional sport departments.

6. Summary – diversity across the globe

In this chapter we presented the findings about several areas of internal club governance. The discussion has covered political aspects as well as more administrative ones. Similar to the second chapter, it is difficult to outline a generic model that fits all clubs due to the exploratory nature of the research project and the initial limited sample. Nonetheless, there are a number of points that stand out.

In terms of legal form and ownership, we observed two major types of club structure. The two forms include the association and the company. Of these, the dominant form in the research sample was the company; this was found in more than two-thirds of the clubs. When looking at ownership, more than half of surveyed clubs are owned by either a single shareholder or have a majority shareholder. This is not restricted to one area of the globe as these were found on virtually all continents. In terms of the separation of the football section from the parent club, there are no conclusive findings as

there were too many variables involved. Further research could establish a clearer picture as to how many clubs separate their elite professional football from their association (in the case of single sport clubs) and how many clubs are multisport but operate a separate governance structure for the football section.

At the political level there are also a number of points worth mention. For the club president, in most cases this individual is elected or appointed directly by the members or shareholders. There are a minority of cases in which this is done by a different body. While direct election/appointment varied little across continents, the minority was generally restricted to European clubs. Regarding the executive committee, the mechanisms for election/appointment are more diverse than for the club president. However, the direct election or appointment by the members or shareholders remains the majority. In the general assembly, the point that stands out is that many clubs have no general assembly at all (found mainly in CAF, AFC and CONCACAF clubs).

On the administrative side, we surveyed the clubs' employees and departments. Here, while there is a wide range of numbers from tens to hundreds of staff, there is a clear correlation between clubs with many employees and clubs coming from higher ranked FIFA nations. In terms of internal departments, there is also a wide range across continents with a global average of 6.5 departments per club. Similar to the number of employees, the average number of departments goes up with the FIFA Ranking. There are some key areas found across nearly all clubs (administration/finance, professional football/technical, and marketing) while a dedicated communications/press relations division is found in less than two-thirds of clubs.

On the supporters side, there is significant variance across the globe with most clubs having few organized supporter groups and a minority of clubs (mainly in Europe) which have large numbers. Few clubs allow supporters to wield decision-making power as supporters (and not just as club members for clubs in the form of an association) in the actual management of the club. Nonetheless, clubs do delegate some responsibilities to supporters (selling tickets, social media management or community events).

The final area of the study covered the relationships between clubs and their local communities. Here, much of the relationship is related to match day organization including working with local authorities on security, traffic regulation and public transportation. We also found a number of club-local authority links in regards to facilities. A very small number of clubs (from Poland and Japan) stated that local authorities are actually part of the sharehold-

er structure of the club. In the area of community related programmes, many clubs include grassroots programmes and children's programmes as well as relationships with hospitals and orphanages. Either the club does this itself or it operates a separate charitable foundation. Lastly, a majority of clubs recruit volunteers in some capacity.

IV. Conclusions

Resulting from a FIFA research mandate, this study has explored the governance relationships between leagues and clubs as well as the internal governance models found within clubs. In the current climate of debate and review of football governance, as well as FIFA's commitment to support club licensing as a governance and developmental tool, this research project is both timely and topical.⁶¹ This conclusion first summarizes some of the key findings of both chapters and then aims to conceptualize the league-club relationships as well as offer some further direction to research in league and club governance.

When considering the league-club relationship, what is most evident is that there is not one model. The second chapter covering the eighteen leagues surveyed here demonstrates that there is a significant range of diversity in outlining the frontiers of what is a league's responsibility and what remains in the remit of the club. Nonetheless, there are some overarching trends. Whether leagues operate within a national association or as separate entities, many of the internal governance structures (executive committee, general assembly) are dominated by clubs that hold the lion's share of voting power. Regulations on ownership and legal form vary from requiring only associations to no requirements whatsoever. Leagues often maintain a central financial role in negotiating broadcast/media rights collectively (though without any global standard redistribution method) and exercising some financial auditing power.

The global market for players is largely a free one with few contract standards and salary exceed limitations; even where there are limitations there are mechanisms to spend above salary caps. Home grown player policies are rare (principally in Europe) while foreign player restrictions are more common (everywhere but Europe), hardly surprising in a post-Bosman player market in Europe. Europe is the only continent so concerned with home grown players that it have explicit regulations in place. This is largely unsurprising as other countries continue to export talent and thus their leagues must not feel the push to protect their domestic labour market from imported players. Empirical research is just beginning to examine the impact of this rule. In the

61 FIFA recently announced a comprehensive investment for its implementation at confederation and member association level for the 2015-18 cycle (FIFA 2015b: 42).

case of TPO, a number of leagues have or are actively pursuing a ban/restriction while others are not concerned with controlling the issue.

The question of facilities reveals very diverse practices. While promotion and relegation are the standard and closed leagues the exception, there is no one model for who is responsible for what. The one area where there is some semblance of global consensus is disciplinary which is, more often than not, a national association issue rather than one regulated by the league. In summary, across the sample, clubs have quite a strong role in the management and governance of their leagues. From the sample here, we can state that this is valid across continents, FIFA country rankings and structural models. There are few areas where clubs have little direct influence: disciplinary and promotion/relegation.

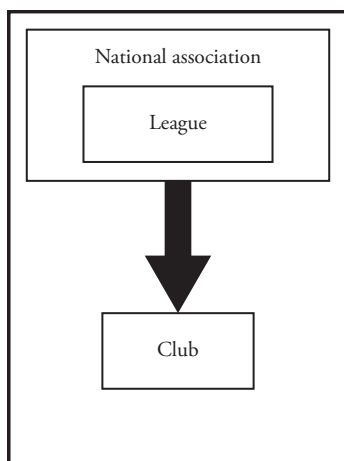
Regarding internal club governance, a similar level of global diversity is evident, as explained in the third chapter, but there are still some overall conclusions that can be made. There are two types of legal forms which are often linked directly to their ownership structure: company and association. In the sample here, the most dominant of these is the company and there are a majority of clubs run by single or majority shareholders. Club officials are generally elected or appointed directly by the constituency, even if the methods for executive committee election/appointment are more diverse. As expected, there are a wide range of administrative structures and sizes which generally correlate with a club's country FIFA Ranking. Supporters are not well organized or integrated into the governance of clubs and have little to no decision-making role (despite the delegation of some roles in the day-to-day organisation of club activities). Most clubs have grassroots and community programmes and rely in some way on volunteers.

The data largely reflects the global situation of the game. Where transnational regulation has had significant impact, for example in Europe, some practices and structures are more similar because of the shared regulatory environment (e.g. player status). Other parts of the world where a continental regulatory framework is not as developed, the scenario varies from one country to the next and will be subject to bilateral agreements. This will certainly continue to evolve given the ever changing legal environment and the impact of non-sporting specific international agreements like Cotonou between the EU and a host of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries. As such, governance structures in football must be able to account for the non-sporting regulatory frameworks set out in the future by multinational bodies like the World Trade Organization.

But what does all this mean for our understanding of the specific governance relationships between associations, leagues and clubs? As discussed in the introduction, we had two initial hypotheses about the structure of league-club relationships: either that these were ‘horizontal’ (with clubs and leagues sharing power) or ‘vertical’ (with the league having a more controlling role over the clubs). This study reveals that such a description is overly simplistic. Based on the many examples studied throughout this report it is possible nevertheless to illustrate the range of governance relationships by sketching several models of the NA-league-club relationship. It should be noted that not every league fits perfectly into a given model and not every model represents entirely a given league. This should be seen as a ‘typology’ of the range of models for the NA-league club relationship. The width of the lines illustrates the strength and importance of the relationship.

The first model is the NA-integrated one. This applies to leagues which are generally financially dependent on their national association and where the league is run from within the national association itself (e.g. Argentina, Australia, India, Ivory Coast and Papua New Guinea).

Figure n°25: The NA-league-club governance relationship – NA-integrated management model



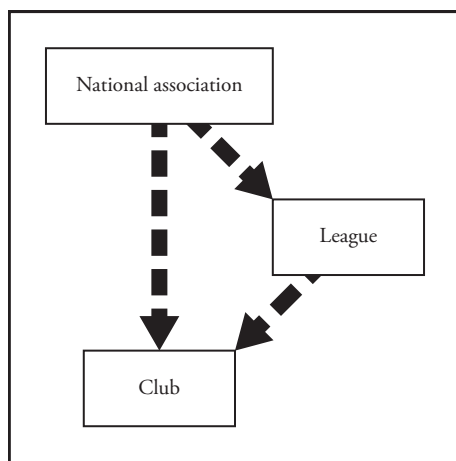
- No independent league: the league is a department inside the national association.
- No independent regulations: regulations concerning the league and the clubs are issued by the national association.

- Large influence of the national association on the governance of clubs and club competitions.

As discussed earlier in the report, some leagues that fit the NA-management model are in the process of moving to a more independent approach by separating the league from the national association (e.g. Morocco and Saudi Arabia). This follows other leagues that are already independent from the national association. Here we find leagues whose legal form is an association (Spain, Germany, Japan, Mexico and Costa Rica) or those incorporated as a separate entity. The independent league relationship here can be illustrated in several ways.

In some leagues the national association shares responsibility with the league and clubs in a mixed model, which might be termed a ‘shared NA-league’ model. For example, the Polish league Ekstraklasa only manages the marketing of the league and the first instance disciplinary procedure while the other fields are regulated by the national association. In a second example, the Jamaican NPL’s voting structure is divided nearly equally among the three club and four JFF representatives.

Figure n°26: The NA-league-club governance relationship – shared NA-league model

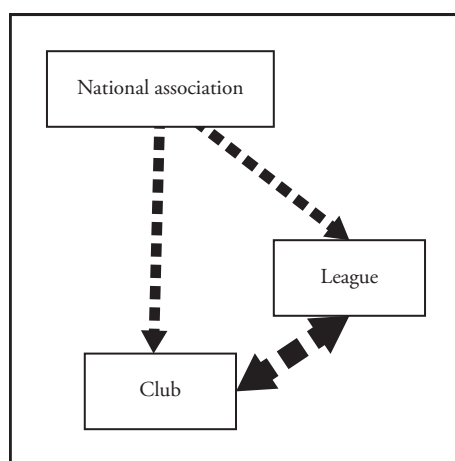


- Independent league: the league is an organisation outside the national association.
- Mixed regulations: regulations concerning the league and the clubs are issued both by the national association and the league.

- Shared responsibility in certain areas of the governance of club competitions: both bodies are well represented at the management level.

In other leagues however, the balance is perhaps more in the favour of the clubs and the independent league body. For example, in the J. League, the national association has two representatives who sit on the league's executive committee. So while the national association is represented in the league, the J. League clubs have a stronger say in league governance than the JFA. This is represented by the independent model below.

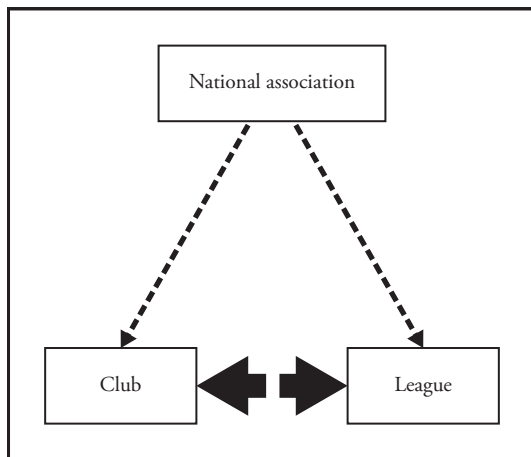
Figure n°27: The NA-league-club governance relationship – independent league model



- Independent league: the league is an organisation outside the national association.
- A majority of independent league regulations: most of the regulations concerning the league and the clubs are issued by the league.
- Influence of the league on the governance of clubs and their competitions is stronger than the national association.
- Some areas of activity still managed by the national association.

The final model is that of the league which is almost entirely separate from the national association, here termed the 'strong independent league' model. Here the clubs jointly manage the league on a more horizontal level without almost any direct involvement by the national association. For example, the broadcast/media rights for MLS and the national teams are sold together by the league's agency SUM, but the USSF has almost no direct role in the management of the league.

Figure n°28: The NA-league-club governance relationship – strong independent league model



- Independent league: the league is an organisation outside the national association.
- Strong club-league relationship: the league is governed more by the clubs themselves than the national association.
- The league-club relationship is stronger than the club-NA or NA-league ones.

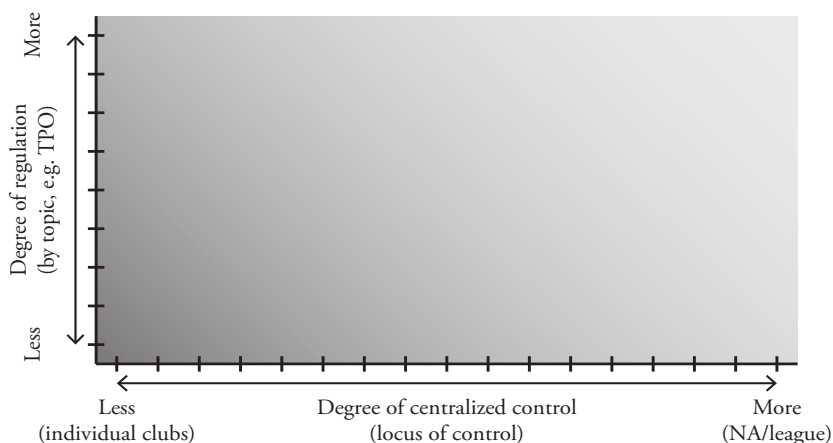
As can be seen in the above models the position of the league shifts. From within (and under) the national association the league moves outside in a sort of in between role. Then, there is a range in which the league operates on a level between national association and clubs all the way to a more horizontal club-league relationship in which the importance of the national association diminishes.

Admittedly, the above approach runs the risk of oversimplifying the NA-league-club governance relationship since few leagues will fit perfectly into one model. If we take the question of financial control by the league for example, the Jamaican NPL has no central control over its clubs while the J. League does exercise some control. So one could think that the league leaves more power to individual clubs in Jamaica than in Japan. However, if we examine voting power at the league general assembly, NPL clubs have to share the voting power with the national association (JFF) while in Japan only clubs are allowed to vote within the J. League. More weight and/or freedom to the clubs in one area does not always equate to the same power in others.

In identifying the variety of league-club relationships and internal club practices we are confronted with a complex picture that changes depending on the criterion examined. Consequently, there are limits to the above conceptualization of the governance relationships and perhaps a more precise analysis could better illustrate the range of structures through a broader benchmarking approach. Indeed, after sifting through endless examples of the different ways that leagues and clubs operate around the world, what stands out is not so much one model or another but rather that it is nearly impossible to establish an overarching qualification of a league as either 'vertical' or 'horizontal'.

Ultimately, the core question, it seems, is to what extent the league-club relationship is regulated or not, by whom, and whether there is significant centralized control or a more *laissez-faire* approach. As such, what may best illustrate this relationship in detail is a continuum which could map the range of regulatory environments on a specific topic and, at the same time, show the degree of league centralization with respect to member clubs. We would propose something in the vein of the figure below.

Figure n°29: League-club governance benchmarking continuum

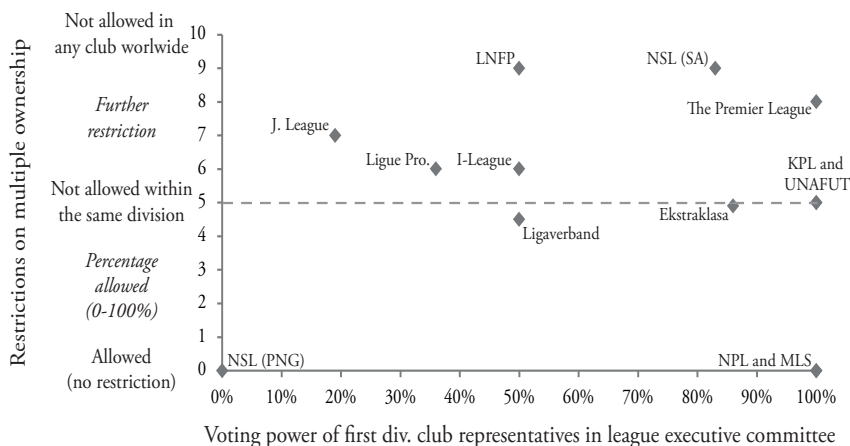


The graph above assumes that there is a method to quantify the degree of centralized control (to what extent individual clubs control things versus to what extent this is managed centrally by a strong league or the national association). Based on the independent variable of degree of centralized control, this benchmarking continuum would then be able to map the range of diversity

between different league-club relationships in different countries on specific topics such as TPO restriction or the presence of specific regulations on players' status. A continuum would allow for leagues to benchmark themselves according to the degree of regulation and centralization.

The challenge here, of course, is to identify indicators that can be accurately measured in order to clearly benchmark different leagues. Once an independent variable is defined a variety of criteria can be mapped and the leagues benchmarked against each other. By way of example, the following graph illustrates the benchmarking continuum concept and maps the level of restriction on multiple ownership of clubs according to one potential measure of club control: the voting power of first division clubs within the league executive committee.

Figure n°30: Prototype for league global benchmarking – multiple ownership of clubs according to club representation in league executive committees



On the X-axis of figure 30, leagues are measured according to the decision-making power – percentage of votes – held by first division club representatives. For example, the Papua New Guinea NSL is at 0% because all league executive committee members are PNGFA representatives whereas the KPL, Jamaica's NPL, UNAFUT, MLS and The Premier League are all at 100% because the executive committee is entirely composed of first division club representatives or members elected by them. Spread in between are other leagues which have a mix of representation. For example, the I-League and Ligaverband are both 50%. In the case of the I-League, half of the mem-

bers of the executive committee are appointed by the AIFF. In the Ligaverband, the figure 50% is an approximate one since there are nine committee members and the composition varies. Nonetheless, it is a reasonable estimate based on the appointment/election method.⁶²

On the Y-axis, we have created a measure for the degree of restriction (or not) regarding the ownership of shares in multiple clubs. The axis goes from zero to ten but is divided in the middle. In the bottom half, leagues are measured based on the percentage of multiple ownership that is allowed. On the one end, 0 means that multiple club ownership is allowed or that there are no restrictions on shareholding interest. The scale goes up to 5 based on the degree to which leagues allow multiple club shareholding (limited by a specific percentage). For example, Ligaverband is at 4.5 because no club is allowed to have more than a 10% shareholding interest in another league club. Similarly, Ekstraklasa is at 4.95 because a club owner cannot own more than 1% of another league club's shares. In the top of half the axis, leagues are measured based on the degree of further restriction on multiple ownership. The logic here is that the higher up the scale, the wider the restriction. So a 5 represents leagues where no shareholding interest is allowed at all in any club within the same division (KPL and UNAFUT). Points 6-9 on the scale refer to leagues that further restrict shareholding in multiple clubs across multiple divisions or leagues. For example, the J. League represents three divisions and so multiple ownership is restricted across its three championships. The Premier League is at 8 because multiple ownership is prohibited not only in the league but also in the Football League, covering three additional divisions. South Africa is listed at 9 since the league forbids any multiple club shareholding interest throughout the country regardless of the league. Spain is also listed at 9 because the restriction on multiple club ownership, even though it allows for 5% shareholding interest, applies to all football clubs in the country.

The above graph is only a prototype benchmarking analysis and several leagues are absent. The A-League and Liga MX are not taken into account because these leagues have no executive committee. We could not include the Argentinian Primera División and Morocco's Botola Pro 1 due to missing data. Finally, we chose not to map the SPL since all clubs are owned by the Saudi government making multiple ownership a non-issue.

62 In the nine-person Ligaverband executive committee there are two representatives each from Bundesliga and 2. Bundesliga clubs, three club representatives elected by the general assembly, and two DFL board members elected by DFL supervisory board.

There are noticeable limitations to the above graph. The voting power of first division clubs is only one measure of club power and this excludes obvious other criteria such as the power balance in the league's general assembly, the role of the president/chairman/CEO or the redistribution of league revenues to name only a few. A more comprehensive benchmarking approach would have to further define the mode of measurement and outline a specific formula for example. This could go even further and be applied one level down on a variety of league regulatory issues. As a result, a true global club benchmarking analysis could reveal where leagues are with respect to their peers not just on a national or confederation level but even globally. Developing such a benchmarking continuum could be one step in the direction of a more complete understanding of the league-club governance environment.

In his preface to the *ECA Club Management Guide*, Karl-Heinz Rummenigge wrote that 'the perfect club does not exist' (ECA 2015: 7). We would argue that without global benchmarking, it is not only impossible to know if there is a 'perfect club' but also whether a 'typical club' exists and what it looks like. Some clubs seem to have found the magic formula for success and Hamil's case study of FC Barcelona highlights the symbiotic relationship between 'member democracy, commercial strategy, corporate social responsibility and sporting success' (2010: 498). However, this is less prescriptive of future success than it is descriptive of past ones. Any attempt to clone a given club model in a different country hardly guarantees ensuing triumph.

The core question in regards to internal club governance then is about the balance of interests and how this is reflected in the structure and functions of the club. Who is the owner and what is his/her role in relation to other stakeholders? Here, perhaps theoretical concepts such as 'stakewatchers' (pressure groups that influence), 'stakeseekers' (those who seek to have a voice in a corporation's decision making), 'stakekeepers' (regulators who impose external control and regulations) and finally 'stakeowners' (stakeholders who own and deserve a stake) could be helpful (Fassin 2012: 89).

While Fassin's four stakeholder categories were not designed with sport in mind, an application to football clubs could be useful in understanding the different types of organisations and their relationship to the primary stakeholder, the 'stakeowner'. The following table outlines what organisations would fit within these categories.

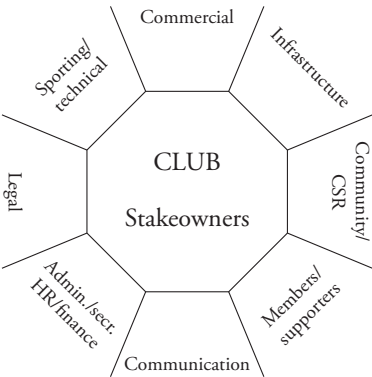
Table n°45: Stakeholder types

Stakeholder type	Examples of club stakeholders	
Stakeowner (those actually owning and deserving a stake)	Corporation - Club owner/shareholder(s) Association - Club members	
Stakeseeker (those seeking a voice in club decision making)	Supporters*	
Stakekeeper (regulators imposing external control and regulations)	<u>Sporting</u> League National association Confederation FIFA Players' associations (e.g. in the case of a CBA)	<u>Non-sporting</u> Local/national Government Supranational government (e.g. European Commission or United Nations)
Stakewatcher (pressure groups that influence)	<u>Sporting</u> Players' associations (without a labour agreement/CBA) Agents	<u>Non-sporting</u> Sponsors City/local community Media/broadcasters Agencies

*The place for supporters could be different based on the type of club structure. In associations in which the members are also supporters, supporters are then also 'stakeowners'. However, in clubs structured as corporations, non-shareholding supporters would be 'stakeseekers'.

Having identified these different interest groups or club stakeholders, it is then useful to see how a club's structure could interact with each group specifically in terms of the various functions a club has. Based on the club survey responses about the number and types of departments, we can conceptualize a model 'club function chart' in which the different club areas interact with the various stakeholders. The following charts do not represent the exact situation in any one club; rather it is a theoretical approach drawing together the diverse scenarios that do exist within clubs around the globe.

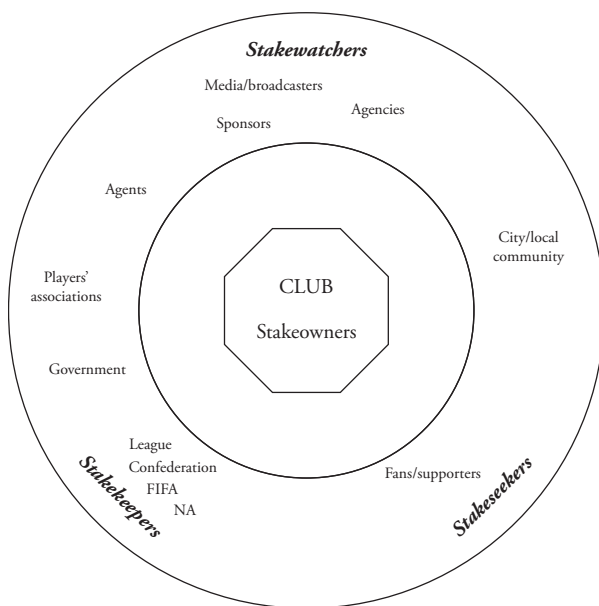
Figure n°31: Club function chart – club departments



Working from the inside outwards, a club's 'stakeowners' (shareholders or members depending on the ownership structure) are at the centre of the club. The eight octagonal areas represent a synthesis of the core functions found in the departments of surveyed clubs.

The next figure illustrates the different types of external stakeholders according to the three remaining stakeholder groups ('stakewatchers', 'stakeseekers', and 'stakekeepers').

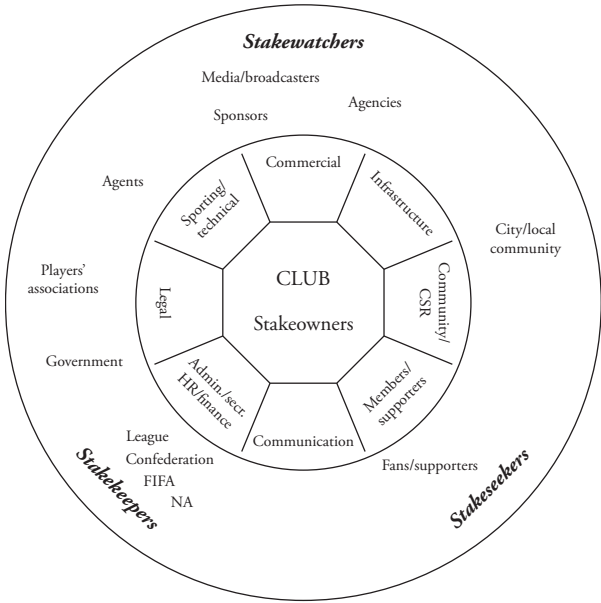
Figure n°32: Club function chart – external stakeholders



Surrounding the club is a circle containing the three stakeholder groups, each in a certain area of the circle. Spread around are the specific examples of the different stakeholder groups. For example, agents can be considered as a 'stakewatcher' or an outside pressure group that exerts some influence on the club specifically on player transfer issues.

Building on the first two figures above, the final chart seeks to bring these two together and illustrate the types of functions that a club has and how these functions connect to the different stakeholders.

Figure n°33: Club function chart – Overall



Here each club area (sporting/technical, commercial, infrastructure...) has de facto relationships with different stakeholders. Equally, different stakeholders may interact with different club functions. For example, the club department managing infrastructure deals with the city and local community, often regarding stadium issues. But the city and local community will also be closely connected to a club's CSR or community relations department.

Identifying the links between club function and stakeholder type can also be useful when considering the link between policy and governance instruments such as club licensing. The role of 'stakeseekers', in this case supporters, is a particularly good example of this. The rise of supporters trusts in the United Kingdom and the creation of Supporters Direct demonstrates that supporters, especially of clubs with a governance model in which they have no shareholding interest, actively seek a voice. From a governance and policy perspective, UEFA sought to address this in 2012 when it extended the club licensing personnel and administrative requirements to include a new Article 35. The new article obliged clubs to appoint a supporter liaison officer whose role was to serve as a contact point and seek collaboration on issues such

as safety and security (UEFA 2012: 18). This is a clear example of how a governance issue – the club-supporter relationship – has been integrated into a regulatory framework.

Ultimately, internal club governance is the balance between the different interest groups and how these relationships are represented within a single club's structure. Ideally, a club would benefit from having a clear link between structure, function and stakeholders as suggested in the above chart. But as seen in this report, the actual structure and balance will obviously be different depending on national idiosyncrasies.

Now, if we connect the findings in this report and the models outlined in this conclusion to the governance tool of global club licensing, we can see the challenges for establishing a framework that can cope with such diversity. Adding to this, the often changing environment (Morocco's move to start a league body separate from the national association and Saudi Arabia's push in the same direction), it becomes evident how important regular empirical research is. Only through continual analysis of the governance landscape can a clear and up-to-date picture be painted; from this picture a set of principles could then be established as a basis for outlining league and club governance.

Longitudinal empirical analysis is essential for an understanding of the global picture. But these governance relationships and their measurement indicators need to be defined conceptually and in global terms which speak to the specific reality on each football continent. A global approach to governance structures must take into account the diverse national legal frameworks, for example. In the context of antitrust legislation in the United States, the MLS opted for a 'hybrid' single-entity company structure which has had the effect of preserving it from legal scrutiny under the Sherman Act and, from a business perspective, centralizing core costs and revenues (Leah 2015: 14-5) – something crucial for a growing league. On a conceptual level, Alex Phillips, AFC-UEFA MoU Consultant, noted how difficult it was to arrive at one clear definition for the governance of team sport federations. In his MESGO (Master in European Sport Governance) dissertation, he suggested eight core areas: organizational structures, transparency, accountability, ethical behaviour, commercial rights, selection of hosts for events, solidarity, and autonomy (2011: 2-3). A final example comes from CONCACAF which introduced a sixth pillar to its continental club licensing programme: social responsibility (CONCACAF 2015: 25).

The above governance concepts and structures all take into account the continental or national reality. These examples, together with others from this

research (e.g. community and supporters in chapter III) could expand the debate around a truly 'glocal' governance and licensing model – one which develops and measures globally but does not dictate over local considerations.

Moving from an initial description of league-club governance practices to a full understanding of governance within leagues and clubs is a step-by-step process. In this light, the present study should be considered just as an initial snapshot and as a starting point to move in the direction of a clearer understanding of the league-club relationship and internal club governance. As this research report has demonstrated, the definition of what constitutes the league-club relationship and the make-up of club internal governance is far from a global consensus. There needs to be some degree of flexibility, for example, with respect to the club model (company or association), the role of the often dominant single or majority shareholder, the roles for supporters and community and finally for carving out a defined role for the club administration.⁶³

As mentioned above, licensing helped us to establish a list of core areas where one could identify some potential metrics for league-club and internal club governance models. But these areas need to be combined with overarching principles of some kind. If not, a set of areas for measurement is devoid of any sense of meaning or direction. In the end, the act of measuring will become more important than the actual object of measurement. Benchmarking without objectives has lost its *raison d'être*. Bringing together positive research and analysis through relative benchmarking with some normative principles providing direction for leagues and clubs is the only way forward for the global governance of professional football.

63 Rather than mandating one continent-wide policy, UEFA's current Club Licensing System makes no specific requirements for club legal forms for example, other than reporting it in the application.

V. Bibliography

As mentioned in the introduction, in order to triangulate the survey data for the comparative tables and graphs, we relied on various confederation, association, league and club statutes, regulations, licensing manuals, collective bargaining agreements, media guides, club competition directories, organisational charts, annual reports, official webpages and news articles (see list in appendices). In addition to those sources, the following references were also used.

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VI. Appendices

The appendices include an overview of league and club responses, as well as samples of the full questionnaires sent to all leagues and clubs.

1. League responses

Table n°46: League responses

Confederation	Country	League organiser <i>White: completed questionnaire</i> <i>Grey: did not wish to participate</i> <i>Black: no response</i>	Other sources (e.g. league website, documents, etc.)
UEFA	England	The Premier League	Yes
UEFA	Spain	LNFP	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Ligaverband	Yes
UEFA	Poland	Ekstraklasa	Yes
CAF	Morocco	FRMF	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	Ligue Professionnelle	Yes
CAF	South Africa	NSL	Yes
CAF	Kenya	KPL	Yes
AFC	India	AIFF	Yes
AFC	Japan	J. League	Yes
AFC	Australia	FFA	Yes
AFC	Saudi Arabia	SPL	Yes
CONCACAF	Mexico	Liga MX	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	MLS	Yes
CONCACAF	Jamaica	PFAJ	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	UNAFUT	Yes
CONMEBOL	Argentina	AFA	Yes
OFC	Papua New Guinea	PNGFA	Yes

2. Club responses

Table n°47: Club responses

Confederation	Country	Club name <i>White: returned questionnaire (incl. partially completed)</i> <i>Light grey: league provided general replies for all clubs</i> <i>Dark grey: did not wish to participate</i> <i>Black: no response</i>	Other sources (e.g. statutes, reports, website, etc.)
UEFA	England	Arsenal Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Cardiff City Football Club	No
UEFA	England	Chelsea Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Crystal Palace Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Fulham Football Club	No
UEFA	England	Hull City Association Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Manchester City Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Manchester United Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	Tottenham Hotspur Football Club	Yes
UEFA	England	West Ham United Football Club	Yes
UEFA	Spain	Unión Deportiva Almería	No
UEFA	Spain	Futbol Club Barcelona	Yes
UEFA	Spain	Elche Club de Fútbol	No
UEFA	Spain	Reial Club Sportiu Espanyol de Barcelona	Yes
UEFA	Spain	Granada Club de Fútbol	No
UEFA	Spain	Levante Unión Deportiva	No
UEFA	Spain	Málaga Club de Fútbol	Yes
UEFA	Spain	Sevilla Fútbol Club	Yes
UEFA	Spain	Valencia Club de Fútbol	No
UEFA	Spain	Villarreal Club de Fútbol	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Fußball-Club Augsburg 1907	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Borussia Dortmund	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Eintracht Frankfurt	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Hamburger Sport-Verein	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Hertha Berliner Sport-Club	Yes
UEFA	Germany	TSG 1899 Hoffenheim	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Fußballclub Gelsenkirchen-Schalke 04	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Sport-Verein Werder Bremen	Yes
UEFA	Germany	Verein für Leibesübungen Wolfsburg	Yes
UEFA	Poland	Jagiellonia Białystok Sportowa Spółka Akcyjna	Yes
UEFA	Poland	Korona Kielce Spółka Akcyjna	Yes
UEFA	Poland	Klub Sportowy Lechia Gdańsk Spółka Akcyjna	No
UEFA	Poland	Legia Warszawa Spółka Akcyjna	No
UEFA	Poland	Gliwicki Klub Sportowy Piast Spółka Akcyjna	No
UEFA	Poland	Towarzystwo Sportowe Podbeskidzie Bielsko-Biała	No
UEFA	Poland	Morski Klub Sportowy Pogoń Szczecin	No
UEFA	Poland	KS Ruch Chorzów	Yes

Confederation	Country	Club name	Other sources (e.g. statutes, reports, website, etc.)
		<i>White: returned questionnaire (incl. partially completed)</i> <i>Light grey: league provided general replies for all clubs</i> <i>Dark grey: did not wish to participate</i> <i>Black: no response</i>	
CAF	Morocco	Difaâ Hassani d'El Jadida	No
CAF	Morocco	Fath Union Sport Rabat	No
CAF	Morocco	Kawkab Athlétique Club de Marrakech	No
CAF	Morocco	Kénitra Athlétic Club	No
CAF	Morocco	Maghreb Association Sportive de Fès	No
CAF	Morocco	Moghreb Athletic de Tétouan	No
CAF	Morocco	Renaissance Sportive Berkane	No
CAF	Morocco	Wydad Athletic de Fès	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	ASEC Mimosas	Yes
CAF	Ivory Coast	ASI d'Abengourou	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	CO Bouaflé	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	Denguelé Sports	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	Séwé Sports	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	SO Armée	No
CAF	Ivory Coast	Stella d'Adjamé	No
CAF	South Africa	Ajax Cape Town FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Bidvest Wits FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Bloemfontein Celtic FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Free State Stars FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Kaizer Chiefs FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Mpumalanga Black Aces FC	No
CAF	South Africa	Polokwane City FC	No
CAF	South Africa	University of Pretoria FC	No
CAF	Kenya	Chemelil Sugar FC	No
CAF	Kenya	Gor Mahia FC	Yes
CAF	Kenya	Kenya Commercial Bank SC	No
CAF	Kenya	Nairobi City Stars	No
CAF	Kenya	Nakuru Top Fry AllStars	No
CAF	Kenya	Sofapaka FC	No
CAF	Kenya	Tusker FC	No
CAF	Kenya	Ushuru FC	No
AFC	India	Dempo SC	No
AFC	India	Mohammedan SC	No
AFC	India	Mohun Bagan AC	No
AFC	India	Pune FC	No
AFC	India	Rangdajied United FC	No
AFC	India	Salgaocar	Yes
AFC	India	Sporting Goa	No
AFC	Japan	Cerezo Osaka	No
AFC	Japan	FC Tokyo	No
AFC	Japan	Kashima Antlers FC	No
AFC	Japan	Hitachi Kashiwa Reysol	No

Confederation	Country	Club name	Other sources (e.g. statutes, reports, website, etc.)
		<i>White: returned questionnaire (incl. partially completed)</i> <i>Light grey: league provided general replies for all clubs</i> <i>Dark grey: did not wish to participate</i> <i>Black: no response</i>	
AFC	Japan	Kawasaki Frontale	No
AFC	Japan	Omiya Ardija	No
AFC	Japan	Sanfrece Hiroshima	No
AFC	Japan	Tokushima Vortis	No
AFC	Japan	Vegalta Sendai	No
AFC	Australia	Brisbane Roar FC	No
AFC	Australia	Melbourne Victory	No
AFC	Australia	*Newcastle Jets	No
AFC	Australia	Wellington Phoenix	No
AFC	Australia	Western Sydney Wanderers	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Ahli Saudi Sport Club	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Hilal Saudi Football Club	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Nahda FC of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Shabab FC	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Shoalah Football Club	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Al-Tawoon FC	No
AFC	Saudi Arabia	Najran Sport Club	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Club de Fútbol América S.A. de C.V.	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Cruz Azul Fútbol Club, A.C	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Club León FC	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	CF Monterrey	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Club Santos Laguna S.A. de C.V.	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Club Tijuana Xoloitzcuintles de Caliente	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	Deportivo Toluca Fútbol Club S.A. de C.V.	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	CF Tigres de la Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León	No
CONCACAF	Mexico	CF Leones Negros de la Universidad de Guadalajara	No
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**Club Deportivo Chivas USA	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**Columbus Crew SC	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	DC United	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**Houston Dynamo	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**LA Galaxy	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**New York Red Bulls	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**Philadelphia Union	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**San Jose Earthquakes	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	**Toronto FC	Yes
CONCACAF	USA/Canada	Vancouver Whitecaps	Yes
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Boys' Town FC	No
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Harbour View FC	Yes
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Humble Lions FC	No
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Montego Bay United FC	No
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Portmore United FC	No
CONCACAF	Jamaica	Tivoli Gardens FC	No

Confederation	Country	Club name	Other sources (e.g. statutes, reports, website, etc.)
		<i>White: returned questionnaire (incl. partially completed)</i> <i>Light grey: league provided general replies for all clubs</i> <i>Dark grey: did not wish to participate</i> <i>Black: no response</i>	
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	Club Deportivo Belén Bridgestone Fútbol Club	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	Club Sport Cartaginés	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	Deportivo Saprissa	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	Club Sport Herediano	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	AS Puma Generaleña	No
CONCACAF	Costa Rica	Asociación Deportiva Santos de Guápiles	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Arsenal Fútbol Club	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Social y Deportivo Defensa y Justicia	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Estudiantes de La Plata	Yes
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club de Gimnasia y Esgrima La Plata	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Deportivo Godoy Cruz Antonio Tomba	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Atlético Lanús	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Atlético Newell's Old Boys	Yes
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Racing Club	No
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Atlético Tigre	Yes
CONMEBOL	Argentina	Club Atlético Vélez Sarsfield	Yes
OFC	Papua New Guinea	Besta United PNG FC	No
OFC	Papua New Guinea	Eastern stars FC	No
OFC	Papua New Guinea	Petroleum Resources Kutubu Hekari United FC	No
OFC	Papua New Guinea	Lae FC	No

*Newcastle Jets – questionnaire was completed by the former CEO who was at the club during the 2013/14 season. No other questionnaire was received from the current club management.

**MLS teams – given that the league declined to participate in the research project, we were unable to send the questionnaire to most clubs.

3. League questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEAGUES (these questions concern the 2013/14 or 2014 season)

A. Governance, ownership of clubs and clubs representation at the league

Club-level focus – from a league regulation perspective

- In your league, do you have specific regulations on what types of ownership of clubs are allowed (multiple/single shareholders, etc.)?
- From a league regulation perspective are there any specific requirements when someone wants to become a club owner?
- Can an owner have shares in several clubs in the league? Or in other leagues or other team sports?

- Does the league have a policy for the suspension/exclusion of a club owner or shareholder? If yes, on what grounds/reasons?
- Are there any standard league regulations on the appointment of club officials at the club level?

League focus – regulations and policies

- What is the composition of the league general assembly? Which stakeholders are represented?
- How is the voting power distributed?
- Does the general assembly include stakeholders that are not member clubs? If yes, who are they? How are these representatives appointed and what is the term of their mandate?
- What is the composition of the league ExCo/board? Which stakeholders are represented?
- How is the voting power distributed?
- How are the ExCo/board members appointed?
- What is the term of their mandate?
- What is the frequency of meeting of the ExCo/board?
- What is the procedure for appointing/electing the president/CEO of the league?
- What conditions or requirements must be met by the individual in order to be appointed president/CEO of the league?
- What is the term of the mandate of the league president/CEO?

B. Rights and obligations of the league and the clubs

Finance

- Do clubs have to pay a participation fee to the league?
- Do clubs have to give a percentage of their revenues to the league?
- Are the league's marketing and media/broadcast rights sold and managed by the individual clubs or collectively by the league?
- How are the league revenues distributed among the clubs?
- Does the league exercise any control over the clubs' finances? Does the league ask the clubs for an audit report/accounts?
- What are the consequences for a club which could have financial difficulties/become bankrupt?

Infrastructure/facilities

- Are there any regulations concerning stadia ownership?
- Is there a minimum stadia capacity?
- Are there league regulations concerning stadium security? If yes, who is responsible (club, local authority...)?

Players' status, transfers and contracts

- Are there any league requirements concerning the type and the duration of the players contracts?
- Are there any league requirements concerning the players' salary? Are there any minimum/maximum salary regulations or any specific conditions for the salary (e.g. for academy players)?
- Are there any specific conditions concerning contract termination/breach?
- Are there any regulations concerning the hiring of foreign players or home grown players (e.g. a maximum per club)?
- Are there minimum/maximum numbers of foreign players or home grown players on the pitch/team sheet?
- Are there any restrictions concerning third-party ownership (TPO)?
- When are the transfer window periods?

Disciplinary/legal matters

- What are the main disciplinary instances of the league? What is the general procedure when it comes to disciplinary matters?
- Do league regulations require recognition of CAS for all disputes and forbid clubs/players from appealing to public courts?

Promotion/relegation/closed leagues

- What are the criteria/conditions (sporting and non-sporting) in order to be promoted/relegated?
- Who fixes the criteria for promotion/relegation (league or national association)?
- Does the league supply any assistance/parachute payments to relegated teams?
- What are the entry criteria and process for new clubs in the league? What are the criteria for removing clubs?

4. Club questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CLUBS (these questions concern the 2013/2014 or 2014 season)

A. Overall legal frameworks

- What is the legal form of your club (joint stock/limited company, association, franchise, etc.)?
- What is your club's ownership structure (multiple/single shareholders, multiple shareholders with/without majority shareholder, membership/*socios*, owned by the state, etc.)? If there are shares, how are the shares distributed among the shareholders?
- If relevant, is the football section/the professional section separated from the rest of the club?

B. Internal governance

- Chairman/president/CEO: How are the chairman/president/CEO of your club appointed and are there any specific conditions to be appointed? What are their powers?
- Board/ExCo: How are the board/executive committee members of your club appointed and are there any specific conditions to be appointed? What are their powers? Do they represent any particular shareholder/body? How is the decision-making power structured (e.g. voting power related to the number of shares)?
- General assembly: Is there a general assembly? If yes, who are the members (do they represent any particular body?) and how are the votes distributed? What is the function of the general assembly?
- Administration: How many employees does your club have? What are the different departments of the club and what are their functions?

C. Role of supporters

- Are there official supporters groups? How many in 2013/14 or 2014? How many season ticket holders did you have in 2013/14 or 2014?
- Are there official links/exchanges between the supporters and the club? Do supporters have decision making powers in the club management? Does the club delegate some responsibilities or official functions to the

supporters (e.g. managing a foundation/supporters trust, selling tickets for their own sections in the stadium,...)?

D. Role of the community

- What are the links/exchanges between the club and the local authorities?
- Is the club involved in community support programmes? How many and what kind of programmes?
- Does your club rely on volunteers (e.g. working on match days as stadium stewards, food/beverage vendors, etc.)?

5. FIFA Ranking

This is the FIFA country ranking from 18 December 2014 used as the basis for the three ranking groups.

Table n°48: FIFA Ranking (18 December 2014)

Rank	Code	Country name	Points	Rank	Code	Country name	Points
1	GER	Germany	1725	22	TUN	Tunisia	867
2	ARG	Argentina	1538	23	AUT	Austria	863
3	COL	Colombia	1450	24	GRE	Greece	856
4	BEL	Belgium	1417	25	UKR	Ukraine	854
5	NED	Netherlands	1374	26	ECU	Ecuador	852
6	BRA	Brazil	1316	27	USA	USA	836
7	POR	Portugal	1160	28	CIV	Côte d'Ivoire	833
7	FRA	France	1160	29	BIH	Bosnia and Herzegovina	817
9	ESP	Spain	1142	30	DEN	Denmark	804
10	URU	Uruguay	1135	31	RUS	Russia	789
11	ITA	Italy	1103	32	ISR	Israel	788
12	SUI	Switzerland	1091	33	ISL	Iceland	761
13	ENG	England	1032	34	WAL	Wales	748
14	CHI	Chile	1022	35	SEN	Senegal	734
15	ROU	Romania	1014	36	SCO	Scotland	729
16	CRC	Costa Rica	997	37	GHA	Ghana	714
17	CZE	Czech Republic	987	38	SRB	Serbia	713
18	ALG	Algeria	948	39	GUI	Guinea	706
19	CRO	Croatia	946	40	CPV	Cape Verde Islands	693
20	MEX	Mexico	913	41	POL	Poland	680
21	SVK	Slovakia	891	42	CMR	Cameroon	665

Rank	Code	Country name	Points	Rank	Code	Country name	Points
43	NGA	Nigeria	656	88	VEN	Venezuela	369
44	SWE	Sweden	646	89	BEN	Benin	361
45	HUN	Hungary	632	90	MWI	Malawi	358
46	ZAM	Zambia	625	90	SLV	El Salvador	358
47	SVN	Slovenia	622	92	LTU	Lithuania	355
48	NIR	Northern Ireland	615	93	OMA	Oman	347
49	TUR	Turkey	604	94	ATG	Antigua and Barbuda	344
50	MLI	Mali	603	95	QAT	Qatar	342
51	IRN	Iran	580	96	LVA	Latvia	339
52	RSA	South Africa	579	97	CHN	China PR	336
53	PER	Peru	565	98	MOZ	Mozambique	332
54	JPN	Japan	563	99	BLR	Belarus	331
55	TRI	Trinidad and Tobago	551	100	MKD	FYR Macedonia	324
56	COD	Congo DR	548	100	AUS	Australia	324
57	PAN	Panama	547	102	KSA	Saudi Arabia	323
58	ALB	Albania	543	103	IRQ	Iraq	320
59	MNE	Montenegro	537	104	FRO	Faroe Islands	317
60	EGY	Egypt	531	105	TAN	Tanzania	314
61	CGO	Congo	529	106	DOM	Dominican Republic	310
62	TOG	Togo	524	107	BOT	Botswana	309
63	BFA	Burkina Faso	523	108	ZIM	Zimbabwe	308
64	IRL	Republic of Ireland	519	109	NAM	Namibia	295
65	GAB	Gabon	511	110	SDN	Sudan	294
66	BUL	Bulgaria	506	111	ETH	Ethiopia	290
67	NOR	Norway	500	112	CAN	Canada	286
68	RWA	Rwanda	494	113	PLE	Palestine	271
69	KOR	Korea Republic	481	113	CUB	Cuba	271
70	FIN	Finland	468	115	LBR	Liberia	268
71	HON	Honduras	461	116	KEN	Kenya	261
72	GUA	Guatemala	458	116	NIG	Niger	261
72	HAI	Haiti	458	118	SKN	St. Kitts and Nevis	258
74	UZB	Uzbekistan	454	119	VIN	St. Vincent & the Grenadines	256
75	JAM	Jamaica	449	120	EQG	Equatorial Guinea	251
76	UGA	Uganda	438	121	MDA	Moldova	250
76	PAR	Paraguay	438	122	BHR	Bahrain	249
78	LBY	Libya	437	123	LES	Lesotho	247
79	ARM	Armenia	436	124	KUW	Kuwait	246
80	ANG	Angola	395	125	GEO	Georgia	239
81	MAR	Morocco	393	126	LIB	Lebanon	238
81	UAE	United Arab Emirates	393	127	BDI	Burundi	232
81	JOR	Jordan	393	128	LUX	Luxembourg	230
84	EST	Estonia	390	129	ARU	Aruba	221
85	BOL	Bolivia	375	130	MDV	Maldives	220
86	SLE	Sierra Leone	374	130	PHI	Philippines	220
87	CYP	Cyprus	372	132	LIE	Liechtenstein	219

Rank	Code	Country name	Points
133	GNB	Guinea-Bissau	218
134	NZL	New Zealand	216
135	AZE	Azerbaijan	215
135	TJK	Tajikistan	215
137	MTN	Mauritania	211
137	VIE	Vietnam	211
139	KAZ	Kazakhstan	205
140	LCA	St. Lucia	202
141	MYA	Myanmar	200
142	THA	Thailand	194
143	AFG	Afghanistan	190
144	BRB	Barbados	183
145	CTA	Central African Republic	178
146	CHA	Chad	172
147	MLT	Malta	166
147	TKM	Turkmenistan	166
147	MAD	Madagascar	166
150	PRK	Korea DPR	156
151	SYR	Syria	154
152	KGZ	Kyrgyzstan	146
153	NCL	New Caledonia	142
154	MAS	Malaysia	138
155	GRN	Grenada	137
156	HKG	Hong Kong	134
157	SIN	Singapore	131
158	CUW	Curaçao	125
159	IDN	Indonesia	123
160	LAO	Laos	121
161	GUM	Guam	119
161	PUR	Puerto Rico	119
163	SUR	Suriname	115
164	SWZ	Swaziland	113
165	BAN	Bangladesh	103
166	TAH	Tahiti	100
167	GUY	Guyana	92
168	GAM	Gambia	90
169	MSR	Montserrat	86
170	STP	São Tomé e Príncipe	84
171	IND	India	79

Rank	Code	Country name	Points
172	SRI	Sri Lanka	78
173	COM	Comoros	75
173	NCA	Nicaragua	75
175	BLZ	Belize	74
176	YEM	Yemen	69
177	TCA	Turks and Caicos Islands	66
178	SEY	Seychelles	62
179	BER	Bermuda	55
179	SMR	San Marino	55
179	CAM	Cambodia	55
182	TPE	Chinese Taipei	54
183	SOL	Solomon Islands	53
184	DMA	Dominica	52
185	TLS	Timor-Leste	51
186	NEP	Nepal	49
186	MAC	Macau	49
188	PAK	Pakistan	45
189	SSD	South Sudan	43
190	MRI	Mauritius	36
191	VAN	Vanuatu	33
192	FIJ	Fiji	30
192	SAM	Samoa	30
194	MNG	Mongolia	29
195	BAH	Bahamas	26
196	TGA	Tonga	17
197	VIR	US Virgin Islands	16
198	BRU	Brunei Darussalam	15
199	PNG	Papua New Guinea	13
200	ASA	American Samoa	12
201	AND	Andorra	9
202	VGB	British Virgin Islands	8
202	ERI	Eritrea	8
204	SOM	Somalia	6
205	CAY	Cayman Islands	5
206	DJI	Djibouti	4
206	COK	Cook Islands	4
208	AIA	Anguilla	2
209	BHU	Bhutan	0

Building on the first CIES governance study about national associations and leagues, this second FIFA-mandated research analyses the league-club relationship as well as internal club governance models. The authors draw on core areas of club licensing as a basis for an exploratory global comparative analysis of a sample of eighteen leagues and one-hundred and forty-one clubs spanning all six confederations.

Covered here are topics including ownership requirements, political representation and decision-making, financial rights and obligations, players' status, infrastructure, promotion/relegation and the disciplinary process. The authors outline the limits of where league responsibilities end and club ones begin. At the club level, the study explores the questions of legal form, political representation and management, administrative structure and the role of supporters and links with the community.

The authors highlight the variety of league-club relationships and internal club governance models across the globe. In general, clubs have a strong voice in the management and governance of their leagues. However, the club-league relationships are far from uniform around the world and cannot be categorized as simply either 'horizontal' or 'vertical'. Clubs themselves have diverse internal governance structures, even if there are some common practices.

This book serves as a blueprint for future global benchmarking across leagues and clubs. The research will be a valuable resource for professional football stakeholders as well as the academic field.

Camille Boillat, a geographer by training, is a scientific collaborator at the International Centre for Sport Studies (CIES), while Kevin Tallec Marston, who earned his PhD in history, works as a research fellow, CIES Academic projects manager and teaches on the FIFA Master programme.

