

SOURCES AND RESOURCES FOR FUNDING SPORT IN EUROPE

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Abstract

Direct or indirect public funding of sports activities is a reality in all European countries, except that political and legal funding models differ according to culture and civilisation, sports tradition and sports practitioners, mentalities and financial power. Private funding of sport or self-financing of sport is complementary to public funding and must ensure, in particular through revenue from games, betting and lotteries, revenue from the exploitation of property rights in sporting events and competitions, revenue from intellectual property rights, revenue from the issue and sale of securities, revenue from sponsorship, revenue from the transfer of professional athletes, adequate and sufficient funding for the development and support of sporting competitions and participation in sporting competitions. Contemporary sport is a complex machine that is constantly fed with considerable amounts of money in order to function and produce competitive performance. Without funding, sport cannot be competitive, it cannot achieve its specific goals in a world where the profit motive is irresistible.

Keynotes: *public funding; private funding; revenue; sport; sport competitions.*

JEL Classification: Z23, K30.

1. FINANCIAL BACKGROUND

The budget is the modern instrument of state intervention in economic and social activities. The transfer of resources from public funds to the various beneficiaries increases their cash resources, increasing the possibilities for development and consumption. The national public budget plays a particularly important role in the complex process of distributing and redistributing net social product in the national economy and between the state and the population (Costaş and Tofan, 2023).

Financial control of the state is wide-ranging, covering all areas of social and economic life that are linked to the public sector: from economic and military life to education, health and sport.

Public funding of sports activities is a reality in most countries of the world, with different political and legal models depending on culture, level of civilisation, mentality and financial power. The regulatory framework divides powers to finance sport between the state and the territorial administrative units.

The idea of financing sport has multiple connotations involving: financing sports clubs, financing sports competitions, financing sports events, financing athletes, financing other participants in sports competitions (e.g. coaches).

European doctrine has shown that developments in recent decades - the transformation of top-level sport to adapt to the market economy, the increased media coverage of competitions, the commercialisation of sporting events, the professionalisation of athletes - have contributed to changing the structure of financial flows in sport. It has been noted in this context that there is a double divide in practice:

- between professional and amateur sport, on the one hand;
- between football, the main beneficiary of private funding, and other sports, on the other hand (Buy, Marmayou and Porrachia, 2020).

From the point of view of EU law, it has never seemed sufficiently concerned to confer effective powers on the European institutions in the field of sport, even though sport was brought to the fore in European policies alongside other areas such as 'education' or 'youth'. Today, the content of Article 165 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union reveals the intention to create bridges between two fundamentally different structures: the sports movement and the European Union. The regulation betrays this desire, except that the institutional approach is relatively complicated, partly because, geographically and politically, the European Union currently comprises 27 Member States, while the European Football Union (UEFA) comprises 53 Member States.

Are affiliated to UEFA, in addition to the Member States of the European Union: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Faroe Islands, Northern Ireland, Georgia, Gibraltar, Iceland, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Liechtenstein, North Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Russia, San Marino, Scotland, Serbia, Switzerland, Turkey, Wales, Ukraine. Some of these countries are not even geographically located in Europe, but are nevertheless accepted by UEFA in competitions organized under its aegis (Put and Costas, 2021).

2. PUBLIC FUNDING OF SPORT

If at the time of the emergence of modern sports and the first associative structures in the mid-19th century, the financial dimension was completely neglected in the context of the existing sports frenzy, in today's world, public funding of sport is a reality, a certainty and a necessity, because grassroots sport, as opposed to performance sport, cannot obtain sufficient resources from private funding. In contrast to the American model, where sport is supported at national level, mainly in terms of infrastructure, and then developed systemically, on various levels, up to college level, from which it jumps to high performance, the main objective of which is to maximise profits, the European model is a syncretic one, different for each individual country. It has been pointed out in doctrine that

the originality of the American model was to implement instruments to regulate economic competition between clubs so as not to compromise sporting competition. The European model, unlike the American model, has long been dominated by the primacy of the sporting objective (ranking) over the economic outcome, but the situation is more complex. While the mechanism of participation in certain competitions always depends on the sporting ranking, the latter is increasingly linked to the financial capacity of clubs. The question is whether this increase in financial criteria will not lead to the emergence of a system similar to the model across the Atlantic (Bourg and Gougnet, 2005). The question is not just rhetorical, because beyond the purely sporting objective, the mercantile objective is increasingly present, especially in strong European football competitions.

Public financing of sport does not imply the identification of sports associations or clubs with the state or its offshoots, state institutions, because sports teams owned by public institutions will face numerous limitations due to their character as departmental teams, such as the impossibility of promoting to the elite echelon of a domestic competition or with the impossibility of participating in European competition.

In the first case, the much-debated case of the CSA Steaua Bucharest football team, which has no right to promotion to the Romanian Super League this season and is lobbying for a change in the sports rules, but does not call into question a change in the public "shareholding". In the second case, the pre-war debate about the football clubs Lokomotiv Moscow or Zenit St. Petersburg which were owned by Russian state companies at the time of their participation in competitions under the auspices of UEFA.

The main ways of achieving public financing of sport are through: resources obtained through betting and gambling, resources obtained through taxes, fees or contributions, respectively budgetary allocations.

2.1. Resources obtained through betting and gambling

It is well known that states generally have a monopoly on the organisation of gambling, in the sense that the organisation and conduct of betting and gambling is in principle prohibited to private individuals, unless they are licensed to carry out an operator activity in the matter. The monopoly allows the States to lay down the rules for the conduct of gambling, *i.e.* the rules on financing and the destination of the sums collected.

In Romania, according to the provisions of GEO no. 77/2009 on the organization and operation of gambling published in OM no. 439 din 26 June 2009, as subsequently amended and supplemented, the organization and operation of gambling activity on the territory of Romania constitutes a state monopoly, the administration of the state monopoly being carried out by the National Gambling Office (art. 1 paragraph (1ind.1)). The State may grant the right to organize and

operate gambling activity on the basis of a gambling license for each type of activity and a gambling operating license for a limited period of time.

Therefore, European countries have agreed to channel part of the revenue collected from betting and gambling mainly towards the development of sports infrastructure and the support of Olympic sports and their representation at the Olympic Games. It has been pointed out in the doctrine that due to the limited nature of budgetary allocations, revenue from the operation of gambling is one of the ways of increasing funds for sport. Thus, from a historical perspective, England seems to have led the way in the 1990s when, against the backdrop of support for elite sports under the heading "winning medals are just as important as getting people to take part in sports", the National Lottery of England's resources supported amateur sport, Olympic sports and contributed to the development of sports infrastructure. Finland funds almost the entire sports sector through the national lottery (Veikkaus), while Germany allocates funds from this source to the German Olympic Committee (35%), the German Sport Aid Foundation (25%) and the regional sports confederations (40%), and the Netherlands funds sport through three entities: the Dutch Lottery, the Sponsor Bingo Lottery and the Lotto. Croatia provided 30-35% of its sport funding from this source, and Montenegro only 14%. In fact, as indicated at this stage, the funding of sport through betting and gambling revenues varies between 0.3 (Serbia) or 0.4 (Romania) euro/person/year and 26 euro/person/year (Denmark) (Rogic, Radonjic and Djuriscic, 2018).

2.2. Resources raised through taxes, duties and contributions

In general, taxes or contributions are not allocated entirely or primarily to public funding of sport, as states have other priorities for spending public money. However, they represent important resources in the field, because sport is a social field with specific needs. We distinguish sport in this context from physical education and its didactic specificity.

This category may include tax levies on the income of agencies or companies operating gambling, fees and contributions associated with sporting events, value added tax on admission tickets to sporting events (a tax which, for example, France only applied under pressure from the European Commission from 1 January 2015) and so on. For example, in France, the National Sports Agency collects around 1.8% of the annual revenue of Française des jeux, with a maximum ceiling set by law. Regarding the contribution, this may include the contribution for the transfer to a television service of broadcasting rights to sporting events and competitions, governed by Article 302 bis ZE of the French Tax Code, amounting to 5% of the value of receipts. In Romania, a reduced VAT rate of 5% is applied to services consisting of allowing access to sporting events (Article 291(3)(b) of the Tax Code) and to the right of use of sports facilities whose activities fall under CAEN codes 9311 and 9313 (Article 291(3)(f) of the

Tax Code). However, it should be noted that according to Art. 292 para. (1) lit. l) C. fisc. VAT is exempt for the supply of services closely linked to the practice of sport or physical education, carried out by non-profit organizations for persons practicing sport or physical education.

In Romania it was established by Law No 3/1992 Published in OM no. 10 from 31 January 1992 the Olympic stamp which had a value of 500 ROL and was applied to every ticket sold at any sporting event in the country and was included in the ticket sale price. Today, according to Article 75 (b) of Law No 69/2000 on Physical Education and Sport Published în M. Of. nr. 200 from 9 May 2000, the Olympic stamp is 10% of the value of all access tickets to sports events, and failure to pay the Olympic stamp to the COSR constitutes a contravention, governed by Article 88 (i) of the Law.

At the same time, in Romania, local authorities levy the entertainment tax, regulated by Articles 480 - 483 of the Tax Code, which in the case of sporting events is 2% of the ticket price and must be paid to the local budget by the 10th of the month following the month in which the sporting event or competition took place (Costaş and Puţ, 2023).

2.3. Resources obtained through budgetary allocations

Funding sport through national, regional or local public budget allocations is a reality for most countries. For example, according to a Eurostat release of 23 September 2020, in 2018 the 27 EU Member States used the EUR 50.7 billion to finance the "recreation and sport" category of expenditure (a relatively stable proportion of total public expenditure since 2001). Some of the figures presented are relevant:

- Bulgaria (€11/inhabitant/year), Romania (€30) and Slovakia (€31) allocate the least resources to this area, far behind the EU-27 average (€113) and the top three countries in the ranking (Luxembourg - €500, Sweden - €254, Finland - €226).
- As a proportion of total public expenditure, Bulgaria, Ireland and Malta account for a total of 0.4% of total expenditure on recreation and sport, while Hungary supports the field with 2.1% of total public expenditure.

Relatively recently, at European Union level, European Council Resolution 2020/C 419/01 adopted the so-called European Union Work Plan for Sport (1 January 2021 - 30 June 2024) Published in J.O.U.E. C 419/1 from 4 Dec. 2020. From a public funding perspective, the actions envisaged by the Union will be considered in the context of sport's contribution to regional development, with the possibility of using European funding programmers (Recovery and Resilience Facility, React-EU, Structural Funds).

For example, in France, amateur sport and high-level sport are funded by both the National Agency for Sport and the local authorities. In this respect, according to Article L.112-16 of the Sports Code, the Agency concludes with the

French State a "convention of objectives" for a period of 3 to 5 years with clear elements: determination of the actions within the framework of public sports policy which are entrusted to the Agency; setting of the Agency's objectives; determination of the public resources made available to the Agency within this multiannual framework. These resources come mainly from the tax levies assigned to the Agency - part of the revenue generated by the Française des Jeux company, the sums staked on sports betting and the revenue from the transfer of audiovisual rights to sporting events and competitions. The sums available to the Agency are allocated to approved sports federations, regional conferences, territorial authorities or other public bodies involved in sport, on the same model. Local and regional authorities also contribute to supporting amateur and top-level sport through direct aid (grants and, in exceptional cases justified by a local public interest, loans) and indirect aid (loan guarantees, provision of public sports equipment, provision of public agents). In the specific context of public funding mechanisms, which is not only the case in France, indirect aid must also be taken into account, which can take the form of the provision of sports infrastructure, tax amnesty for the tax liabilities of sports structures or sportsmen and sportswomen, the guarantee of loans for national or local sport or the provision of free or privileged services to sports structures.

As far as professional sport is concerned, it can attract funds under grant agreements, provided that they comply with European competition rules, strictly to support the training of athletes, the fight against violence, educational, integration and social cohesion actions. On the other hand, local and regional authorities can conclude service agreements with professional clubs whereby they can either buy advertising space in sports arenas or purchase tickets for sports events organised by the professional club and distribute them locally (e.g. to local schoolchildren).

There have been several "Spanish" cases in which European courts have censured subsidies granted: General Court EU, from 26 february 2019, case T-679/16, *Athletic Club Bilbao v. European Comission*, ECLI:EU:T:2019:112; Tribunal UE from 20 march 2019, case T-766/16, *Hércules Alicante v. European Comission*, ECLI:EU:T:2019:173; Tribunalul UE, case from 22 may 2019, case T-791/16, *Real Madrid v. European Comission* ECLI:EU:T:2019:346. Instead, European courts have validated public aid granted in the Czech Republic to non-profit organisations for the construction and operation of sports facilities (Tribunal UE, case from 12 may 2016, case T-693/14, *Hamr-Sport a.s. v. European Comission*, ECLI:EU:T:2016:292) or subsidies granted in Germany for the construction and operation of climbing centres (TribunalUE, case from 9 june 2016, case T-162/13, *Magic Mountain Kletterhallen GmbH and others v. Eurpean Comission*, ECLI:EU:T:2016:341).

2.4. About public funding of sport in Romania

Title IX of Law No 69/2000 regulates „Financing of sports activities”. According to the provisions of Art. 69 para. (1), non-profit sports structures and the Romanian Olympic and Sports Committee may benefit from occasional allocations from the state budget and local budgets, depending on the availability of public budgets and under the conditions set by the public authorities, to finance sports programmes, under the conditions described in the following section to reflect the latest legislative changes. In addition, in accordance with the general provisions of Article 69 (2) of the Treaty, the Commission shall take the necessary steps to ensure that the general provisions of Article 69 (2) of the Treaty are complied with. (4) of Law No 69/2000, public law sports structures may also benefit from other (public) sources of income, namely income from the exploitation of assets in their patrimony.

For the purposes of Article 70 para. (1) of the law, the Ministry of Youth and Sport finances its activity through annual allocations from the state budget and local budgets, respectively revenues from the proceeds of the National Company "Romanian Lottery" SA. Unlike occasional allocations, on a project basis, annual budget allocations are in principle fixed and are determined by the institution's budget, approved under the law. In addition, according to Art. 44 lit. c) of the Implementing Regulation (2001), the Ministry must also benefit from a 1% levy on national taxes and excise duties on cigarettes and alcoholic beverages.

The county youth and sport directorates and the Bucharest municipality are publicly funded from the following sources [Art. 70 (2) of Law No 69/2000]:

- annual budget allocations;
- a 30% share of the tax on sports events held in the respective county (according to Article 50 of the Regulation, this share is payable monthly by natural and legal persons organising sports events for a fee, by the 15th of the following month);
- income obtained from the revaluation of their assets.

According to Article 71 of the law, national sports federations may benefit, in addition to budgetary and project allocations, from the income from the exploitation of assets in their patrimony. At the same time, sports clubs are financed by [Article 71 (2) of Law No 69/2000]: subsidies from the State budget and local budgets granted to sports clubs governed by public law by the central and/or local public administration bodies under which they operate and by the local public administration bodies of the administrative-territorial unit concerned; revenue from the exploitation of assets belonging to them.

The Romanian Olympic and Sports Committee benefits, according to art. 75 of Law no. 69/2000, besides budgetary allocations, from other sources of public funds: the Olympic stamp (10% of the value of all access tickets to sports events); revenues from the proceeds of the National Company "Romanian Lottery" SA; revenues from the organization and operation of sports betting and betting. It

should be noted that, according to Article 47 of the Regulation, the Ministry of Youth and Sport transfers monthly to the COSR account, by the 5th of the following month, a share of 25% of the revenue it collects by way of 1% levy on taxes and excise duties applied at national level for cigarettes and alcoholic beverages.

As I pointed out on another occasion, in terms of local public funding of sport, both in law and in practice, until 2017 in Romania there was only disagreement, because there were no legal provisions regulating this hypothesis (Puț, 2018).

Today, the financing of sports clubs can be carried out by local or county administrative-territorial units without being limited by any regulatory ceiling, because by Law 90/2018 Published in M. Of. no. 335 from 17 april 2018 for the approval of Government Emergency Ordinance No 38/2017 on amending and supplementing the Law on Physical Education and Sport No 69/2000, the cap on sports funding of up to 5% by local public authorities introduced in 2017 has been waived. For example, in Hungary they have opted to prioritise public investment in sport. This is because a programme has been adopted to fund five sports of national interest - swimming, polo, football, handball and basketball - with a basically unlimited budget. The remaining federations receive reduced public funding gradually, with the federations being divided by category by regulation. The main sources of funding are direct subsidies allocated to sport in the budget.

The sports entity seeking funding submits an application for funding for one of the sports programmes and if its application is declared eligible will conclude a funding contract with the funding public entity.

3. PRIVATE FUNDING OF SPORT

Private funding of European sport should be the most important resource of modern sport and is predominantly generated from: income from gambling, betting and lotteries, income from the exploitation of property rights in sports events and competitions, income from intellectual property rights, income from the issue and sale of securities, income from sponsorship, income from the transfer of professional athletes. In this paradigm, the relationship between five components must be taken into account: assets, liability, capital, income and expenditure (Stewart, 2017). Despite being formalised and organised as sports associations, sports structures must draw up a financial-accounting plan showing the relationship between income and expenditure in order to ensure the financial coherence necessary for the smooth running of the activity. Apart from public funding, which depends on external factors such as political colour or doctrine, the size of the state budget and the coexistence of investment projects, private funding sources must be sufficiently well configured to ensure that the current expenditure of sports associations or clubs is covered.

3.1. Gambling, betting and lottery resources

In some jurisdictions, private funding of sport can also be provided through gaming, betting and lottery revenues, to the extent that these are organised directly by sports federations, professional leagues or other organisers of sporting events. For example, it has been pointed out in French doctrine that, following the Law of 12 May 2010 liberalising the organisation of online sports betting, the organisers of sporting events in France have been given the possibility of exploiting financially the right to organise online betting in the context of these events and thus obtain financial resources. Also (Buy, Marmayou and Porrachia, 2020) confirm that we are dealing with an extremely strict regulation, which poses problems also from the point of view of ethical rules, so as to minimise the risk of manipulation of sports competitions

3.2. Resources accruing from the exploitation of property rights in sporting events and competitions

The exploitation of the sport specificity and of sport competitions and the ownership of them is a major source of funding for sport, especially as it involves revenue from:

- sale of tickets and season tickets (physically or online);
- assignment of audiovisual rights;
- *merchandising*. In fact, the marketing of various promotional items (customised pieces of sports equipment, balls, etc.) generates significant revenues for the big sports clubs that associate their image with newly transferred athletes or team stars.
- allowing visitors access to the museum and club facilities. Admission fees are charged for visiting the trophy museum and the Santiago Bernabeu stadium (stands and reserve bench area) in Madrid.
- marketing of photographs, phonograms, objects of athletes, books dedicated to sporting events (e.g. balls used during tennis tournaments);
- allowing access to selected suppliers inside the arena (e.g. food and beverage retailers, home team sports equipment retailers), etc.

3.3. Resources from intellectual property rights

The benefits of exploiting intellectual property rights are important in the world of sport. Attempts to brand sporting events are ubiquitous. Under the conditions laid down in the specific legislation of each country or under the conditions laid down in European legislation, recognition of the trademark and its protection for a certain period of time is obtained. Ensuring legal protection entitles the trademark owner to take legal action against any person who infringes his exclusive rights and also to monetise his right. Perhaps the most eloquent example is the International Olympic Committee and the national Olympic committees, which are the owners of the Olympic emblems and other elements

likely to be associated with the Olympic Games (motto, anthem, Olympic symbol, etc.). Other distinctive signs such as the trade name and the emblem also benefit from protection.

3.4. Resources from issue and sale of securities

As professional sports clubs gain economic strength associated with sports performance, they also become interested in listing on the stock exchange (Buy, Marmayou and Porrachia, 2020). Thus, it is well known that the major players in sport make revenues from three major components: commercial (sponsorship and retail activities, merchandising, sale of sports products and equipment, licensing of club-branded products); television rights (transfer of audiovisual rights); sports competitions (*e.g.* some clubs sell tens of thousands of tickets for each match and have a 10-year waiting list for available boxes, which are reserved for longer periods of time). Therefore, in order to grow further and make a significant profit, these clubs choose to make themselves accessible to investors. For example, there are currently several listed football clubs, such as Manchester United (market value \$2.4 billion), Juventus Torino (€1.2 billion), Borussia Dortmund (€525 million) or Ajax Amsterdam (€281 million).

3.5. Sponsorship resources

The Sport is a universal social phenomenon. The specificity of competition, the desire for success, the unique intimate thrill of winning a competition attract a multitude of sponsors who want to be in the best seats in the stadiums and as close as possible to the main players who are the athletes. Signing a sponsorship contract makes it easier for them to achieve these goals, in return for money. Sponsorships are directed either to *specific athletes*, either to *certain clubs*, but also to sports federations or professional leagues (professional leagues have been known to adopt the names of sponsors for their own competitions - *e.g.* Superleague).

Regarding an example where sponsorships are directed to *specific athletes*, we have in mind the footballer player Cristiano Ronaldo's list of sponsors which includes Nike, Herbalife, EA Sports and Tag Heuer, while tennis player Roger Federer has income from Uniqlo, Nike, Wilson, Credit Suisse, Mercedes, Rolex, Lindt, Jura, Moët & Chandon, Sunrise and NetJets etc.

When we talk about a *certain club*, in 2022, the list of major sponsors in world football included Real Madrid (Emirates, \$413 million from 2017 to 2022), Tottenham Hotspurs (AIA, \$400 million from 2019 to 2027), Manchester United (Team Viewer), Barcelona (Rakuten), Bayern Munich (T-Mobile), Arsenal London (Emirates), Liverpool (Standard Chartered).

3.6. Resources obtained from the transfer of professional athletes

It has been shown (Buy, Marmayou and Porrachia, 2020) that the first transfers took place in England from 1888 to satisfy three objectives at Football

League level: to organise a competition between professional clubs; to set a salary cap for players; and to impose an obligation on both players and clubs to obtain League authorisation for any transfer to a new club. Of course, over time, the field of transfers has evolved significantly and the Bosman case law has reduced the number of sports transfers. Today, transfers are, as a general rule, absent from individual sports (athletics, golf, tennis) and genuine events in certain team sports. The excitement associated with the close of a market period (when transfers are allowed) is akin to that of a political election or stock market atmosphere, with suspense, bidding, extensive media coverage, social media interest, coups d'etat and so on.

They are, however, a very important source of revenue, especially for smaller clubs, for whom a transfer of their own player to a top club can be a godsend. In European football, as a rule, clubs from Eastern Europe: Serbia, Ukraine, Hungary, Romania, also support and develop themselves through transfers to Europe's strong championships. It is enough to recall the transfer of Mykhailo Mudrik from Shakhtar Donetsk to Chelsea London in 2023 for 100 million euros.

3.7. About private sources of funding sport in Romania

According to the provisions of Law No 69/2000, the sources of private funding are as follows:

- membership fees and contributions in cash or in kind from supporters;
- donations and legacies, in cash or in kind;
- income from advertising and publicity;
- income from the sale of tickets and season tickets for sporting events and competitions;
- allowances from participation in sports competitions and demonstrations;
- compensation obtained from the transfer of sportsmen and sportswomen [e.g. under Article 71 (1) (f) of Act No 69/2020, national sports federations are entitled to 10% of the domestic and international transfer fees of athletes, which constitute a source of funding for children's and youth sports activities, including school clubs];
- sponsorships;
- a 15% share of the market value of sports facilities that are disused or have changed their use, owned by private sports structures in the county concerned;
- income obtained from economic activities carried out in connection with the purpose and object of activity of the sports facilities management units;
- dues, fees, contributions, penalties applied by sports institutions (determined according to their statutes and regulations);

- a 5% share of the proceeds from the sale of entry tickets to official sports competitions organised by professional leagues (naturally, they collect this contribution for the events they sponsor);
- a 2% share of the revenue from contracts concluded by professional sports clubs for advertising, publicity and TV rights (the right to charge this percentage lies with the professional leagues);
- dues, contributions and penalties imposed on its members, athletes, coaches and other technicians by sports clubs, in accordance with their statutes and regulations;
- sums obtained from the transfer of athletes;
- contributions from the International Olympic Committee and Olympic Solidarity;
- income from the granting of the right to use the emblem of the Romanian Olympic Committee and other property rights (Puț and Costăș, 2021).

4. CONCLUSIONS

European sport benefits from multiple sources of funding. However, without consistent public funding, without the creation of training, training and competition bases and without minimal tax incentives to encourage private investment, European sport will not be able to progress, and if we look at Eastern European sport, it will not be able to survive, because it will not be able to sustain the necessary expenditure solely from the private collection of revenue, especially if sports structures can only go as far as the anti-performance chamber. In addition to national, regional or local public funding, there are significant private funding models in operation that are designed to provide the majority of resources for sports associations and clubs to enable them to achieve great sporting performance. In summary, sport funding and sport performance are interdependent.

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