CONTENT ANALYSIS: STRUCTURE AND COMPOSITION OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS IN AQUATIC SPORTS NATIONAL GOVERNING BODIES BETWEEN SOUTH KOREA AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

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CONTENT ANALYSIS: STRUCTURE AND COMPOSITION OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS IN AQUATIC SPORTS NATIONAL GOVERNING BODIES BETWEEN SOUTH KOREA AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

by

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ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to explain some elements of the different structures and systems of aquatic sports national governing bodies between South Korea and the United States of America. In order to examine the differences between two countries, the paper investigates the history of both countries at the Olympic Games and aquatic sports governing bodies in two nations. Content analysis was conducted to compare the two countries and analyze compositions of members’ backgrounds on the Board of Directors in each aquatic sport governing bodies.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Swimming, Diving, Synchronized Swimming, and Water Polo are categorized as aquatic sports. These four sports have one common characteristic, which is the medium of water. As water is required to perform, these sports tend to be considered representative sports for summer. For this reason, aquatic sports are one of the most popular sports at the summer Olympic Games.

In the history of world swimming at the Olympics, a number of swimmers who are from Europe and the American continent have won many medals, not only in swimming, but also in other aquatic sports. In many cases, European and American athletes have dominated these sports. However, the first Korean swimmer, Tae-hwan Park, to win gold medals was at the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. He was also the first Asian athlete who won medals in the swimming events in the Olympic Games (Yonhap News, 2008). In 2012, Park also won medals at the London Olympic Games.

While Park has won swimming medals, other Korean swimmers have not won any medals at the Olympic Games. In addition, in other aquatic sports, such as diving, synchronized swimming and water polo, South Korea has won no medals at the Olympic Games.

Furthermore, there are several concerns about the present and future of aquatic sports in South Korea. First, there appears to be no competitive athletes with world-class ability like Park who will compete in the short-term future for South Korea. As it
currently stands, if Park were to retire from the sport, it is unlikely South Korea would win medals at aquatic sports events in the next Olympics in 2016 and perhaps none as well in 2020.

Swimming is a popular recreation sport in South Korea, as thousands of people each year learn to swim and participate in recreational swimming opportunities. In South Korea, over 700 swimming pools are opened every year and most public swimming pools provide swimming lessons to people of all ages and experience levels. Moreover, most private schools and some public schools provide swimming lessons to students as a component of physical education classes taken during their youth. It is easy for people to access swimming pools to learn how to swim or enhance their skills in South Korea as, there are over 660 amateur swimming clubs throughout South Korea.

Despite the high interest in swimming, there is a concern about the administrative structure of the organizations primarily responsible for growing the sport of swimming and developing athletes who can compete at the highest international level in swimming and other aquatic sports (Lee, 2013; Kim, 2013). The administrative systems or structures of the aquatic sports federation in South Korea may be inadequate to operate the Korean national team and support aquatic sports’ athletes at all levels (Lee, 2007; 2010).

The situation in South Korea is concerning when compared to other countries of similar or smaller populations. Australia, a country of 22 million people, has won 186 Olympic swimming medals since 1900 (Swimming Australia, 2012). South Africa (51 million people), a country similar in size to South Korea (50 million people), has won 15 swimming medals since 1928 (International Olympic Committee, 2012). In the 2012
Olympic Games in London, South Africa won a total of three medals and Australia won a total of eight medals in swimming.

On the other hand, the United States of America (USA) has continuously been successful in aquatic sports at several Olympic Games. For example, when it comes to the number of medals at aquatic sports’ events in the Olympic Games, the USA has won 519 medals in swimming, 133 medals in diving, nine medals in synchronized swimming, and nine medals in water polo. However, South Korea has won only four medals in swimming and no medals in diving, synchronized swimming, or water polo.

The huge discrepancy of achievement between South Korea and the USA could certainly be due to a number of factors including overall population and other economic factors. However, the discrepancy in performance indicates a need to investigate some aspects that could be contributing to the lack of medals in aquatic sports in South Korea. Specifically, this paper investigates the differences between administrative structures that govern aquatic sports in South Korea and the USA and examines the backgrounds of the Board of Directors of the various organizations that directly determine aquatic sports participants in the Olympic Games.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

South Korea at the Olympic Games

In 1920, when the first organization for sports in Korea was created, Korea was under Japanese rule. The main purpose of the organization was to use sports in order to foster physical and mental health in an act of protest to the Japanese government. The organization was called Chosun Sports Club. However, the Japanese government forcibly disorganized the Club in 1938. In 1945, when Korea became independent of Japan, the Chosun Sports Club was reorganized. In 1947, The Club changed its name to Chosun Olympic Committee and it officially joined the International Olympic Committee (IOC) as the representative sports organization for Korea. After the first participation in the Olympic Games, the Chosun Olympic Committee changed its name to Korea Olympic Committee (KOC) in 1948 (Korea Olympic Committee, 2014).

KOC is a non-profit organization approved by the IOC and is a part of the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) (Korea Olympic Committee, 2014). The MCST is a central government agency responsible for the areas of tourism, culture, art, religion, sports, media, and promotional advertising (The Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism, 2013). The MCST has two vice-ministers who each handle separate areas of culture. The first vice-minister governs culture, religious affairs, and tourism. The second vice-minister governs sports, media and promotion. The KOC is under the

South Korea’s first appearance in the Olympic Games was in 1948. A total of 67 athletes participated in the 1948 London Olympic Games (Korea Olympic Committee, 2010). Since then, South Korea has sent athletes to every Summer Olympic Games, except the 1952 and the 1980 Olympics. The largest number of Korean athletes who competed in the Olympic Games was the 401 athletes in the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games (Korea Olympic Committee, 2010). This large number of athletes was made possible because the 1988 Olympics were held in Korea and therefore provided a home advantage for the Korean team. Excluding the 1988 Olympics, South Korea has sent an average of 264 athletes to the Summer Olympic Games in the past five Olympic Games (National Archives of Korea, 2010). In the Winter Olympic Games, South Korea sent 71 athletes to the 2014 Sochi Olympic Games (Dong-a News, 2014). This was the largest number of Korean athletes to compete in the Winter Olympic Games.

In the history of South Korea at the Olympic Games, South Korean athletes have won a total of 243 medals in the Summer Olympic Games and a total of 53 medals in the Winter Olympic Games (Korea Olympic Committee, 2012). Most of the gold medals won by South Korea were in archery, with 19 medals at the Summer Olympic Games, and in short track speed skating, with 21 medals at the Winter Olympic Games.

South Korea ranked 4th in medal count at the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. This is the highest ranking that South Korea has recorded at the Olympic Games (Korea Olympic Committee, 2010). South Korea won 33 medals overall at the 1988 Olympic Games and the largest number of gold medals in the 2008 Beijing and the 2012 London
Olympic Games, which was 13 medals in each competition (Korea Olympic Committee, 2012). The top Korean medalist is Soo-Nyung Kim, a former archer, who won a total of six medals in the Olympic Games (International Olympic Committee, 2013).

South Korea’s achievements at the Olympic Games are primarily based on the existence of three Korea National Training Centers, which are located in South Korea. To be specific, the Taeneung Training Center, located in Gongneung-dong in the northeast part of Seoul was built in 1966; the Taebaek Training Center, located on a 1300-meter hill in Taebaek was built in 2005; and the Jincheon Training Center, which is located in Jincheon in Chungcheong province, will have completed construction in 2015. These centers have enabled numerous Korean athletes to train to win medals in several international competitions. The three Centers were built for sole-use by Korean national teams and are operated by the Korea Olympic Committee (KOC).

Participating athletes in the Korean national team for the Olympic Games are selected by their respective national sports federations. Each sport federation sends a list of members on the national team to the KOC. The KOC allows them to train in the training centers and assigns training centers for each sport.

The KOC receives funding from the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (MCST). The MCST provides 126 million dollars (US) on average to the KOC every year (Cho, 2013). Then, the KOC uses an average of 65 million dollars (US) to support and sustain the three training centers (Yonhap News, 2010). The Centers have contributed to helping all the athletes selected for the Korean national team concentrate on training and have provided a better environment for the athletes.
The United States of America at the Olympic Games

When the IOC was established in 1894, two constituent American members organized a committee to get American athletes to participate in the 1896 Athens Olympic Games. The committee was named the American Olympic Association (AOA) at the 1921 meeting in the New York Athletic Club. The AOA changed its name to the United States of America Sports Federation in 1940 and changed the name again to the United States Olympic Association (USOA) in 1946. When Public Law 805, which gave the USOA a federal charter, was established in 1950, the USOA became a nonprofit corporation. After a number of constitutional revisions were made to the federal charter, the name was finally changed in 1961 to its current designation: the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) (United States Olympic Committee, 2014).

In 1978, the Amateur Sports Act helped the USOC become the coordinating body for all athletic activity related to the Olympics\(^1\) in the USA (United States Olympic Committee, 2014). In addition, the Act provided exclusive rights to use of the words “Olympic” and “Olympiad” to the USOC (Thornton, 2010). Currently, the USA contains 47 sport national governing bodies to manage each sport’s Olympics-related activities. The Amateur Sports Act of 1978 was revised to become the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act in 1998. Detailed information about this revision will be provided in a subsequent section. The USA has achieved success many times at the Olympic Games, since its first appearance in the 1896 Athens Olympic Games. Twenty athletes

\(^1\) The modern Olympic Games were founded on the idea of amateurism, whereby participants would not be directly compensated for their athletic participation. A variety of historical issues arose regarding the appropriateness of utilizing a system that was difficult to enforce - particularly in communist countries – and the IOC has since permitted professional athletes to participate in the Olympics. Though amateurism at the Olympics no longer exists, many of the organizations that were initially founded on enforcing amateurism principles have continued to play a role in the post-amateurism Olympic environment.
participated in the 1896 Athens Olympic Games. The USA won a total of 19 medals at the Games and ranked 1st among all the participating countries (United States Olympic Committee, 2014).

The USA has sent its athletes to every Olympic Games, except in 1980 (History.com, 2012). The largest number of athletes who participated in the Olympic Games was 646 athletes at the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games (International Olympic Committee, 2014). This record number was primarily attributed to the advantage of being the host country. During the past five Olympics, the USA has sent an average of 537 athletes to the Summer Olympic Games. In the Winter Olympic Games, the USA has sent an average of 200 athletes (International Olympic Committee, 2014).

Team USA has won 2,400 medals overall in the Summer Olympic Games and 281 medals in the Winter Olympic Games. Most medals in the Summer Olympics are won in track and field, with 767 medals, and in swimming, with 520 medals (United States Olympic Committee, 2014). When it comes to a national ranking in the Summer Olympic Games, the USA has impressively consistent high marks, with a highest rank of 1st place and a lowest rank of 3rd place (International Olympic Committee, 2014). Currently, the top American medalist is swimmer Michael Phelps, who has won the most number of medals in the Olympic Games among all athletes. Next on the American list is Mark Spitz, who is a former swimmer (International Olympic Committee, 2014).

Each sport’s national governing body selects members of the USA national team. There are three national training centers: the Colorado Springs Olympic Training Center, located in Colorado Springs, Colorado; the Chula Vista Olympic Training Center, located in Chula Vista, California; and the Lake Placid Olympic Training Center, located in Lake
Placid, New York, for the USA national team (United States Olympic Committee, 2014). These three facilities help the USA national team enhance the abilities of their athletes.

As previously noted, the majority of American medals at the Olympics have been won in track and field and swimming. These two sports have contributed to improving the USA’s high rank among other countries at the Olympic Games. In addition, other American teams in various other Olympic sports have achieved great results. The power of Team USA’s accomplishment at the Olympic Games has been affected by a number of factors, with one being its system of running each sport organization. The current USA Olympic team structure is primarily governed by the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Athletes Act of 1998.

**Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act in 1998**

The Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act is a law in the USA (Amateur Sports Act of 1978). This Act was a revision of the Amateur Sports Act of 1978 by the Committee on Commerce, Science, and Transportation in 1998. The Act gives the authority of monopoly to the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) to specify requirements for its members of National Governing Bodies (NBGs) for each Olympic sport. In order to understand the Act and its impact, a brief history of the Act will be discussed.

The Amateur Sports Act of 1978 was originally created to enhance Olympic activities in the USA and solve the battle between the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in the 1960’s and 1970’s. The AAU is a club-sport system, which is utilized in a variety of countries around the world. The club sport system involves independent sports teams not affiliated with specific schools. Athletes join a local club sports team and training is usually provided after
school. On the other hand, the NCAA is a system based on a combination of academics and athletics. Athletes are involved in school sports teams, and athletic training is provided at the school. These two organizations both wanted to become the official single liaison for governing amateur sports in the USA. The primary battle between the AAU and the NCAA was that the NCAA restricted athletes managed by the AAU from competing in any competitions operated by the NCAA, and the AAU also restricted athletes managed by the NCAA from competing in competitions operated by the AAU. Due to this battle, a lot of amateur sports and their athletes’ development suffered.

In the mid 1970’s, Gerald Ford issued the President’s Commission on Olympic Sports because the problems with American amateur athletics had surfaced in the battle between the AAU and the NCAA (Parker, 2007). After the conflicts between the systems in amateur sports were discovered, an investigation was conducted to solve the problem (Parker, 2007). Based on the results from the investigation, the Olympic and Amateur Sports Act of 1978 was passed. It played a key role in changing amateur sports and the post-amateur Olympics in the USA over the last three decades (Parker, 2007).

Even though there were a number of requests to update and revise the Act, the Act was not updated and revised for 20 years. However, many believed that the Act needed to be updated because of several significant changes that occurred in Olympic and amateur sports from 1978 to 1998 (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998). Ted Stevens, who was the senior United States Senator from Alaska, sponsored the current version of the Olympic and Amateur Sports Act and supported its adoption in 1998.

Changes in the Act were based on developing a definition of amateur sports in order to adjust new paradigms of sport around the world and to resolve disputes.
According to the report of the Committee on Commerce, Science, and Transportation from the U.S. Government Printing Office (GPO), several changes were included. First, the schedule for the Olympics and Winter Olympics was changed by the IOC in 1994. Instead of both Games being held every four years, the Winter Olympics were contested in 1994 and then again in 1998 with the Summer Olympics retaining its traditional schedule. Because an Olympic Games now occurs every two years instead of four, the workload of the USOC has notably increased. Second, many sports have begun to allow professional athletes to compete in Olympic events. Third, even sports still considered “amateur” have athletes with greater financial opportunities and professional responsibilities than were ever considered in 1978. Fourth, the Paralympics, which are the Olympic Games for amateur athletes with disabilities, have considerably developed in terms of size and prestige.

When the Amateur Sports Act was initially passed in 1978, all sports’ national governing bodies (NGBs) had to be authorized by the USOC (Nafziger, 1982). Therefore, the key point of the Olympic and Amateur Sports Act was that it gave authority to the USOC, which could grant authorities to a NGB for each sport, such as USA Swimming, USA Gymnastics, and USA Track and Field. Therefore, each NGB can establish the rules for selecting the United States Olympic Team. They also promote competition in distinctive sports (Nafziger, 1982). The USOC has to work through its NGBs because of USOC’s membership. Nafziger (1982) mentions, “The majority of the votes in the House of Delegates of the USOC is held by NGBs” (p.118). Furthermore, the NGBs are in charge of the actual grassroots work of organizing teams, instructing coaches and officials, preparing schedules, and developing young athletes. Since those NGBs have
their responsibilities, it is understandable that the USOC should be primarily concerned with the Olympic and Pan American sports.

Unlike South Korea, the USA has no governmental ministry dedicated to sports. Since the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act recognized the USOC, the USOC is a federally authorized nonprofit corporation but does not receive direct financial support from the US government. Therefore, the USOC’s revenues are generally comprised of television broadcast rights, sponsorships, fundraising, and gifts (Mickel, 2013). The USA Olympic Foundation has gathered an average of 200 million dollars during the past three decades and the fundraising staff at the USOC raised 17 million dollars in 2012 (Mickel, 2013). These revenues are used for the operating budget and for supporting the USA national team. Therefore, the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act has become an important component used to develop and govern Olympic sports in the USA.

Korea Swimming Federation

Among 61 national sports federations in KOC, Korea Swimming Federation (KSF) is a nonprofit organization in charge of managing all aquatic sports in South Korea, which include swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, water polo, and open water swimming.

When the KSF was originally established in 1929, it was known as the Chosun Swimming Clubs (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012). Since its beginning, KSF has changed its name twice. After KSF joined Federation Internationale de Natation (FINA)

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2 Open water swimming is swimming in the ocean or other open places. It is usually competed over long distances (1 mile or longer). Though it was competed at the first Summer Olympics in 1896 it has not been contested in the Olympics since that time. It has been removed from this thesis as an area of study.
in 1948, it changed its name to Korea Swimming Association (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012). Then, when it joined the Korea Olympic Committee (KOC) in 1954, it changed to Korea Swimming Federation (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012). The KSF was registered and approved as an incorporated association in 1998 when it joined the Asia Swimming Federation (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012).

KSF is the only organization to oversee aquatic sports in South Korea and represents the country’s aquatic sports in general. There are four main businesses for which KSF is responsible. First, KSF develops and promotes the sport of swimming and swimming events in South Korea. Second, KSF communicates with FINA and a number of swimming federations in other countries. Third, the federation holds, organizes, and operates national swimming competitions. Lastly, KSF holds seminars related to the sport of swimming and swimming competitions (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012).

KSF is located in Olympic Center, Seoul. The KSF is composed of an office staff, a Board of Directors, and nine committees (Korea Swimming Federation, 2012). The Board of Directors in KSF holds an open annual meeting to discuss diverse issues. They are the significant people who make decisions and revise and implement the rules and regulations of KSF. The nine committees also participate in the annual meeting with the Board of Directors.

Aquatic sports in South Korea have achieved few notable results in international competitions. KSF’s most successful achievements include Tae-hwan Park winning a gold medal and a silver medal in the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. These medals were the first medals won in the Olympic Games in the entire history of Korean swimming. Furthermore, the medals were the first medals among other aquatic sports in South Korea.
at the Olympic Games. After the Beijing Olympic Games, Park won another silver medal in the 2012 London Olympic Games.

Since Korea’s record of winning swimming medals at the Olympic Games is a relatively recent phenomenon, most of the medals that have been won by Korea in the past have been awarded at the Asian Games. For example, in the 2006 Doha Asian Games, South Korea won three gold medals, two silver medals, and 11 bronze medals in aquatic sports (Yonhap news, 2010). In the 2010 Guangzhou Asian Games, South Korea won a total of 15 medals in swimming; a total of one medal in diving; and a total of one medal in synchronized swimming (Yonhap News, 2010). All the aquatic sports except water polo won at least one medal regardless of the color in the Asian Games. In summary, KSF has few achievements of winning many medals in the Olympics and World Championships. However, KSF helped athletes to win medals in many Asian Games.

Based on the results in international competitions, the data show that swimming rather than diving, water polo, and synchronized swimming has been most successful. This result could be caused by a variety of factors such as the lack of participants in diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo and/or distribution of government funding. Currently, there have been 3,436 participants in swimming, 163 in diving, 67 in synchronized swimming, and 99 in water polo over the past three years (Korea Swimming Federation, 2014).

When KOC receives money from the MCST, it provides a portion of that funding to each sport federation in order to develop the distinctive sport at all levels. The annual budget of KSF has been an average of 296 million dollars (US) during the past (Park,
2014). Unfortunately, it is not currently known what distribution of money each specific sport receives. Certainly, members of the various subunits of KSF would advocate for their sport receiving adequate funding to achieve their specified goals.

**United States Aquatic Sports**

United States Aquatic Sports (USAS) is an organization that represents aquatic sports in the United States of America, which currently are swimming, diving, water polo, synchronized swimming, and masters swimming.

USAS was established in 1989 in order to join FINA. By law, USAS is a unifying organization that operates not for individual purposes but as a means of representing the United States NGBs internationally (United States Aquatic Sports, 2013). According to the rules of the Federation Internationale de Natation (FINA), there can be only one recognized member federation in FINA from each country in the world. Thus, the member federation of FINA for the United States of America is USAS.

USAS purposefully plays a minimal role in managing aquatic sports in the USA. For example, USAS provides primary responsibilities for the governance of each aquatic sport to the members of USAS, which are the national governing bodies (NGBs) (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2013). The USAS includes five NGBs, one for each of the five aquatic sports, which are USA Swimming, Inc., USA Diving, USA Synchronized Swimming, Inc., USA Water Polo, Inc., and USA Masters Swimming, Inc. Because each organization governs itself independently with little interference from USAS, detailed information about each aquatic sports organization will be explained below.

USAS itself consists of an office staff, USAS aquatic coordination board, and USAS convention committee. The USAS aquatic coordination board is a group of people
composed of representatives who are a president or a chairman from each aquatic sport’s NGB.

**USA Swimming, Inc.**

USA Swimming is a national governing body for the sport of swimming in the United States (USA Swimming, 2010). The organization has three responsibilities. First, USA Swimming promotes the culture of swimming by creating opportunities for both swimmers and coaches. Second, USA Swimming selects and trains swimming teams for all kinds of international competitions. Third, USA Swimming sets the rules and regulations in order to govern competitive swimming, and endeavors to provide support to the sport through its core objectives, which are building the base, promoting the sport, and achieving competitive success (USA Swimming, 2010).

According to USA Swimming, the mission statement of USA Swimming is that the organization provides programs and services for its members, supporters, affiliates and the interested public. In addition, it is committed to excellence and the improvement of swimming and to providing a safe and positive environment for all members (USA Swimming, 2010). The vision statement of USA Swimming is “To inspire and enable our members to achieve excellence in the sport of swimming and in life” (USA Swimming, 2010, para. 4).

As a national governing body (NGB) of swimming in the USA, the organization is in charge of producing and revising the rules and regulations of swimming and publishing *The USA Swimming Rule Book* (USA Swimming, 2010). The rulebook is updated or revised annually by the House of Delegates following the U.S. Aquatic Sports Convention (USA Swimming, 2010).
The main office of USA Swimming is located in the U.S. Olympic Training Center at Colorado Springs, Colorado (USA Swimming, 2010). USA Swimming is composed of an office staff, the Board of Directors, and USA Swimming National Committees. There are a total of seven USA Swimming National Committees. Each committee can divide into various sections to deal with different tasks.

In order to support various programs in USA Swimming and develop all levels of swimming in the USA, the USA Swimming Foundation raises funds from a variety of sources (USA Swimming, 2010). The USA Swimming Foundation reported that in 2012 individual donations were $386,675; corporate and foundation grants were $321,000; and USA Swimming Fundraising Support was $533,400 (The USA Swimming Foundation, 2012). The mission of the USA Swimming Foundation is to raise funds to support programs that save lives and build champions in the pool and in life (USA Swimming, 2010). There are two goals of the foundation. One is a project that saves lives by providing swimming lessons to children. Second, is the Building Champions Project, which supports the USA’s national swimming team in achieving its athletic success (USA Swimming, 2010). In addition, the USA Swimming Foundation created a Make-a-Splash campaign in 2007 (USA Swimming, 2007). This campaign is a child-focused water safety campaign that gives every child opportunities to learn how to swim.

Swimming is one of the more popular sports in the USA, both for participation and for competition. There are many famous swimmers who won medals in the Olympic Games and other international competitions. The number of members of USA Swimming has averaged 400,000 over the past 10 years (USA Swimming, 2010). There are a lot of private swimming clubs as well as school swimming teams. It can be difficult to count
the exact number of swimming clubs and teams in the USA. However, on the USA Swimming website, it mentions that 2,800-plus clubs are helped by the members of USA Swimming across the nation (USA Swimming, 2010). In order to manage a number of swimming clubs in the USA, Local Swimming Committees (LSCs) were established. The LSCs consist of 59 local governing bodies. Moreover, they are responsible for organizing, supporting, and governing more than 2,800 clubs in the USA (USA Swimming, 2010).

USA Swimming has accomplished several successful performances in terms of winning medals in many international competitions. Throughout history, many talented and skilled swimmers have showed their great abilities at several international competitions. The prestige of USA Swimming has spread throughout the world. For example, Michael Phelps won a total of 18 gold medals, two silver medals, and two bronze medals while he competed in the 2004, 2008, and 2012 Summer Olympic Games (International Olympic Committee, 2012). Moreover, Clark (2012) also mentioned, “Not only is Michael Phelps the most decorated swimmer in Olympic history, but he is the most decorated athlete in Olympic history” (para. 2). Before the era of Michael Phelps, Mark Spitz was considered the best swimmer in history. He won two gold medals in the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games and seven gold medals in the 1972 Munich Olympic Games (Roberts, 2010). He won a total of 11 medals, including one silver and one bronze medal in the Summer Olympic Games. In addition, Ryan Lochte is a famous swimmer in the USA. He has won a total of five gold medals, three silver medals, and three bronze medals by competing in the 2004, 2008, and the 2012 Summer Olympic Games (USA Swimming, 2010). In addition to many accomplished male swimmers, many great
American female swimmers have won numerous medals in international competitions. Natalie Coughlin won a total of 12 Olympic medals and competed in three Summer Olympic Games (Johnson, 2012). Recently, Missy Franklin won four gold medals and one bronze medal in her first Olympic participation in the 2012 London Games (Team USA, 2012). Moreover, many swimming analysts describe her as a promising female swimmer (Michaelis, 2011).

**USA Diving**

USA Diving is a nonprofit organization and national governing body for the sport of diving (USA Diving, 2013). USA Diving supports divers and the US national team in their competition in international sporting events, including the Olympic Games (USA Diving, 2013). The most significant mission for USA Diving is “USA Diving promotes the sport of diving, supports divers and coaches, and sanctions competitions” (USA Diving, 2013, pg.2).

USA Diving consists of four parts: the office, the Board of Directors, the USA Diving Committees, and the USA Diving Foundation. To be specific, the office of USA Diving is located in Indianapolis, Indiana and is operated by a staff of 10 people and 11 committees, including athlete representatives and the 12 members of the Board of Directors (USA Diving, 2013). In addition, USA Diving conducts a junior program, senior program, and master program through 42 Local Diving Associations (LDAs), including more than 200 clubs (USA Diving, 2013). Furthermore, USA Diving provides a membership program to coaches, divers and fans to access the most current information about USA Diving (USA Diving, 2013). The USA Diving Foundation is an organization that supports USA Diving at all levels. It provides resources to encourage the growth of and participation in the sport of diving (USA Diving, 2013).
Although it is difficult to measure the exact popularity of diving in the USA, we can assume the popularity by the number of clubs across the nation. Currently, there are more than 280 diving clubs in the USA.

USA Diving has performed well and won several medals in international competitions. Diving was introduced to the Olympic Games for the first time in St. Louis in 1904 (International Olympic Committees, 2013). At USA Diving’s beginning, the USA did not have worldwide prominence (O’Brien, 2002). However, USA Diving won three gold medals in the 1920 Olympic Games (O’Brien, 2002). From that moment through 1992, the USA became the leader in diving. The USA has won 46 out of 75 gold medals and 125 of 225 total medals in the Olympic Games since diving was included in the Olympic Games (O’Brien, 2002). According to a citation from the International Olympic Committee (IOC) website (2013), “This discipline was firstly dominated by the USA. This domination started to waiver with the participation of China at the end of the 1980s” (para. 5). The most successful and famous USA diver is Greg Louganis who was a four-time Olympic champion (GregLougnis.com, 2014). He won a total of five medals in the Olympics, five World Championship titles, and 47 national titles (GregLougnis.com, 2014). He is usually described as the most successful diver in history.

American female divers have performed greatly and dominated in international sporting events as well. Team USA women divers have won a total of 20 gold medals and 60 medals overall in the history of women’s Olympic diving (USA Diving, 2014). The most successful female diver is Pat McCormick. She won a total of four gold medals by competing at the 1952 and the 1956 Summer Olympic Games. She is the only woman who has won four gold medals in the history of diving.
USA Synchronized Swimming

US Synchronized Swimming (USSS) was established in 1977 as a nonprofit organization, and it is a national governing body for the sport of synchronized swimming (USA Synchro, 2014). USSS serves to support all synchronized swimmers from the grassroots level to the USA national team. USSS is recognized by IOC, USOC, and FINA (USA Synchro, 2014). USSS organizes and promotes diverse events every year for all levels of synchronized swimmers. The various events begin at the local level and continue in categories arranged by age (USA Synchro, 2014). Its mission statement is “to provide leadership and resources for the promotion and growth of synchronized swimming, to achieve competitive excellence at all levels and to develop broad-based participation” (USA Synchro, 2014, para. 1).

USSS consists of four subunits, which include the office staff, the Board of Directors, the USA Synchro Committees, and the US Synchronized Swimming Foundation (USSSF). The office of USSS is located in Indianapolis, Indiana. The Board of Directors consists of 15 members and has a regular annual meeting. The USA Synchro National Committees are composed of five committees. USSSF raises funds to help at all levels of synchronized swimming.

Synchronized swimming is not a popular participation sport in the USA for many reasons but one is because this sport allows only females to compete in international competitions. A number of local clubs are located in California, Florida, and Texas. Synchronized swimming is not recognized enough by people because the clubs tend to cluster in the three states mentioned above. However, although synchronized swimming is not a popular sport in the USA, six universities field a synchronized swimming team.
USSS has contributed to developing the sport of synchronized swimming by spreading its prestige throughout the world. Synchronized swimming has only recently been added to the Olympic Games. The first competition was at the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1984. The USA has won five gold medals, two silver medals, and two bronze medals in the history of synchronized swimming at the Olympic Games. In addition, the USA won 13 gold medals, six silver medals, and four bronze medals in the FINA World Championships.

**USA Water Polo**

USA Water Polo is a nonprofit organization recognized by USOC and FINA as a national governing body for the sport of water polo in the USA (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014). Its mission statement is “to grow the sport of water polo throughout the United States and win medals in Olympic, World Championship, and Pan American Games” (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014, para.1).

USA Water Polo was founded in 1978 and originally governed by the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) along with assistance from the YMCA (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014). After the Amateur Acts of 1978 were passed, USA Water Polo was included in the USOC.

USA Water Polo operates the Olympic water polo program. It not only provides lessons to the senior, junior, youth and national teams with the aim of growing athletes’ skills, but also helps operate 20 different championship events each year (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014). Furthermore, it fosters the expansion of the sport from the grassroots level and provides a national system to affiliated clubs and leagues. Moreover, it certifies coaches, officials, educational materials, and background screenings, as well as supports...
developing programmatic materials. USA Water Polo keeps trying to generate greater awareness of the sport.

There are seven primary goals for USA Water Polo:

1. Win gold medals at the Summer Olympic Games, the Pan American Games, the FINA World Championships, and other international competitions.

2. Expand dramatically the number of athletes in the sport of water polo by providing programs for participation for all ages and levels, for both genders, for handicapped individuals, and for minorities.

3. Through United States Aquatic Sports, Inc. (USAS), maintain a membership and the highest standing and position to have influence in FINA and other international sports federations.

4. Develop materials and instructional programs to develop the individual skills of athletes, coaches, trainers, managers, administrators, and officials.

5. Communicate the activities of the sport of water polo throughout the USA.

6. Establish and ensure consistent standards of quality for all official events of USA Water Polo.

7. Review the goals of USA Water Polo by the Board of Directors at the Annual Meeting in the year after the Summer Olympic Games every four years (USA Water Polo, 2014).

USA Water Polo consists of four subunits: the office, the Board of Directors, the USA Water Polo committees and zone committees. USA Water Polo’s office is located in Huntington Beach, California. The Board of Directors is composed of 10 people and has responsibilities for setting policies and overall strategic direction (USA Water Polo,
USA Water Polo has five committees operated by members of the Board of Directors. Zone committees geographically divide into 11 committees. Each committee has a Zone Chair who has the responsibility of managing water polo clubs in his or her zone. According to the bylaws of USA Water Polo, Inc. (2013), the “Zone shall be conducted under the supervision of a Zone Chair” (pg.4). Zone Chairs have responsibilities and the authority to manage water polo in their zone (USA Water Polo, 2013). The Zone Chairs are volunteers who do not receive any compensation from USA Water Polo. Unlike other aquatic sports organizations, USA Water Polo does not have a foundation group to receive funding. Moreover, USA Water Polo does not receive governmental funding. The USOC offers limited support through corporate sponsorships. Membership revenues and gifts are the only costs for its programming and operation (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014).

USA Water Polo encourages athletes, coaches, and fans to become members. The best method to measure the popularity of water polo in the USA is to track the number of people who register as members of USA Water Polo and the numbers of clubs in the USA. Currently, 35,000 to 40,000 members actively participate in USA Water Polo, and over 500 clubs operate across the nation (USA Water Polo, Inc., 2014).

USA Water Polo has performed notably in several international sporting events. The highest achievement for USA Water Polo is the women’s water polo national team’s gold medal in the 2012 London Olympic Games (USA Water Polo, 2012). Moreover, the women’s national team has won two silver medals in the 2000 Sydney and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games and one bronze medal in the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. The women’s national team is the only team to win medals at four consecutive Olympic
Games in the history of women’s water polo and the only team to win three times at the World Championships. Currently, the women’s team ranks fifth in the world. Also, the men’s water polo national team has performed well in a number of international competitions. The men’s national team won a silver medal at the 1984, 1988 and 2008 Olympic Games and a bronze medal at the 1924, 1932 and 1972 Olympic Games. Currently, the men’s team is ranked ninth in the world (USA Water Polo, 2012).

**USA Masters Swimming**

USA Masters Swimming (USMS) is a nonprofit organization, which is operated by its membership. USMS gives diverse membership benefits to its members. The benefits are mainly insurances, a *SWIMMER* magazine, and sanctioned events (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014). In addition, the USMS supports improving adult health, wellness, fitness, and competition through aquatic sports (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014).

A big difference between USA Swimming and USA Masters Swimming is the word *Masters*. Based on the description of USMS, *Masters* was first applied to adults who participated in track and field. Then it was later adopted in organized adult swimming. In swimming, *Masters* simply means people 18 years of age and older who participate in swimming (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014).

Masters swimming started in 1970. Ransom J. Arthur, who was a Navy doctor, persuaded John Spannuth, who was a president of the Coaches Association, to hold the first National Masters Swimming Championship (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014). In the words of Dr. Arthur, “if the incentive was appealing, it would give older swimmers (ex-competitors and beginners alike) a goal for keeping physically fit” (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014, para. 1). Its vision, set by Dr. Arthur, is “improving their fitness
through swimming” (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014, para. 1). The vision has grown quickly and helped to establish a nationwide organization including 60,000 adult swimmers.

USMS consists of four subunits: the office, Board of Directors, committees, and special assignments. They are important to operate and manage USMS. The USMS is essentially managed by its volunteers, known as the House of Delegates (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014). According to the USMS’s website, 52 Local Masters Swimming Committees (LMSCs) support Masters swimming clubs in the USA. Two hundred fifty LMSC officers, who are the members of the House of Delegates and participate in the annual meeting at the USAS Convention, elect USMS’s Board of Directors.

Masters swimming is very popular among many older adults. Based on the popularity of swimming in the USA, Masters swimming helps improve fitness and fuel elders’ desire to swim with more than 1,500 clubs (U.S. Masters Swimming, 2014). Some members are likely former competitive youth swimmers who trained in schools and competed in swimming competitions when they were students. The popularity of Masters swimming keeps growing because of the large number of people who swim both for fitness and competition.

Unlike the other aquatic sports federations, which are USA Swimming, USA Diving, USA Synchronized Swimming, and USA Water Polo, USMS is not involved with the USOC because it does not compete in the Olympic Games. Thus, USMS does not have official records and results in the Olympic Games. However, USMS participates in two international competitions. One is the FINA World Masters Championship, which is held in every even year, and the Pan American Masters Swimming and Open Water
Championships, which is sponsored by Union Americana de Natacion (UANA) in every odd year. Unfortunately, the results from those competitions make it difficult to recognize and measure the achievements of USMS. All swimmers, who participate in the competitions, represent their clubs instead of a country. There is no statistical information about the number of medals that the USA has won in the FINA World Masters Championships and the Pan American Games.

**Development of Research Question**

Based on the results at the Olympic Games and other international competitions, the swim teams of both South Korea and the USA tend to have better achievements in terms of the number of medals than other aquatic sports in international competitions. In other words, the rest of the aquatic sports do not tend to win as many medals as the swim teams win at the Olympic Games and competitions authorized by FINA.

When the characteristics of the sport are considered, it is easy to see why swimming has the potential to win more medals than other aquatic sports. The swimming competition consists of diverse races with different swimming styles and distances. This can provide swimmers with more chances to win a medal than other aquatic sports’ athletes. For instance, synchronized swimmers compete in duet and team routines in the Olympic Games, which means that two gold medals are given to the athletes. In contrast, water polo’s competitions follow a tournament system. Thus, one gold medal can be given to athletes in water polo.

The situation regarding winning more medals in swimming than in other aquatic sports appears to be similar in South Korea and the USA. However, for a long time, the USA has consistently won medals not only in swimming, but also in other aquatic sports at several international competitions. South Korea has not had much Olympic success in
non-swimming aquatic events. This difference in success across the entire aquatic sports perspective could be caused by variances in training styles or the individual abilities of the athletes in the two countries. However, other potential factors, such as organizational structure or budgetary allocations could also be playing a role. This paper assumes that management styles and decision-making by top managers can affect athletes’ performances and bring successful results at several competitions. To be specific, the experience and perspectives of core members in an organization can contribute to the managerial styles and decision-making. In other words, if the backgrounds of core members in the organizations are highly related to the characteristics of the organization, final decisions can be properly made to increase their benefits.

Hambrick and Mason (1984) found that a manager’s personal experiences or career experiences could reflect on his or her actions. Hambrick and Mason created the upper echelon theory, which notes that characteristics of the top management team (TMT) (age, functional track, other career experiences, education, financial position, and group heterogeneity) are possibly associated with managerial knowledge, values and perceptions. They are thus able to be used to anticipate organizational outcomes (profitability, growth, prospectors, defender strategy, diversification, risk-taking, and administrative complexity) (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Moreover, they emphasize that the top-management characteristics are themselves affected by the firm’s past strategy, performance and environment (Hambrick & Mason, 1984).

A number of researchers have attempted to research the relationship between experiences, interests, and backgrounds of TMT and organizational performances. For example, some have expanded the concept of the upper echelons theory and applied the
theory to diverse environments and situations in businesses (Carpenter, Celetkanycz, & Sanders, 2004; Miller, Burke, & Click, 1988; Reinmoeller, 2004). They have also performed research with diverse methods in order to measure the connection between organizational outcomes and upper echelons’ personal experiences. In one of the studies, Kor (2003) discussed the fact that the experiences and backgrounds of the TMT could be activated in advance when an organization needed to improve and develop its performance.

Even though numerous studies have been conducted to figure out the relationship between backgrounds or experiences of top managers and the organizational performances or outcomes, little research related to the business of sport has been conducted. One study regarding this topic in the business of sports was by Juravich (2012) who wrote on the topic for his doctoral dissertation. The researcher examined general managers in North American professional sports by applying the theory of upper echelons institutional theory and investigating general managers’ strategic decision-making in North American professional sport leagues. Juravich mentioned the previous sports’ experiences of general managers. This research indicated that the relationship between the professional-sports-playing experiences of general managers and organizational performance does not seem to be significant in terms of applying innovative strategies. However, this result largely depended upon the situation. When the executives played professionally, any innovative approaches were not accepted or applied.

Sport NGBs tend to be extensively involved in the Olympic movement to represent their nation. In addition, NGBs have a responsibility to support athletes at all
levels and to develop the sport. For these reasons, it is important for them to generate outstanding results at international sporting events. These results can be a standard to estimate how well NGBs operate and achieve a core component of their mission.

Therefore, the literature review in this thesis discusses general information about both South Korea and the United States’ Olympic movements in order to help readers understand the background of their respective sports governing systems. Then, specific information about aquatic sports governing bodies in South Korea and the USA have been explained in this chapter.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This research project involved a comparison between the two organizational systems of the National Governing Bodies (NGBs) for aquatic sports in South Korea and the United States of America. Each of these countries has one organization recognized by the International Swimming Federation as the representative organization in terms of all aquatic sports including swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo.

Content analysis will be used in this study. Content analysis is “the systematic observation and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication” (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013, p. 243). Content analysis is also described as “the use of replicable and valid method for making specific inferences from text to other states or properties of its source” (Krippendorff, 1969, p. 103). Content analysis enables a researcher to explore a structure and the systems of subjects.

Zikmund et al. (2013) described content analysis as containing not only observation to identify the specific information and other characteristics but also systematic analysis. This paper, based on the resources from a total of six sports organizations’ webpages, analyzes and compares basic information, systems, and the structures of aquatic sports organizations in the two test countries to identify differences and similarities. Content analysis is an appropriate approach used to study the differences, similarities, and characteristics of these two nations' organizations because it
can be used to study organizational messages while including a method for systematic observation (Zikmund et al, 2013).

Data was collected from the following websites from February 20th, 2014 to June 10th, 2014:

Korea Swimming Federation website (http://swimming.sports.or.kr),
United States Aquatic Sports website (http://www.usaquaticsports.org),
USA Swimming website (http://www.usaswimming.org),
USA Diving website (http://www.usadiving.org),
USA Synchronized Swimming website (http://www.teamusa.org/usa-synchronized-swimming), and
USA Water Polo website (http://www.usawaterpolo.org).

Each of these websites provides general information about the NGBs, including codes and regulations of the NGBs that change annually.

In order to conduct a fair comparison between the two countries’ aquatic sports organizations, this study will analyze the information collected using two criteria. First, who are responsible for making decisions? The paper researches the backgrounds of members of the Board of Directors. In sports organizations, the members of the Board play a pivotal role in making decisions for the organization regarding the use of funding and creating and implementing regulations.

Second, which organizations are appropriate to compare? Organizations in this study were selected by a condition: an organization governs sports which are allowed to compete in the Olympic Games. Given these criteria, USMS is excluded from this analysis because masters swimming is not a sport that is contested at the Olympics. In
addition, even though USAS is not a substantial organization to govern aquatic sports and the Board of Directors does not exist in USAS, this study analyzes the composition of aquatic coordination board in order to stress different structures and systems between South Korea and the USA. Therefore, this paper mainly analyzes members’ backgrounds on the Board of Directors in sports organizations from sports in which athletes can participate in the Olympic Games.

The study will conduct content analysis based on the upper echelons theory with the two criteria that were mentioned in the previous paragraph. Based on the information collected from webpages concerning aquatic sports in South Korea and the USA, the paper analyzes the type of professional backgrounds of the members of the Board of Directors in KSF, USA Swimming, USA Diving, USA Synchronized Swimming, USA Water Polo, and the members of aquatic coordinating board in USAS, to figure out the compositions of the Board of Directors in each aquatic sport organization between South Korea and the USA.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Analysis

In order to investigate the differences of aquatic sport NGBs between South Korea and the USA, content analysis of the various websites are conducted. Based on the content analysis, this paper attempts to analyze compositions of members’ backgrounds on the Board of Directors in aquatic sports NGBs in two countries.

In order to collect each member’s background, this paper conducts three steps to gather data. First, the paper accesses each aquatic sport NGB’s website. Second, the paper checks the list of members on the Board of Directors. Third, the paper examines the profile or biography of members on the Board of Directors, which is described on the website.

After gathering the data of members’ past experiences in aquatic sports, this study classifies each member into five categories based on members’ backgrounds or experiences. The five categories are swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, water polo, and non-aquatic sports. If there was any mention in the board member’s biography of that person competing in that particular sport they were classified as a participant. The non-aquatic sports designation was used to categorize board members who had no mention of any aquatic sports participation background on their webpage biography. Many of those board members come from a variety of backgrounds including marketing, management, and other diverse areas of business. If a member did not have a background
in a particular sport, they were categorized into non-aquatic sports. No attempt was made to divide the “non-aquatic sports” into smaller subsets of data. Once data was collected and classified, percentages were computed for the various areas investigated.

In the analysis, even though USAS does not play a direct role in governing aquatic sports allowed to compete in the Olympic Games, USAS was analyzed in order to show different organizing systems of aquatic sports between South Korea and the USA.

**Aquatic Sports in South Korea**

South Korea has one national governing body that manages and represents aquatic sports, the Korea Swimming Federation (KSF). Its website is located at swimming.sports.or.kr.

**Korea Swimming Federation**

The KSF is a national governing body for aquatic sports in South Korea, including swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, water polo, and open water swimming. The KSF consists of the office staff, the Board of Directors, and KSF’s Committees. The committees are divided into nine separate sections. These are organized and operated by members of the Board of Directors. Detailed information about KSF’s structure will be shown in the organizational chart below.

The Board of Directors and Committees are responsible for holding an annual meeting, and selecting the members of the four Korean national teams. These include the national swimming team, diving team, synchronized swimming team, and water polo team. Under KSF’s Committees, each sport has its own committee, such as the Diving Committee, Water Polo Committee, Synchronized Swimming Committee, and Open Water Committee. Figure 4.1 is provided to illustrate the structure of the KSF. The four sports Committees are responsible for selecting a member of the Korean National Team,
updating and revising regulations, and creating plans to distribute funding from the government.

Since one national governing body in South Korea governs all aquatic sports, the Board of Directors consists of various people from diverse fields. The total number of people on the Board of Directors is 30. The majority of the members have a background in swimming or experience as elite swimmers. The second most popular background for members of the Board comes from outside the field of aquatic sports, in fields such as business. Few members have a background in diving, synchronized swimming, or water polo. Table 4.1 shows the background experience of the Board of Directors.

**Aquatic Sports in the USA**

Even though the USAS is one organization representing all aquatic sports in the USA, it is not a national governing body or a member of the USOC. In the USA, there are five different national governing bodies which govern each aquatic sport. Four aquatic sports are involved in the Olympic Games: swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo. Therefore, the governing bodies of the four Olympic sports are members of the USOC. However, USA Masters Swimming is not a member of USOC because Masters swimming is not competition level in the Olympic Games.

**United States of Aquatic Sports**

United States of Aquatic Sports (USAS) is the representative organization of aquatic sports in the USA. Its website is located at www.usaquaticsports.org. The organization does not have the authority to manage the sport. USAS is in charge of holding the annual convention in order for the five national governing bodies to communicate and exchange knowledge with each other.
USAS consists of the office staff, the aquatic coordinating board, and the convention committee. The aquatic coordinating board is composed of five members, each of whom is a president or chairperson of a sport’s federation. Detailed information about the structure of the USAS is shown in Figure 4.2 below.

With the exception of the aquatic coordinating board, the rest of the members do not have strong backgrounds in aquatic sports, but many of them had experience in marketing, management, budgeting and other business activities. Detailed information, which analyzes the members’ backgrounds in the USAS, is also included in Table 4.2.

**USA Swimming**

USA Swimming is a national governing body for the sport of swimming and consists of the office staff, the Board of Directors, the USA Swimming National Committees, and the USA Swimming Foundation. Its website is located at www.usaswimming.org. The USA Swimming National Committees are divided into seven sections. Detailed information about the structures of the USA Swimming committees are presented in the Figure 4.3.

The Board of Directors and the USA Swimming National Committees play pivotal roles in USA Swimming. They manage significant tasks in USA Swimming, such as establishing or revising rules, creating plans to use funding, and selecting members of the USA national swimming team. The total number of Board of Directors members is 35 people. The proportion of the members’ backgrounds in the Board of Directors is shown in the Table 4.3.

**USA Diving**

USA Diving is a national governing body for the sport of diving in the USA. Its website is located at www.usadiving.org. It consists of the office staff, the Board of
Directors, the USA Diving Committees, and the USA Diving Foundation. The USA Diving Committees consist of 11 separate groups. The Board of Directors and the USA Diving Committees play significant roles in USA Diving. The structure of USA Diving is presented in Figure 4.4. The total number of USA Diving Board of Directors is 11 people. The Board of Directors holds an annual meeting. At the meeting, the members discuss diverse issues. The Board is in charge of revising rules and overseeing USA Diving to ensure its successful operation. Each member of the Board of Directors is responsible for governing and operating 11 committees. Figure 4.4 lists information about the structure of USA Diving.

Most members of the Board of Directors have experience in the sport of diving. The Board of Directors plays a pivotal role in USA Diving. Responsibilities include organizing diving competitions in the USA, updating or revising regulations and policies, and selecting the USA national diving team. In addition, the Board of Directors and the USA Diving Committees discuss several issues at an annual meeting. The proportion of members’ background in the Board of Directors is shown below in Table 4.4.

**USA Synchronized Swimming**

USA Synchronized Swimming (USSS) is a national governing body for the sport of synchronized swimming in the USA. Its website is located at www.teamusa.org/usa-synchronized-swimming. USSS consists of four parts: the office staff, the Board of Directors, the USA Synchro National Committees, and the U.S. Synchronized Swimming Foundation. The USA Synchro National Committees is divided into five committees. The detailed information about the USA Synchro National Committees is presented in Figure 4.5. The Board of Directors and the Committees are responsible for suggesting directions, updating or revising rules of the USSS, organizing synchronized swimming competitions
in the USA and selecting the USA national synchronized swimming team. Every year, the USSS organizes selection days, when the committee selects junior and senior national team members for synchronized swimming.

The total number of members on the USSS Board of Directors is 15 people. Most of the people on the Board of Directors have a strong background in synchronized swimming. Others have diverse backgrounds in the field of business, such as marketing, finance, and administration. Table 4.5 details the distribution of the background for those on the USSS Board of Directors.

**USA Water Polo**

USA Water Polo is a national governing body for the sport of water polo in the USA. Its website is located at www.usawaterpolo.org. USA Water Polo consists of three parts: the office staff, the Board of Directors, and the Committees of the Board, along with Zone Committees. Unlike other aquatic sports’ NGBs, USA Water Polo does not have a foundation and receive funding from the government or USOC. The Board is divided into four committees and the members of the Board of Directors are in charge of managing the Committees. The Zone Committees geographically divide into 10 committees. Each Zone Committee has one Zone Chair. The Zone Chair, who does not receive any compensation from the committees, manages and represents each zone. Figure 4.6 shows the structure of USA Water Polo.

The total number of members on the Board of Directors is 10 people. The Board of Directors plays a crucial role in the operation of USA Water Polo. The Board of Directors holds an annual meeting. The Board of Directors and the Zone Committees gather at the annual meeting and discuss organizing water polo competitions, revising or updating regulations of USA Water Polo, and selecting the USA National Water Polo.
team. Most of the members on the Board of Directors and the Zone Chairs have a background in water polo. They are likely to be former water polo players or coaches. The rest of the members on the Board of Directors have backgrounds in a variety of fields. Table 4.6 lists information about the various members’ backgrounds.

**Differences between South Korea and the USA**

When it comes to the managerial systems of aquatic sports in both South Korea and the USA, it is possible to recognize differences between the two countries. Among the five aquatic sports, four are included in the Olympic Games: swimming, diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo. In South Korea, these four Olympic sports are controlled by one organization, which is the KSF. In the USA, the four Olympic sports have an independent governing body for each sport. For example, USA Swimming, Diving, Synchronized Swimming, and Water Polo all have national governing bodies. Each organization establishes its own regulations and policies. Moreover, they have the authority to select members of the USA National Team according to their own rules and they also organize respective competitions in the USA. As each sport has its own organization, decisions made by core members in each sport organization reflect the perspectives of members specifically tasked with managing that sport.

**Similarities between South Korea and the USA**

Even though the methods of management for aquatic sports NGBs are different in South Korea and the USA, the Board of Directors and the Committees in each sports’ national governing body play important roles in both nations. Regardless of the country, there are principals who make decisions, select members of the national team, and revise or update rules for each sport’s federation. In addition, the main purpose of each sport’s
organization is similar. They support athletes, develop the sports, and encouraging people to participate in the sports.
Table 4.1  Background Experience of the KSF Board of Directors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Backgrounds</th>
<th>The number of People</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14%</td>
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Table 4.2  Background Experience of the USAS Board of Directors

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
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<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
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<td>5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75%</td>
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Table 4.3 Background Experience of the USA Swimming Board of Directors

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<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Backgrounds</td>
<td>The number of People</td>
<td>Percentages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
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<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36%</td>
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Table 4.5 Background Experience of the USA Synchronized Swimming Board of Directors

<table>
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<th>Past Backgrounds</th>
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<th>Percentages</th>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.6  Background Experience of the USA Water Polo Board of Directors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Backgrounds</th>
<th>The number of People</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synchronized Swimming</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Polo</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of Aquatic Sports</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.1: KSF Organization Chart
Figure 4.2: USAS Organization Chart
Figure 4.3: USA Swimming Organization Chart
Figure 4.4: USA Diving Organization Chart
Figure 4.5: USA Synchronized Swimming Organization Chart
Figure 4.6: USA Water Polo Organization Chart
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

Among diverse international competitions, the Olympic Games are considered the highest level of competition. Therefore, the general history of the Olympic Games in both South Korea and the USA were reviewed. In order to measure the achievements of athletes at international competitions, this thesis used the number of medals that national teams have won at these competitions as a starting point to determine overall country and individual sport success. A comparison of organizations in various sports has also been reviewed.

This paper examines the proportion of the top members’ sports or professional backgrounds on the Board of Directors in order to examine a potential outcome that decisions made by the Board of Directors could be influenced by their backgrounds. According to the upper echelons theory, the personal experiences and perspectives of a top management team can be accompanied by managerial values. Moreover, the organization can anticipate its outcomes based on experiences or perspectives of their top personnel (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). In doing so, it is possible to observe how each sport’s federation has a different composition of top members that demonstrates a potential relationship between the proportion of the core members’ backgrounds and the athletes’ achievements at international competitions.
Since there is one organization for aquatic sports in South Korea, the Board of Directors consists of diverse people. Among these, 86% of people on the Board of Directors are former swimmers who competed in swimming events or served as swimming coaches. The second-largest percentage is 14%, composed of members with backgrounds outside of aquatic sports. Those people might have sports backgrounds, but they do not have it in swimming. Even though KSF includes diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo, those sports are represented by 3%, 7%, and 3%, respectively, on the Board of Directors.

In the USA, the USAS is not a governing body that governs aquatic sports. The majority of members in the USAS, approximately 75%, do not have a background related to aquatic sports. The remaining 25% are equally divided among the rest of the aquatic sports, including masters swimming.

The USA’s aquatic sports NGBs show high percentages of people who have a background in a particular sport, which is strongly connected to the characteristics of the organization. In USA Swimming, 86% of people primarily have a background in swimming. The remaining 14% have a background in something other than swimming. In USA diving, 64% have a background in diving. The remaining 36% have backgrounds outside of diving. In USA Synchronized Swimming, 60% of people have a background and experience in synchronized swimming. Finally, USA Water Polo contains 70% with a background or experience in water polo. The remaining 30% have backgrounds in other areas.

Since many people who have a background in a particular sport are involved in the sport NGB in the United States, the NGB can potentially help direct athletes more
effectively because they will, in theory, have an intimate knowledge of the specific needs of that sport. Since the US system is designed for each individual sport to have its own NGB, there are not additional layers of bureaucracy. On the other hand, South Korea does not have a system that has been set up to individualize each aquatic sport, but rather has one overall organization supervising all aquatic sports. This in and of itself might pose a potential problem for individual sports receiving the attention and expertise they need. Since the South Korean system is overwhelmingly dominated by former swimmers, the other diverse aquatic sports - diving, synchronized swimming, and water polo – may have needs that are going unfulfilled. The systems and composition of the Board of Directors in aquatics may have a potential problem to develop all aquatic sports in general and support athletes. For a nation that has a nationwide interest in aquatic sports that has not always translated well to Olympic success, these issues should be addressed.

Conclusion

By comparing the two countries aquatic sports governance structures and composition, some conclusions can be drawn. Since the structure of aquatic sports NGBs in South Korea and the USA are different, there is the potential for problems implementing the needs of individual sports in South Korea. South Korea has only one organization that governs sports that have “water” in common. However, each of the sports – swimming, diving, synchronized swimming and water polo – have vast differences in how they are played and coached and what training methods should be utilized to maximize success.

The members’ perspectives or backgrounds on the Board of Directors may impact their knowledge of the sports’ problems and their overall decision-making. At the least, members who have no experience in a particular sport should invest time into fully
understanding the unique needs of the sport they govern. Though this study did not investigate if those members had taken any steps to understand the specific issues and problems those sports may encounter, at the least, a plan should be in place to insure members making critical decisions can understand key pieces of information before casting decisive votes.

The United States has won many more aquatic sports medals than South Korea. Certainly, that is likely a function of a much larger population base and history of swimming excellence in the USA. However, data from this research study indicate that other structural differences could have an impact upon the lack of overall aquatic sports Olympic success in South Korea, especially since aquatic sports are popular among the youth of a nation that has over 50 million citizens.

**Recommendations**

There is a dearth of research investigating aquatic sports NGBs. It is necessary to conduct more concentrated and detailed research about the topic in the future. Two specific studies should be pursued.

First, a researcher could expand on this study by examining the distribution of funding to each aquatic sport. Since the proportion of the core people’s backgrounds tends to lean toward one particular sport, the researcher could conduct a comparison of budgeting systems and distributions of funding between the two countries in aquatic sports NGBs.

Second, qualitative research could be conducted to examine the knowledge of individual sports by board members who have not participated in the sport previously. This research could investigate if identification of pertinent issues, communication styles, and hiring systems are optimal given the board members backgrounds.
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