

The tension between Elite and Grassroots  
Sports: Learning lessons for South Korea from  
the U.K., Australia, and Norway

BS KANG

PhD 2022

The tension between Elite and Grassroots  
Sports: Learning lessons for South Korea from  
the U.K., Australia, and Norway

BONGSOO KANG

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the  
requirements of Manchester Metropolitan  
University of the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy

Department of Economics, Policy and  
International Business

The Manchester Metropolitan University

2022

## Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the problems of the Korean sports system, that is, elite and grassroots sports and Korean sports governing bodies, and to propose applicable policies that can help the Korean sports system through analysis of systems, policies, and programmes in advanced sports countries such as the UK, Australia and Norway. For this purpose, this study set three research questions: 1) What are the key problems of the Korean sports systems? 2) How do the governing bodies for elite athletes, sporting programs, and participation in the UK, Australia and Norway function? and 3) How can South Korea learn from the sports systems of the UK, Australia and Norway? To answer these, the policy transfer framework used, and qualitative research methods were used with data collected using semi-structured interviews and document analysis.

The elite sports' problems discovered through the analysis were: 1) challenges with the win-at-all-costs mentality, 2) the Resocialisation of Retired Athletes and 3) the problems of school sports, and the grassroots sports' problems were: 1) expanding the grassroots sports base and 2) the limitations of support projects. Lastly, the sports governing bodies problems were: 1) Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC, 2) the KSOC neglecting nurturing grassroots sports and 3) the lack of cooperation between government ministries.

First, to improve the resocialisation of retired athletes in matters related to elite sports, this research proposed education and identification of athletes' interests, communication using the online community, provision of career programmes and the establishment of a professional consultation system. Second, to improve physical assault and sexual abuse, cooperation with Ethics Centres and sports institutions, establishing a continuous inspection system and continuous investigation and data collection were proposed. Third, to expand the grassroots sports base providing facilities meeting the people's needs, establishing a family sports culture and linkage among schools and sports clubs were proposed. Fourth, to improve the National Fitness 100 programme, increasing the government's budget, establishing an income structure and providing customised programmes in connection with schools and local institutions were proposed. Fifth, to improve the conflict between the KSOC and Korean NOC over the separation of the KSOC and the MCST, separation was proposed.

## Acknowledgment

In writing this PhD thesis, there are a number of people for whom I would like to express my sincere gratitude. I appreciate Professor Jonathan Grix for giving me his generous support, excellent academic vision as a scholar, deep knowledge, professionalism, and advice whenever necessary. I am grateful for Dr. Qi Peng and Professor Timothy Jung for their constructive advice and enthusiasm, which encouraged me to complete this thesis.

Second, I appreciate Professor Seungyup Lim, my mentor and brother. The support, encouragement, and advice of Professor Seungyup Lim helped me to complete my research. I am grateful for your dedication and help.

Third, I am thankful for Professor Jaewoo Park for providing the basis for establishing the Korean sports system as a research project. This allowed me to study the Korean sports system in depth.

Fourth, I am thankful for all my colleagues at Manchester Metropolitan University and Caitlin Schmidt for their insightful advice and many motivating discussions during my research. In addition, I sincerely appreciate the member of the National Assembly of South Korea, the officials of the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, the School Sports Promotion Association, the Bridge Consulting Group, and the Korea Institute of Sport Science, who were interviewed for my research.

Fifth, I am sincerely grateful for my Sokbburi friends and Seoul Bongsoo fam members. They always encouraged and supported me so that I could move forward diligently when I was having a hard time.

Lastly, I genuinely appreciate my parents and younger sister. My parents have fully supported me in every aspect of my life. Their unconditional love, devotion, encouragement, affection, and sacrifice have driven me to complete my Ph.D. course without any problems. They allowed me to continue my research, which would not have been possible without their help.

## Table of Contents

Abstract.....	i
Acknowledgment.....	ii
Table of Contents.....	iii
List of Figures.....	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
Abbreviations .....	ix
1. Introduction.....	1
2. Literature Review .....	7
2.1. Introduction .....	7
2.2. Elite Sports .....	7
2.3. Grassroots Sports .....	9
2.4. The Relationship Between Elite and Grassroots Sports.....	11
3. Review of Countries Successful in Sport .....	14
3.1. Introduction .....	14
3.2. United Kingdom.....	15
3.2.1. Introduction .....	15
2012 – Present .....	15
3.3. Australia.....	19
3.3.1. Introduction .....	19
1990s.....	19
3.4. Norway .....	22
3.4.1. Introduction .....	22
Elaboration and Consolidation of the Institution: 1990 – Present .....	23
3.5. South Korea.....	27
3.5.1. Introduction .....	27
1993 – 2002.....	28
2003 – Present .....	31
3.6. Conclusion.....	32
4. Framework .....	33
4.1. Introduction .....	33
4.2. Policy Transfer.....	35
5. Methodology .....	49
5.1. Introduction .....	49
5.2. Ontology .....	50

<b>5.3. Epistemology .....</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>5.4. Research Design .....</b>	<b>53</b>
5.4.1. Case Study .....	54
<b>5.5. Research Methods .....</b>	<b>55</b>
5.5.1. Qualitative Research .....	57
5.5.2. Data Collection .....	59
5.5.2.1. Documents .....	59
5.5.2.2. Interviews.....	61
5.5.2.3. Thematic Analysis .....	63
<b>5.6. Conclusion.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>6. Salient Problems in Korean Elite Sports.....</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>6.1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>6.2. Challenges with the Win-At-All-Costs Mentality.....</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>6.3. The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes.....</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>6.4. The Problems of School Athletic Sports .....</b>	<b>75</b>
6.4.1. Being deprived of the right to learn.....	76
6.4.2. Physical assault/sexual abuse issues.....	80
6.4.3. Camp training as the culprit of school sports problems .....	83
<b>6.5. Conclusion.....</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>7. Problems in Korean Grassroots Sports .....</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>7.1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>7.2. Problems with expanding the grassroots sports base .....</b>	<b>91</b>
7.2.1. Lack of sports facilities .....	91
7.2.2. Problems related to Community sports club: the deficiency of connection by age group and the monopolisation of facilities .....	94
7.2.3. Sports participation restrictions of teenagers .....	98
<b>7.3. Limitations of Grassroots Sports Support Project .....</b>	<b>102</b>
7.3.1. Problems with the Sports Club Pilot Project.....	102
7.3.2. The problem with public sports clubs.....	105
7.2.2.3. The problem with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: a lack of connection between measurement and exercise.....	109
<b>7.4. Conclusion.....</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>8. Limitations of Korean Sports Governing Bodies .....</b>	<b>117</b>
<b>8.1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>117</b>
<b>8.2. Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the         Korean Sport &amp; Olympic Committee (KSOC): The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST)         and the KSOC .....</b>	<b>118</b>

8.3. The KSOC, Maintaining Elite Sports Preference: Neglecting Grassroots Sports Support ....	123
8.4. Lack of Cooperation between Government Ministries: Non-cooperation between the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (MCST) and the Ministry of Education (MofE).....	127
8.5. Conclusion.....	133
9. Policy recommendations to South Korea from the UK, Australia, and Norway.....	137
9.1. Introduction .....	137
9.2. Policy Recommendations for the Problems in Korean Elite Sports .....	139
9.2.1. The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes .....	139
9.2.1.1. Performance Lifestyle (PL) Programme .....	140
9.2.1.2. Athlete Career and Education (ACE) Program, the Personal Excellence Program (PEP) and Athlete Wellbeing and Engagement (AW&E) .....	141
9.2.1.3. Recommendation for the resocialisation of retired athletes in Korea .....	144
9.2.2. Physical Assault/Sexual Abuse Issues .....	146
9.2.2.1. The actions for resolving physical assault/sexual abuse issues in the UK .....	147
9.2.2.2. The actions for resolving physical assault/sexual abuse issues in Australia .....	148
9.2.2.3. Recommendation for the problem of physical assault/sexual abuse in Korea .....	149
9.3. Policy Recommendations for the Problems in Korean Grassroots Sports .....	152
9.3.1. Problems with Expanding the Grassroots Sports Base .....	152
9.3.1.1. Norway.....	153
9.3.1.2. Recommendation for the Problems with Expanding the Grassroots Sports Base ....	157
9.3.2. Problems with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: A Lack of Connection between Measurement and Exercise .....	160
9.3.2.1. The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE) .....	161
9.3.2.2. Recommendations for the problems with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: a lack of connection between measurement and exercise .....	162
9.4. Policy recommendations for limitations of Korean sports governing bodies .....	165
9.4.1. Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC): The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) and the KSOC.....	165
9.4.1.1. Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) .....	166
9.4.1.2. Australian Sport Commission (ASC) .....	168
9.4.1.3. Recommendations for the NOC conflicts related to separation: The MCST and KSOC .....	170
9.4.2. Lack of Cooperation between Government Ministries: Non-cooperation between the MCST and Ministry of Education.....	172
9.4.2.1. Physical Education School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL) .....	173
9.4.2.2. Recommendation of the lack of cooperation between government ministries: Non-cooperation between the MCST and the Ministry of Education .....	178

9.5. Conclusion.....	180
10. Conclusion .....	186
10.1. Key Research Findings.....	186
10.2. Limitations .....	190
10.3. Recommendations for Future Research .....	191
References.....	192
Appendices.....	243
Appendix 1. United Kingdom’s Historical Review of Countries .....	243
Appendix 2. Australian Historical Review of Countries.....	256
Appendix 3. Norweigan Historical Review of Countries.....	264
Appendix 4. South Korean Historical Review of Countries.....	272
Appendix 5. Full information about the action of The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes.....	279
Appendix 6. Full information about the action of physical assault/sexual abuse issue in UK and Australia .....	288
Appendix 7. Full information about the action of problems with expanding the grassroots sports base in Norway .....	296
Appendix 8. Full information about the Duke of Edinburgh’s Award (DofE) .....	307
Appendix 9. Full information about Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) and Australian Sports Commission (ASC) .....	313
Appendix 10. Full information about Physical Education School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL)	320



## List of Figures

Figure 4. 1 Policy transfer uncoupled .....	40
Figure 4. 2 From lesson drawing to coercive transfer .....	42
Figure 5. 1 The interrelationship among the building blocks of research .....	49
Figure 5. 2 The key research paradigms .....	52
Figure 6. 1 Broadcasts shown simultaneously on the KBS, MBC and SBS broadcasting stations in Korea .....	69
Figure 6. 2 Cheonan Elementary School fire incident.....	85
Figure 7. 1 Trends in the Number of Grassroots Community Sports clubs and Members.....	96
Figure 7. 2 Proportion of Teenagers with a Lack of Exercise Worldwide and Ranking by Country....	101
Figure 9. 1 Participation rate in grassroots sports by age from 1991 to 2015 (%) .....	153
Figure 9. 2 Percentage of the adult population using types of facilities twice or more a week (age 15-96) .....	155
Figure 9. 3 2020 participating grassroots sports events .....	157
Figure 9. 4. The number of new sport and recreation facilities .....	176

## List of Tables

Table 2. 1 The Result of Funding to UK sport (Unit: £) .....	8
Table 4. 1 A policy transfer framework.....	399
Table 5. 1 Differences between quantitative and qualitative research.....	566
Table 5. 2 A part of the Documents' list.....	60
Table 5. 3 A provided overview of the interviewees .....	62
Table 6. 1 Evaluation scores by competition(Unit: points).....	67
Table 6. 2 Decisive reasons for athletes' retirement .....	72
Table 6. 3 Difficulties in career transition.....	73
Table 6. 4 Retired athletes' types of occupation (unit: %).....	744
Table 6. 5 Average training hours per week for Korean and German student athletes.....	799
Table 6. 6 Reasons for living at camp.....	84
Table 7. 1 Grassroots Sports Policy List Since 1993 .....	92
Table 7. 2 Population per Gym .....	93
Table 7. 3 Status of Club Enrolment (Unit: %) .....	97
Table 7. 4 Participation Ratio of Physical Activity at least 60 Minutes a Day, 5 Days a Week and Muscle-Strengthening Exercise at least 3 Days a Week .....	98
Table 7. 5 Teenagers' Physical Activities Trend by Year .....	99
Table 7. 6 Status of Teenager Participation in the School Sports Clubs League in Seoul .....	100
Table 7. 7 Sports Club Pilot Project.....	104
Table 7. 8 Current Status of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's Annual Support and Number of Centres (unit: proximately. million pound).....	111
Table 7. 9 The Number of participants in the National Fitness 100 Fitness Certification and Fitness Improvement Class (Unit: person).....	112
Table 8. 1 Comparison Table of Claims between the Sports Innovation Committee and the KSOC..	119
Table 8. 2 2018 KSOC Budget Status.....	122
Table 8. 3 Comparison of the Nr. of Competitions Related to Elite and Grassroots Sports .....	125
Table 8. 4 2021 Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project Brief.....	126
Table 8. 5 School Sports Club Registration Status .....	129
Table 8. 6 1) Methods or Systems in Connection with PE-SS, Local Sports Facilities, and Local Sports Associations, 2) the Perception of Local Sports facilities that Can Be Linked to PE-SS, and 3) Recognising the Need for Regional Linkage.....	130
Table 9. 1 Abbreviations.....	137
Table 9. 2 Human rights violations in the sports community from 2007 to 2021 .....	15151
Table 9. 3 Status of annual support for the National Fitness 100 Policy Project.....	16262
Table 9. 4 2018-20 ACS financial statement (unit: million pounds) .....	169
Table 9. 5 Survey on PE and SS in the UK from 2003/04 to 2007/08 .....	177
Table 10. 1 Answers for the Research Question 2.....	1877

## Abbreviations

AASC – Active After-schools Community Program  
ACE – Athlete Career and Education  
AfPE – Association of PE Subjects  
AIS – Australian Institute of Sport  
AOC – Australian Olympic Committee  
APC – Australian Paralympic Committee  
ASC – Australian Sports Commission  
ASDA – Australian Sport Drug Agency  
ATSI – Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander  
AW&E – Athlete Wellbeing & Engagement  
BAALPE – British Association of Advisors and Lecturers  
CGA – Commonwealth Games Australia  
CPD – Continuing Professional Development  
CPSU – Child Protection in Sport Unit  
CSPs – County Sports Partnerships  
DCMS - Department for Digital, culture, Media & Sport  
DCSF – Department for Children, Schools and Families  
DfES – Department of Education and Skills  
DofE – Duke of Edinburgh’s Award  
EIS – English Institute of Sport  
GB – Great Britain  
IASs – Australian Institutes and Academies of Sports  
IICSA – Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse  
IMF – International Monetary Fund  
IOC – International Olympic Committee  
KCSA – Korea council of sport for All  
KISS – Korea Institute of Sport Science  
KOC – Korean Olympic Committee  
Korea NOC – Korea National Olympic Committee  
KSOC – Korea Sport and Olympic committee  
LEA – Local Education Authorities  
LEAF – Life Skills for Elite Athletes Program  
LGA – Local government Association  
LP – Loughborough Partnership  
MCST – Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism  
MHRN – Mental Health Referral Network  
MIF – Medal Incentive Funding  
MofE – Ministry of Education  
NFs – National Federations

NGBs – National Governing Bodies  
NHRCK – National Human Right Commission of Korea  
NIF – Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports  
NOC – Norwegian Olympic Committee  
NOSs – National Sporting Organisations  
NSO – National Sport Organisation  
OAP – Olympic Athlete Programme  
OFSTED – Office for Standards in Education  
OLT – Olympiatoppen  
ONOC – Oceania National Olympic Committee  
PD – Professional Development  
PDM – Partnership Development manager  
PE – Physical Education  
PEA/UK – Physical Education Association of the United Kingdom  
PEP – Personal Excellence Program  
PESSCL – Physical Education School Sports and Club Links  
PL – Performance Lifestyle  
PLT – Primary Link Teachers  
PSA – Public Service Agreement  
QCA – Qualifications and Curriculum Authority  
SCL – School to Club Links  
SCUK – Sports Coach UK  
SD – Sport Development  
SFD – Sport for Development  
SIA – Sport Integrity Australia  
SISCIIP – Safeguarding Continuous Improvement Program  
SS – School Sports  
SSCo – School Sport Co-ordinator  
SSOs – State Sporting Organisations  
SSP – School Sport Partnerships  
VIS – Victorian Institute of Sport  
YST – Youth Sports Trust

## 1. Introduction

The relationship between elite sports and grassroots sports is a significant and topical issue. On account of the imbalanced development of each area of sport, the tension between the two is gradually increasing (Van Bottenburg, 2002). Some researchers believe that mega-events like the Olympics greatly affect the development of elite and grassroots sports. Murphy and Bauman (2007) proclaimed that the Olympics are an event which suggests sports and physical exercise; it also plays an important role in raising community interest in sports, providing various sports activities, and increasing participation in sports. However, many other researchers disagree with this claim. For example, Craig and Bauman (2014), who studied the effects of the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics on physical activities and sports participation of children and teenagers, found that it did not have much effect on them. Furthermore, the prominent success, at a mega-event, of a nation's sportsmen and sportswomen often facilitates an increase in participation in that particular sport. Koh (2005) provides the example that after hosting the 1986 Seoul Asian Games and 1988 Seoul Olympics, opportunities for Koreans to participate in diverse sports had increased. Prior to the 1985 Asian Games, the percentage of people in Korea who regularly participated in sports was low at 19.4% but had sharply increased to 38.8% in 2003 after the 1986 Asian Games, the 1988 Seoul Olympics and the 2002 Korea-Japan World Cup (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2003; Koh, 2005). Nevertheless, Germany has not experienced any evidence of this trend. According to the findings of Feddersen et al. (2009), during Germany's golden era of tennis, its growth was not positive even in the presence of sports stars like Boris Becker, Michael Stich and Steffi Graf. Even when these stars retired, instead of growth, tennis had steadily reducing figures.

Grix et al. (2017) claimed that there is little evidence to suggest that elite sporting success and sports mega-events encourage the public to participate in grassroots sports in the UK and beyond. In addition, evidence obtained from currently available data, including the 2010 Sport England Active People Survey, reveals that it is hard to consider the validity of the claim that the success of elite sport will raise the participation rate of the populace or increase the benefits of increased public participation in grassroots sports (Grix and Carmichael, 2012). For example, the Digital, Culture, Media and Sport Committee (2017) conducted a report,

‘Changing Lives: The Social Impact of Participation in Culture and Sport’, which elucidated how the Olympic Games had been identified as a clear driver for participation in sports. Many children’s sports clubs were established after the 2012 London Olympic and Paralympic Games, inspiring more than 41,000 children to participate in more physical activity and allowing them to reach the recommended levels as well as engaging more than 7,000 inactive children in various physical activities and sports. The ‘Summer of Sport’ campaign was created by the National Trust, after the 2016 Rio Olympics, at their properties, in which 40% of the participants were making their initial attempt at an activity. Since the Olympics, many children are participating in sports activities, and it is expected that the number of participating children and adolescents will increase. However, the recent ‘Sports in Our Communities’ report released by the Digital, Culture, Media and Sport Committee (2021) indicates that, on the contrary, it is decreasing. Sport England’s collected data indicated that during the 2019–20 academic year, in England, the number of active children and young people decreased by 1.9%. A portion of this decrease could be attributed school closures causing children to not participate in physical education classes. Yet when schools reopened in the 2020 summer term, even when compared to the same period from the previous year (2019), the number of active children had decreased by 2.3%. As such, this is equal to more than 100,000 fewer children meeting the recommended level of activity established by the Chief Medical Officer. Altogether, in 2020, the goal of meeting the recommended level of activity, an average of 60 minutes per day, was only achieved by 51.1% of children and young people. Therefore, when major events like the Olympic Games are being arranged, they are promoted as having a prominent impact on sporting activity. These claims are not supported by the evidence in the literature, as no prominent increase of sports involvement has been experienced due to such sporting events. In addition, sporting heroes and the sporting involvement of general people have not been found to be related (Aitken, 2017).

The 9th World Sport for All Congress was held in 2002. It focused on exploring how grassroots sports (sport for all) and elite sport are linked to each other; the theme was “grassroots sports (Sport for all) and elite sport: rivals or partners?” After the analysis of all the factors, it was found that grassroots sports and elite sports have different focus areas and have separate objectives and operational processes. However, there was an existent relationship between the two which requires that the stakeholders should deem grassroots sports and elite sport

as inter-related due to the advantages one has for the other. Grassroots sports act as a foundation of elite sport, and elite sport acts as a motivational factor for grassroots sports. In addition, both groups need to support each other due to their inter-dependence (Netherlands Olympic Committee\*Netherlands Sports Confederation (NOC\*NSF), 2002; Torres and McLaughlin, 2015; Van Bottenburg, 2002). Accordingly, many experts, such as policymakers, politicians and sports stakeholders, have attempted to solve the often opaque debate about the relationship between elite sports and grassroots sports and about the decisions on which to fund, taking into account a variety of views (Grix et al., 2017).

In the case of South Korea, there were two-sport governing bodies: the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) which promotes elite sports and the Korea Council of Sport for All (KCSA) which supports grassroots sports. Such a dualised sporting management system has caused various problems: raising concerns over the abnormal development of Korean sport as a whole, the insufficient use of manpower and budget and the disconnect between elite sports and grassroots sports (Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) - Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) integrated Committee, 2015a). Through discussions conducted since 2000, the solution was to integrate the two organisations. As a result, the Korea Sport and Olympic Committee (KSOC) was finally founded in 2016 in the form of a combined sporting governing body which is expected to deal with elite sport and grassroots sports as a whole. However, it was pointed out that even after the integration, the problems that still appeared even in the dual system were not improved, and the discord still persisted (Jeon and Lim, 2017). For example, uncooperative issues between elite and grassroots sports, disproportionate support and development, the resocialisation of elite athletes and inter-agency linkage issues continue to persist five years after integration. Furthermore, the conflict over the separation of the KSOC and the Korea NOC was also identified as a problem between the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) and the KSOC (Korean Sports Innovation Committee, 2019).

There have been a number of studies investigating the integration of both organisations, analysing the conflicts and problems in the integration process and the improvements to the system (Chang, 2015; Chang, 2015; Chung, 2016; Kim, 2015; Kim, 2016; Shon, 2015). Studies have been carried out, analysing how to achieve development through sport organisational integration (Chung, 2014; Park, 2015; Seong, 2016) and through a policy framework (Kim,

2016; Park, 2016). However, research on the problems that continue to appear even after integration is incomplete. In addition, the task of benchmarking advanced cases where sports governing bodies have been successful has yet to be undertaken as well. Accordingly, this researcher intends to present alternatives by analysing the systems of sport advanced countries for problems that have not been improved and are persistent with the integrated KOC.

What is a sport advanced country? First of all, the term an advanced country was first coined in the 'World Economic Conference of the 7 Western Industrial Countries', i.e., the second G7 Summit, hosted by the US and attended by leaders of the US, the UK, Germany, France, Italy, Japan and Canada in 1976 in Dorado, Puerto Rico. At that time, they held the summit under the name of the world's first advanced countries through the progress of per capita income and industrialisation to establish a common front to control the global economy (Government of Canada, 2022; Margaret Thatcher Foundation, 2022). Scholars have claimed that an advanced country refers to a country in which economic development is predicated on the development of science, technology, social system and culture (Park, 2019).

On the other hand, in sports, an advanced country can be said to be a country where performance and performance base have developed evenly. Myprotein announced 'The World's Sportiest Countries' results in 2020, with Australia taking the top spot, followed by the US, the UK and Japan. These results were based on all-time Summer and Winter Olympics rankings, sports participation rankings, and elite sports success rankings (Hunt, 2020). This method of evaluating performance can be confirmed through the performance of competitions such as the Olympics and the level of participation in sports, which is achieved by performance base, which includes investment in sports, facilities, sports-related systems, culture, leaders and the development of sports science (Jeon and Lim, 2017; Park, 2019).

Nam and Lee (2019) argued that the current concept of a sport advanced country refers to a country with a systematic sports system, a balanced virtuous cycle structure in the sports world and sports welfare for all. In particular, the concept has changed over time. In the past, a sports powerhouse that basically had physical conditions, that is, sports facilities and scientific athlete training plans and won medals based on these, was called a sport advanced country. However, now, a country with a balanced development of elite sports and leisure

sports and a system in which the sports ecosystem works through the expansion of the sports base is considered a sport advanced country (Park, 2017; Jeon, 2018; Shim, 2015).

In particular, one possibility is to learn from the UK, Australia and Norway: states which are premised on the so-called 'virtuous cycle' structure between elite and grassroots sports participation based on local community sports frameworks. The UK and Australia are sports-advanced countries which have successfully rebuilt their sports systems after failing in the past Olympic Games. In addition, they invest more in elite sports than grassroots sports, and in the end, they are the countries that maintain this structure, believing that it will affect the development of grassroots sports. The countries' examples are considered to be very similar to the reality of Korean sports in terms of significantly investing in elite sports. However, compared to these two countries, Korea's elite and grassroots sports have significant problems, so it is judged that Korea can learn from their policies and programmes. In addition, Norway is a country with the highest participation rate in sports in the world and is investing more in grassroots sports than in elite sports. Therefore, I will study the policies related to grassroots sports, especially policies promoted by Norway to increase the participation rate so they can be applied to Korea. To briefly explain the virtuous cycle mentioned above, the virtuous cycle structure holds that "investment in elite sport promotes grassroots sports participation, which, in turn, apart from the obvious health benefits, provides a greater 'pool' from which elite champions of the future are likely to be drawn" (Grix and Carmichael, 2012:74). According to Tinaz et al. (2014), from a theoretical point of view, it can be claimed that Turkey's sports policy is controlled by beliefs in the 'virtuous cycle of sport'. In other words, the success of elite athletes serves to accelerate the participation in grassroots sports. Also, the UK, Australia and Norway are good examples showing their longstanding efforts to maintain this structure in the performance of elite sports at the same time as the increase of participation in grassroots sports (Green, 2007; Grix and Carmichael, 2012).

Therefore, in this research, through the assessment of the changing progression of sport policy in the UK, Australia, Norway and South Korea, the first objective is to understand the most salient problems of the sports systems in South Korea at chapter 6, 7 and 8. The second objective is to analyse how the three countries, the UK, Australia and Norway, are meeting the needs of elite athletes, how they overcome the contradictory balance between elite



sports and grassroots sports and how they develop grassroots sports and public participation programmes. The third objective is to contribute ideas to the South Korean sporting system from the understanding of policy decisions, priorities and outcomes in UK, Australia and Norway's sports (Green, 2007). To achieve this objective, the research, through conducting interviews and document analysis, endeavours to answer the following questions:

1. What are the key problems of the Korean sports systems?
2. How do the governing bodies' for elite athletes, sporting programmes and participation in the UK, Australia and Norway function?
3. How can South Korea learn from the sports systems of the UK, Australia and Norway?

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter highlights three literature strands important for the present project, including elite sports, grassroots sports and the relationship between the two.

### **2.2. Elite Sports**

The operational definition of 'elite sport' or 'high performance sport' used in this study is "a competition sport at the highest international level with a priority placed on sports in the Olympic Games programme and on those sports with regular world championships" (Semotiuk, 1996:7; Green, 2003:1). Over the last 40 years, various Western countries have employed systematic and scientific methods to improve their probability of success in sports with the help of sport systems sponsored by the government (cf. Green and Oakley, 2001a; Whitson, 1998). This trend is expanding to countries such as Australia and most western European nations which are investing huge amounts in international sport with a special focus on the Olympic Games to attain the maximum number of medals (Whitson, 1998).

Elite sports achievements can become a pride factor for a country, locally and internationally, as well as improving mass participation (Grix and Carmichael, 2012). Since 1997, the UK government has tremendously increased financial support for elite sports which is expected to stay on the rising graph, at least up until the 2020 Tokyo Olympics. The UK government, for instance, granted £70.1 million four years before the 2000 Athens Olympic Games for that Olympic cycle. Moreover, the grant increased to £304.4 million of public and lottery funding in addition to the private sector's £100 million in the 2008–2012 Olympic funding cycle. This indicates an investment of around £400 million in elite sports by the UK government in that period. This amount rose still further by 29% for the 2016 Rio Olympics and the 2020 Tokyo Olympics. Certainly, the support by the government increases the motivational levels of athletes (Cutmore and Ziegler, 2015; Grix and Carmichael, 2012; UK Sport, 2008a).

Table 2. 1 The Result of Funding to UK sport (Unit: £)

Year	Funding	Olympics	Medals	Rank
2000 - 2004	17 million/year	2004 Athens Olympics	30 (G 9, S 9, B 12)	10
2008 - 2012	100 million/year	2012 London Olympics	65 (G29, S 17, B 19)	3
2015 - 2016	135 million/year	2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympics	67 (G27, S23, B 17)	2
2017 - 2020	135 million/year	2020 Tokyo Olympics		

Sources: Cutmore and Ziegler (2015); Grix and Carmichael (2012)

The trends over the years show that the number of medals has increased with the increase in government grants. This trend has given rise to a kind of 'sporting arms race'. The governments are prepared to fund elite sports with extensive resources because it contributes to winning more medals. In addition, other countries are funding their elite sports; thus, the competition to grant more subsidies has become a pattern (Green and Collins, 2008:9; Bosscher, 2008).

Due to its international achievements in elite sports, Australia has significantly influenced the elite sport policies of different countries. The UK government considered Australia, at one point, as a basis to improve its own sports performance. With the help of the government and other agencies, Australia has become one of the most successful sporting countries around the globe on a per capita basis (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002). In the 1976 Olympic Games, Australia showed an inadequate performance and stood at the 32nd position. This triggered the government, which then designed systems and structures to improve its elite athlete growth through grants and facilities such as the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) as well as improving international performance (Stewart et al., 2004; Toohey, 1990). The efforts paid off and Australia not only hosted the 2000 Sydney Olympics but also performed exceptionally well at them as well as the 2004 Athens Olympics. It secured the fourth position on the Olympic medal table with 58 medals in 2000 and 50 in 2004 (Australian Olympic Committee, 2009; Bloomfield, 2003). As per the sport plan of the Australian government, 'Australian Sport: The Pathway for Success' (2010), elite sports, with a concentration on Olympic sports, is still the main focus. The last few years have experienced huge investments in elite sports, and the Olympic NSOs (National Sporting Organisations) have received extra grants of £67 million (\$124 million AUD) from 2010 through to 2016. This clearly indicates the importance of international sporting success to the country and its government (Commonwealth of Australia, 2010; Australian Sport Commission, 2014).

In addition, looking at the case of South Korea, along with the aforementioned two countries, Korea has also made a great effort to develop elite sports. For instance, South Korea's elite sports development has been linked to various policy objectives for the South Korean government (Ahn, 2002b; Ahn, 2002a). In 1979, the military regime was established by a military coup (Kim, 2006; Jang and Lee, 2006). At that time, the government hosted the 1986 Seoul Asian Games and the 1988 Seoul Olympics as part of a strategy to make people apolitical and to solve social conflicts. In addition, through efforts to develop elite sports, the Korean government was convinced that it could improve national competitiveness and enhance its national image (Won and Hong, 2014). Second, since the era of the high level of confrontation between North and South Korea, sports were like a silent war; in this situation, the outcome of sports games was considered as a measure of the superiority of the regime. Moreover, elite sports could produce effective results within short-time intensive investments and efforts. Consequently, policymakers had become more attracted to elite sports than grassroots sports (Ahn, 2002a; Ahn, 2002b; Lee, 2003). Even though the times are changing, due to these domestic and international circumstantial factors, Korea has maintained, in various ways, the elite sports paradigm for the social benefits of the government by cultivating a small number of elite athletes.

In this regard, the success of elite sports through the investments and efforts of one's national governments are expressed to be a symbol of national power and pride in the international community. It is clear that the nature of sports can be said to consist of not just sport, but also a political value as well.

### **2.3. Grassroots Sports**

It is a fact that grassroots sports are generally understood as 'participatory sports', a broad term encompassing nonprofessional activities occasionally referred to as 'sports-for-all' (European Union Committee, 2011). According to the report by the International Sport and Culture Association (2012:10), grassroots sports are often praised as an important medium enabling its actors to practice and learn a sense of fair play and justice, conflict resolution as well as generating sociability and collective effort. Indeed, the social function of sports relies

on the fact that grassroots sports are traditionally organised within voluntary sports associations (mainly small, local sports clubs) in which members join a local community, hence generating cooperation and collective initiatives and sense of ownership.

For this study, a comprehensive definition of grassroots sports will be used to refer to any amateur sporting activity. This includes definitions employed for charitable purposes as well as for 'public benefit' (Her Majesty's Treasury, 2016).

Involvement in sports can result in increased cohesion amongst different communities and reduced tensions. Particularly, grassroots sports can act as a mediator by generating cohesive communities and contribute to developing a sensation of pride and ownership exclusively via organising competitive events. Leaders and mentors could proficiently prevent participants' social apprehension, along with featuring unacceptable conduct and strictly condemning offenders (UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace, 2005; European Union Committee, 2011; Eurostrategies, 2011). With regard to EU policy, in particular, sport can strongly contribute to the achievement of goals such as employment, education and social inclusion in the European 2020 strategy. Therefore, the increase in participation in grassroots sports should be a priority in the field of sports (European Union Committee, 2011).

In 1980, interest not only in elite sports, but also in grassroots sports increased significantly in the UK (Collins, 2010). Over the years, these efforts became strategies to improve sports involvement in the UK (Collins, 2010). Additionally, another factor responsible for heavy investments in sports development is the increased competition among countries at the Olympic Games. Due to this competition, professional and skilled athletes who can come up from the grassroots level and perform in elite sport are required. However, these progressions require efforts in terms of money and time by the country and its government (Shipway, 2007). In the 2009-2010 Australian Annual Report, approximately £14 million (\$26 million AUD) was provided in support of grassroots sports by the Australian government. The funding was for strengthening grassroots sports activities and increasing participation 'pathways for players, administrators, coaches and officials' (Australian Sport Commission (ASC), 2011:24).

Furthermore, as far as Norwegian sports are concerned, sport had been included as a part of cultural policy since the first appearance of sports on the white paper in the early 1970s, and proposed participation (Ministry of Church and Education, 1974b). In the 1990s, the government published a congressional report on sport. According to the report, sport is culture, participation can bring health benefits and it plays a significant role in social integration (Skille, 2011; Skille, 2015). According to the 2011-2012 white paper, the Norwegian government's sports policy is included in its vision of 'sports and physical activity for all' (Det Kongelige Kulturdepartementet [The Royal Ministry of Culture], 2012).

Therefore, many countries are making as much effort to develop grassroots sports in order to feed into success for elite sports. In most countries, however, they are investing more in elite sports, which has led to an imbalanced development of elite and grassroots sports (Ahn, 2002b; Green and S. Collins, 2008; Stewart et al., 2004). More details will be covered in the next section.

## **2.4. The Relationship Between Elite and Grassroots Sports**

Ongoing work has outlined the perspective that many people have generally observed sport improvement as a cooperation pyramid with mass participation at the base prompting elite participation (Sotiriadou et al., 2008). Buggel (1986) argued that there is a difference regarding the level of sports between elite sports and grassroots sports; however, they can lead to interrelationships. Elite and mass participation support and complement each other and are not rivals according to Sotiriadou et al. (2008). For sports developers, what this implies is that, theoretically, it is not 'part of trickle-down effects', but rather 'the extent to which the elite and mass participation coexist' (ibid, 2008:266).

In Australia, the aggregate funds allotted to NSOs for the purpose of encouraging participation was estimated as accounting for 3% of the entire NSO allocation in 2005-2006; however, in 2007-2008, this declined to 1.6%. In that period, the funds assigned for elite sports from the allocated aggregate NSO grant were approximately 95% and 93% (Green and Collins, 2008). Indeed, the Sport 2000 Task Force made the conclusion that "participation has been starved of resources while Commonwealth Government programmes have focused on

elite sport” (Commonwealth of Australia, 1999:73). This is closely related to Stewart et al. (2004), who claim that “the last 20 years of sport development has been accompanied by more than £826 million (\$1 billion AUD) of Commonwealth Government funding, with most of it directed at elite sport” (p. 189).

However, there are numerous national programmes namely the AASC (Active After-schools Community Program), which was established in 2005 with the objective of increasing the participation rates of physical activities in Australia. In 2007, an additional approximately £67 million (\$124.4 million AUD) was promised by the Commonwealth administration to expand the programme for the coming three years. The goal of this programme was to encourage students to participate in sports, to revitalise grassroots sports and to become a platform for generating elite athletes (Green and Collins, 2008).

In the case of South Korea, after hosting the 1988 Summer Olympics, elite sports were well developed. The growth of elite sports increased citizens’ interest in sports participation. To promote grassroots sports in South Korea, the Korea Council of Sport for All (KCSA) was established in 1991 (Park, 2015). Thus, in Korea, there were two sports governing bodies: the KOC for elite sports and the KCSA for grassroots sports. However, this dualised administrative system has caused various controversies, raising concerns over operational efficiency and normality (Jeon and Lim, 2017; Korea Institute of Sport Science, 2009). For instance, due to the disconnect between elite and grassroots sports, the non-cooperative separation was deepened even within single sporting events, crippling their well-organised growth. This disconnect even raised concerns over the imbalanced development of Korean sports as a whole (Ahn, 2002b). Moreover, although both the KOC and KCSA had branch units in cities and provinces, counties and districts, their work overlaps and insufficient inter-body cooperation undermines efficient use of the workforce and budget (Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) - Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) integrated Committee, 2015a). Serious problems stemming from the administrative separation between elite and grassroots sports have been frequently pointed out. Lawmakers, government officials, sports policy researchers and athletic association officials came to realise the need for change. Through continuous discussion beginning in 2000, in 2016, the two governing bodies were finally integrated and

called the Korea Sport and Olympic Committee (KSOC), which was expected to handle elite and grassroots sports as a whole.

However, this new sport governing body (the KSOC) has been trying to benchmark advanced cases that have succeeded for change. By learning the 'virtuous cycle' between elite and grassroots sports, the governing body desires to maintain a balanced development and smooth interrelationship (Grix and Carmichael, 2012). In particular, it is necessary to scrutinise sport-advanced countries' organisational models in-depth and compare and analyse them to determine a desirable and practical way forward for the South Korean sports context.



### **3. Review of Countries Successful in Sport**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter benchmarks policies and programmes from the UK, Australia and Norway, as they are sport advanced countries usually at the top of the Olympic medal table (the UK and Australia in summer/Norway in winter). The UK and Australian governments invest more in elite sports than grassroots sports, while Norway invests more in grassroots sports. Recently, the objectives of sport policy in the UK have been focused on improving the population's participation rate in sport as well as physical activity to improve a wide span of outcomes including well-being, health and social capital (Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2018). Over the last thirty or so years, significant changes are being made in the provision of sport with regards to the growth of facilities in the private sector, while facilities in the public sector are being outsourced for private management (Sport England, 2004). However, the Australian government completely revised its sports system due to its worst failure at the 1976 Montreal Olympics and started giving full support. Currently, the Australian sports system has become a benchmark for many other nations as one of the most successful countries (De Bosscher et al., 2015). In particular, even though the Australian government invests more in elite sports than grassroots sports, its grassroots sports are active, with high participation. As such, the UK and Australian governments invest with more focus on elite sports' success (Jolly, 2013; Roan, 2018), similarly to Korea; however, Korea's elite and grassroots sports have various and serious problems, which call for efforts to learn the UK and Australian policies and programmes for improvement. Norway is the country with the highest sports participation rate in the world, always remaining at the top of the list at every Winter Olympics, even ranking first at the 2018 Pyeongchang Olympics (Britton, 2018a; Halsall, 2020; Greatest Sporting Nation, 2021). Its success seems like the result of a huge investment in elite sports, but Norway invests more in grassroots sports than elite sports. Therefore, looking at policies related to grassroots sports, especially policies promoted by Norway to increase participation, can provide alternatives necessary to revitalise Korean grassroots sports.

Looking at Scheerder et al.'s (2017) book *Sport Policy Systems and Sport Federations: Across-National Perspective*, it shows the relationship between Sport (con)federations and governmental bodies in 13 countries. In particular, it says it is necessary to provide "first a brief country profile, included in each chapter, outlining the geographical, demographical, political, economic and socio-cultural situation, as well as the levels of sport participation and other sport-related characteristics of the respective country" to provide clear insight (ibid:3-4). Also, the structure, changing of sport policy, financial support, etc. were introduced to explain each country's sports system. As such, this researcher will apply Scheerder et al.'s (2017) study to explain the background of each country and Korea in more detail to benchmark sports policies in the UK, Australia and Norway as this researcher thinks it is important. In this chapter, the recent background of the UK, Australia, Norway and Korea is explained; however, more detail of these countries background will be presented in the appendices.

## **3.2. United Kingdom**

### **3.2.1. Introduction**

Since time immemorial, sport has been an essential part of British society. Many contemporary sports originated in the UK, for example, tennis, football, boxing, badminton, curling, hockey and cricket, of which many are Olympic sports. There is a close relationship between the UK and the Olympic Games since London hosted the 1908, 1948, and 2012 (Summer) Olympic Games (Britain For Events, 2019; British Council, 2013).

From the early 1990s, the government has been persistently emphasising a policy of 'elite sports' and 'grassroots sports participation' (Salisbury, 2013), with recent years being particularly successful. In this section, the sports background of the UK from 2012 to the present is represented.

#### **2012 – Present**

London received the award of hosting the 2012 Summer Olympic Games which resulted in a

shift in the direction and delivery of sport policy priorities in the UK. Publishing the DCMS (2008) 2012 Legacy Action Plan, 'Before, during, and after: making the most of the London 2012 Games', outlined the new determinations of the government for the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. This plan aimed at using the games to attain several grassroots policy agendas that focused on increasing sports participation, addressing the underachievement of the younger people, their disaffection and supporting them to make healthy lifestyle choices (Phillpots et al., 2011).

Andy Burnham, the Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport, made an announcement in June 2008 outlining that as an Olympic host nation, the UK had a moment in time to establish new levels of ambitions for sport and create permanent change in the society, providing the nation with an era of unprecedented opportunity (Department for culture media and sport (DCMS), 2008). The win also led to another shift in sport policy from an emphasis on the broader benefit of sports to the society to a sport for sport's sake narrative (Brookes and Wiggan, 2009). As a result, the NGBs and Sport England paid more attention to policy outcomes that focused on the 2012 London Olympics and mutual commitment to maximising British sporting success (Phillpots et al., 2010).

At the end of the 2012 London Olympics, the Prime Minister assured everyone in maintaining the funding for Olympic and Paralympic sports that were a success in London through to Rio in 2016 (Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) and Crouch, 2015). As such, UK Sport was able to oversee a system that had risen from strength to strength and placed Team GB and Paralympic GB in a position from which they could challenge at the very top medal tables in the 2016 Rio Olympics, and its ambition extended to its commitment to Tokyo in 2020 (ibid).

Although securing funding is critical for ensuring that elite athletes continue receiving support, there is also a need to make sure that the support is aligned to the outcomes of the strategy. The results must be universally applicable across grassroots and elite sports. Therefore, both would be held accountable for delivering strategic outcomes (Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) and Crouch, 2015).

In 2015, Sports Minister Tracey Crouch announced plans to get Britain more active while also promoting safety and good government. The new strategy titled 'Sporting Future: A New

Strategy for an Active Nation', aimed at redefining success through the delivery of more outdoor recreational sports (ibid; Flitcroft, 2015).

Specifically, it focuses on inactivity, youth, under-represented groups and the social value of sports. It also outlines its support for high performing sports that are non-Olympic. The DCMS (2015:10) aims at redefining sports by focusing on five key outcomes: mental wellbeing, economic development, individual development, physician wellbeing and social and community development. According to Flitcroft (2015), the document recognises the crucial role of outdoor recreation and the natural features of motivating individuals to become active alongside non-traditional sports and physical activities as well as the economic value of outdoor tourism.

The United Kingdom Sports Council (2016) stated that the UK's sports system has excellent performance, the success chances of British athletes were high and the field play performance is essential. As such, UK Sport can maintain a high standard of governance locally and internationally. The public also has the opportunity to witness their heroes in action in both domestic and foreign sporting events. Most specifically, the focus on the 2016 Olympics was significantly based on the Rio de Janeiro Olympic and Paralympic Games. In total, UK Sport received £125 million as a contribution towards the British Olympic Association and British Paralympic Association every year, and £1.6 million was distributed. Lastly, the UK garnered 67 medals from 19 sports with 27 gold medals coming from 15 sports, one ahead of China in the Rio Games, beating their own record of 65 medals from London. Simon Timpson, the UK Sport Director of Performance, insisted this did not happen by chance (BBC sport, 2012; The United Kingdom Sports Council, 2016), but by design. As a result, £88 million will be issued to grassroots sports by Sport England due to the 2016 Rio Olympics' success. The opportunities for investments and funding were developed based on the 15 million individuals consistently playing sports in the country, which Sports England refers to as the 'core market' (BBC Sport, 2016b; BBC Sport, 2016a).

On 8 August 2021, the last day of the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, Team GB's medal total matched its medal total from the 2012 London Olympics, making it Team GB's second-most successful overseas Olympics following the 2016 Rio Olympics (Ingle, 2021). The performance of Team GB in Tokyo surpassed the 52 medals and 14 golds pre-Games predictions in spite of several

high-profile setbacks which included the shocking taekwondo defeat for Jade Jones in the first round, issues with injuries and the withdrawal of Amber Hill, who was a potential gold medal shooter, due to COVID-19 before the Games had even started. The governing body revised Team GB's medal aspirations by lowering them, taking into account the 'extraordinary circumstances' which had been presented in the Games' build-up to the team's athletes and staff. A 'broader and more holistic' way would be used to measure success than just medals according to UK Sport (BBC, 2021). Team GB was provided with funding of about £342 million for the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games since the 2016 Rio Olympics, making it the largest ever overseas Team GB. Additionally, UK Sport provided an increase of 44% to Team GB, totalling £77.4 million a year from the previous £54 million a year for the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games (DCMS and Huddleston, 2021; DCMS et al., 2021). This implies that to achieve success in the Olympic Games, Team GB's funding from the government should continue to increase; however, grassroots and community sports facilities do not have an easy time receiving funding. As an example, on 4 August 2021 the Local Government Association (LGA) indicated that grassroots and community sport facilities will disappear without further investment. The global COVID-19 pandemic has caused numerous problems, some of which result in additional financial pressures for many leisure facilities. Representing councils from across England and Wales, the LGA said 63% of main sports halls and 60% of swimming pools have passed their expected lifespans or are long overdue for refurbishment, meaning that some facilities have remained closed and will continue to after the pandemic and that they are also sorely in need of expensive repairs. In addition, investment in sport and leisure facilities, whether it be financial support through to strategic partnerships among central and local governments and community organisations, is essential to improve young people's development, giving them healthy habits and vital life skills (Local Government Association, 2021). All of this indicates that the UK government's priority for investment in sport is not grassroots sports but elite sports, potentially reducing participation in sports.

### **3.3. Australia**

#### **3.3.1. Introduction**

Australia is an infamous nation of sports. Its sporting achievements and triumphs have significantly influenced its culture, national esteem and status. Underlying this achievement is a developed system for national sports that approaches sports wholly to grow and deliver them. In this space, the government of Australia is devoted to promoting the participation of the community in sports and success in high-performance games, hosting key world-class sporting activities and securing sports' integrity (Brockett, 2017).

From the gathering of organisations personal participation data, Australia is among the countries with the highest rates of participation. For instance, the 15–17-year-old age group has a 74% participation rate. Approximately 60% of the population aged 15 years and above (11.1 million people) were somewhat involved in a sporting activity and physical exercise every year (Eime et al., 2015).

Therefore, it is essential to review the Australian sports system. This chapter examines the significant conditions of sports development in Australia raises from 1990 to the present.

#### **1990s**

Senator Ros Kelly received an invitation from the Hawke Government to be the Arts, Sports, Environment, Tourism and Territories Minister in the early 1990s. By the following year, she championed a dumbfounding growth in the sports policy of the Commonwealth Government as she not only increased the level of funding substantially but also expanded the base for funding. Between 1991-1992, £32 million (\$59 million AUD) was received by the ASC towards its elite development support, the advancement of the management of sport and participation programmes as well as coaching (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1992). Besides, the Australian Sport Drug Agency (ASDA), the Community Recreation and Sport Facility Programme, Barcelona's Olympic team and others received an allocation of around £9.6 million (\$18 million AUD) (Stewart et al., 2004). The entire budget for sports of £41

million (\$77 million AUD) for the year 1991-1992 was an increase of 55% over the 1989-1990 year (ibid; Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1990; 1992).

As numerous rhetoric was utilised to step up the community as well as the involvement in the area of sports, the majority of the funding from the Commonwealth Government around the beginning of the 1990s continuously and generally visited the elite sports area, particularly Olympic sporting activities. The IOC's (International Olympic Committee) 1993 decision towards awarding the 2000 Olympic Games to Sydney exercised an expressive effect on the direction and pace of the organisation and administration, as well as funding allocations towards all of the decisions of the 1990s regarding the federal sports policy, which also solidified Australia's lobby for elite sports (Green and Houlihan, 2005).

The Maintain the Momentum policy organised to be on course from 1992-1996 was set by the government, having allocated £158 million (\$293 million AUD) or about £39 million (\$73 million AUD) on average annually for over four years (Bloomfield, 2003; Stewart et al., 2004). However, in 1993, there was an interruption of this policy featuring the approval given to Sydney to host the 2000 Olympic Games. A swift complementation was made over the Olympic Athlete Programme (OAP), which offered an extra £73 million (\$135 million AUD) for the next six years up until 2000 (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1994a).

Up to £48 million (\$89 million AUD) was given to the ASC towards its development of sports as well as for preparation programmes for Olympic athletes. £1.6 million (\$3 million AUD) was allotted to the ASDA, while £7.5 million (\$14 million AUD) was allotted to the Community, Cultural, Recreation and Sport Facility Programme. Also, a contribution of £27 million (\$50 million AUD) was made by the Commonwealth towards the construction of the facility at the Olympic site – Homebush. As soon as the addition of the water-safety grant, the entire budget for sport for the year 1994-1995 was £86 million (\$159 million AUD). This indicates the total hallmark of sport funding by the Commonwealth Government (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1994b).

Extra funding is not the only thing the OAP brought in. It also brought inclusivity for the Sydney Olympics as a series of targets and goals. The first requirement was to get adequate funds across to the disabled athletes' preparation so as to yield satisfactory results at the Paralympics, taking the lead over the events for able-bodied athletes over time. Second, it

targeted the production of 650 athletes who had competition eligibility through the attainment of standards for qualifying at the Games. Lastly, it intended that no fewer than 60 medals would be won by the Australian athletes. Eventually, 58 medals were secured when the 60-medal target was nearing attainment (Stewart et al., 2004).

For the sporting establishments at the territory/state and national levels, there was a provision of funds by the OAP (Hoare, 1996). Coaching by specialists became requisite towards the recognition and development of gifted athletes. Hence, the value exerted on trained coaches was another angle of strengthening towards the development of Australia's elite athletes as seen in other systemic strategies (Phillips, 2000).

The ASC did programmes and structure review in 1995 through its awareness of the challenges laid down by the 2000 Sydney Games (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1996). To ensure the adequate preparation of athletes for the Sydney Games, policy restructuring encapsulating three strategies was put in place. AIS services and elite sports were the first, setting its target on optimum performance training, educating the coaches and supporting sports science. The second encompassed policy and the development of sports encompassing the support of management to the coach as well as the development of the athlete, the NSO, the development of the junior sport and community sport and then the overall participation. The third encompassed business services inclusive of merchandising, the raising of revenue and sport expertise to national development (Bloomfield, 2003; Stewart et al., 2004).

Throughout the 2000s, greater connections between policies for health and sport development occurred due to the increase in obesity and decline of physical activity, focusing particularly on children and younger people. The Active After-school Communities programme was developed in 2005 and funded by the federal government with the goal of increasing primary school children's participation rates; however, research indicates that as an area of sports policy development, it has not caused any significant long-term shift in grassroots sports' prioritisation (Green and Collins, 2008). The programme has evolved into sporting schools; thus, as per the ASC, this revised programme establishes a critical part of its future participation strategy which focuses on kids and younger adults and enhancing the NSOs' capacities to develop and grow (Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), 2014). However, the impact it has had on the development of grassroots sports policy is yet to be seen. The change



of the government in 2007 caused a further potentially crucial turning point for policies surrounding sports development. The newly elected Labour government commissioned the Crawford Report, an independent report which encompassed sport development and policy, eventually being released in 2009 (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2009). This report was critical regarding the continuing focus on elite sports, outlining the necessity for more coherent policies on participation in national sports development, further investment in grassroots sports and a wider understanding in sport development policy of what exactly constitutes sporting success. Namely, it called for higher investment in sport for development (SFD) instead of sport development (SD). For a time, it seemed like fundamental shifts in sport policy would occur as a result of the report, especially a rebalancing of the focus on elite and grassroots sports (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2009). Even so, the notion of the poor performance of Australian athletes at the 2012 Olympics has brought about a retreat of the federal government to more traditional approaches, with elite sport development's as an unceasing heavy investment and priority, as demonstrated by the recent national strategy, 'Australia's winning edge 2012–2022', (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2012; Lindsey et al., 2016).

### **3.4. Norway**

#### **3.4.1. Introduction**

In the Nordic region, as might be expected, sport and outdoor physical recreation's cultural traction (or social significance) is clearly reflected in the sheer volume of participation. In Europe, and likely across the developed world, the greatest proportion of participation in regular sports (for young and old alike), can be found in the countries of northern Europe, followed by the countries of western and central Europe (European commission, 2014; van Tuyckom, 2016; Green et al., 2018).

Is it possible to regard Norway, as many other nations and in several respects, as a 'sporting nation'? First, in spite of being relatively small and having a smaller population, in international competitions Norway has won a remarkable number of medals, particularly in

winter sports (Hanstad and Skille, 2010). Significantly increasing starting in the 1990s, Norway has shown greater sporting success and won even more victories than ever before. Norway has become one of the top nations at the Winter Olympics since 1992, having won more gold medals than any other nation in history. During this same timeframe, athletes from Norway have also been performing better than they had been previously in other sports; this includes summer sports (Goksoyr and Hanstad, 2012).

Furthermore, the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), or Norges Idrettsforbund in Norwegian, stated in the Sport Policy Document that the elite sports' goal is to "be among the top 3 European nations, measured in number of medals in Olympics" (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), 2006:9). As an example, Norway received a total of 39 medals in the 2018 PyeongChang Olympics, achieving a record for the most medals won at a single Winter Olympic Games since the first one in 1924, beating the US's record of 37 from the 2010 Vancouver Olympics, even though its population is greater than sixty-times that of Norway's (Britton, 2018b; Topendsports, 2019). Second, comparatively, many Norwegians tend to participate in mass sport (Gunnar Breivik and Vaagbø, 1998; Ganner Breivik, 2003).

This chapter examines a cursory historic overview of Norwegian sports' development from 1990 to the present.

#### Elaboration and Consolidation of the Institution: 1990 – Present

In recent decades, the position of elite sport has changed significantly throughout the world, including in Norway. The introduction of special elite sport organisations at Norway's national level was due to the successful system in the 1970s and 80s. The establishment of the Olympiatoppen (OLT) showed significant improvement in international results, an evident fact of Norway's development. Compared to other Nordic countries, Norway has improved its position (Goksoyr and Hanstad, 2012). The 1988 decision for Lillehammer to hold the 1994 Winter Olympics was the first significant event that provided an increased commitment to the Norwegian elite sport model, especially the OLT, by the sports organisations. Being awarded the Winter Olympics Games helped achieve a secure position within the sport system for the OLT, which was greatly shown by the significant increase in its budget. A

portion of its strength came from the growing acceptance within the community of sports policy for the need for an independent and strong organisation for elite sports (Olsen, 1988; Hanstad, 2002).

Beginning in the 1990s, the OLT, an elite sports body, has operated as a department of the NIF (the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sport) while being held accountable by the general secretary and the elected NIF board. The OLT's leader worked closely with the presidents of the (former) NIF (Norwegian Sports Confederation) and the NOC (Norwegian Olympic Committee), which then merged into one organisation (the new NIF as mentioned above) in 1996, from which the NOC was merging from a strong position (Myhrvold, 2005). The OLT thus became the instrument for operation for all elite sports in Norway. Nevertheless, proposals to detach the OLT from the administration of the NIF and give the director of elite sports a direct line to the board have been given over the years. So far, such initiatives have been given a down vote, least of all not because, as the general secretary stated, It would make a clearer distinction between mass and elite sport and disturb a rooted value system of the organization (dagbladet, 2006).

At first, the OLT's core was made up of a group of senior coaches who had proven themselves within their own sports. Little by little, the expansion of the number of specialists within different sports sciences' disciplines expanded; however, the key role in coordinating and applying the knowledge of specialists was still played by the senior coaches. The OLT had, and still has, a position of autonomy while still having considerable discretion over the direct state support for elite sport. The style of work has been anti-bureaucratic and rather informal, yet priorities have remained strict. Support has often been linked to the direct intervention to influence the organisation, leadership and its training methods for individual sports (Andersen and Ronglan, 2012).

The results for international competitions have improved drastically as a result. When compared to earlier decades, the average number of Olympic medals won by Norway has increased from an average of 2.5 to 8 for summer sports and from 9.8 to 23 for winter sports (ibid). This increase also includes some sports that hold international prestige, such as athletics and football, as well as the Summer Olympics. The Norwegian team even qualified for the FIFA World Cup finals in both 1994 and 1998. Norway won six medals, three of which

were gold, in the 1994 European Championships in athletics. Yet, Norway's results fell below expectations in the 2012 London Summer Olympics. As a result, a comprehensive evaluation of the Norwegian elite sports system was undertaken. The overall structure of the elite system has not been challenged by the demands for change. Concern with organisation, key leadership and competence of the OLT and its relationship to individual sports were key issues (NIF-report, 2012).

Large national voluntary organisations with near monopolies on competitive sports, backed by significant government investment, mark the Norwegian organisation and governance of sport (Bergsgard and Norberg, 2010). Norway's model for all levels (children/youth sports, grassroots sports and elite sports) of sport involves a hierarchy and they are organised and driven within that same structure (Sam and Ronglan, 2018).

Norwegian sports participation is high when compared to the majority of other countries (Ibsen and Seippel, 2010), and the main goal of public sports policy has remained as grassroots sports. 'The Norwegian Sport Model', a recent White Paper, highlighted the benefits typically connected to sport, such as health, the integration of local communities and social inclusion, as a foundation for funding associations (Ministry of Cultural Affairs, 2012). A rise in lottery funding set aside for sport, strengthening the NIF as the central organisation, was also suggested in this White Paper. Elite sports maintain their prominent space in this White Paper, even though grassroots sports are the main target for public sports policy. This White Paper states that one of the four goals of public sports policy is to "strengthen elite sport based on its role as an identity creator and its contribution to a *positive performance culture* in the Norwegian society"; it also indicates a steady increase in public funding aimed at these goals (ibid: 13).

Norway's Minister of Culture and Equality, Mr. Abid Raja, stated that, for decades, the Norwegian government, independent of its political composition, has had children and youth (ages 6-25) as its main target for its sports policy (Arfini, 2020). The majority of funding for sports has, in practice, gone to support the construction of facilities and activities aimed at this age group. However, the facilities and administration of sports activities is not done by the government itself. Municipalities and sports clubs are the ones who mainly build the facilities, and the sports clubs provide the sports activities. Top-up funding is contributed to

by the government. Even though Norwegian sports organisations and sports clubs are self-governed and operate independently of the Norwegian government, a close correlation to the government's and sports organisations' priorities in which access to activities and facilities for children and youth are key. In recent years, the Norwegian government has had a stronger focus on such aspects, both in people's approach to sports activities and when providing facilities' funding, to create greater emphasis on more leisurely sports activities and facilities, with less of a focus on winning and competition. In this way, people would stay longer in sports and remain physically active throughout adulthood (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), 2019).

As stated in the 'Sport Policy Document 2011-2015' which was published by the NIF in 2011, providing the opportunity to participate in sport based on one's needs and wishes is the NIF's overriding goal. The NIF intends to create positive values for individuals as well as the community at all levels, and it will seek to actively strengthen its own position as a popular movement nationwide and as a positive driving force within the Norwegian society. The main reasons for the government support of sport are: 1) to contribute to maintaining and developing the NIF as a voluntary and membership-based organisation; 2) to contribute to maintaining and developing a wide-ranging set of activities to offer through organised sport; and 3) to contribute to ensuring that Norwegian sports remain open and inclusive within organisations and that precious environments where social spirit and community cohesion are fostered. The primary target groups for the allocation of lottery funds for sport are children (ages 6-12) and youth (ages 13-19). Ensuring the basis of an ethical and knowledge-based emphasis on elite sports is the objective of the basis of financing for elite sports, as well as securing the further development of the variation and width of the scope within elite sports (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), 2011; 2015; 2019).

Individuals' lives have the potential to be transformed through sports, which bolster emotional, psychological, physical and social well-being and development. Sports simultaneously play a key role in cultures and communities from across the world. Aside from contributing to emotional, psychological and physical well-being, sports also play a key role in healthy social development and interaction. Sports not only help with learning how to create and achieve one's goals through discipline and hard work, but they also nurture the

development of decision-making skills and leadership abilities, while also teaching the management of success and failure. In Norway, sports have given the opportunity to gain precious experience in teamwork and collaboration as well as to improve communication skills. In Norway, sports also bring various people, who may not otherwise have an opportunity to meet, the opportunity to get together while allowing them the chance to share their own experiences as they work together toward their common goal. Sports make the social skills and experiences of people more readily transferable to different aspects of life. They may also help a person to improve their ability to succeed in life as a student, employee, member of the community or even as an advocate for a cause. The individual, community and nation within Norway have become integrated with a sound sports life in addition to an effective management system. Furthermore, the policy and implementation for the development of sport have produced one of the most peaceful and welfare nations in the world. As such, Norway has shown just how it achieved its economic, social and health community through sports.

### **3.5. South Korea**

#### **3.5.1. Introduction**

South Korea has evolved, since the late 1980s to more recently, to be among the most successful sports powerhouses having great achievements in various stages of international sports (Park et al., 2012). The successful positioning of South Korea is attributed to an intensive sports cultivation policy by the Olympic Committee of Korea (KOC) with guidance from the national government (You, 2005).

South Korea's development of elite sports magnified the interests of citizens propelling increased sports participation following the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. Created in 1991, the Korea Council of Sport for All (KCSA) aids and encourages citizens to take part in sporting events and enlarges physical education opportunities in schools to facilitate the stimulation of sporting activities within the country (Park, 2015; Shin, 2011).

As the government chose to focus more on the elite sports system to improve the nation's status and boost national esteem, sports within Korea have encountered structural differences along with unequal development (Chae and Kim, 2000). Policy makers, politicians and sports stakeholders thoroughly discussed these issues and have reached the conclusion that Korean sports need change.

In the 2015 Korea Sports Vision convention, Ahn, Min-seok, a member of the National Assembly as well as chairman of the Committee of Culture, Sports and Tourism, indicated that sport for all, elite sports and physical education in schools should have a close relationship with one another, they should equalise unequal development and, by altering their association to coordinated from contradictory, sports within Korea should change to a sport-welfare approach which will focus on individuals' good quality of living, moving youths and activities of leisure toward sports concentrating on elites and away from the old approach (Koh, 2015; Lim, 2015).

This section provides a review of Korean sports' development, specifically, as a basic comprehensive investigation into the policy and modification's process in established and developing sports. The discussion divides the time frame into two ranges of years for reviewing Korean sports' development: 1993-2002 and 2003-present.

### 1993 – 2002

The Korean military rule, having been in place for 30 years, beginning in 1961, ended in 1993 when Kim, Young-sam established the civilian government (1993-1998), and Korean politics entered the new dawn of democracy (Kim, 2003). The civilian rule emphasised political changes making it differ from the previous rules of military powers. The civilian government strove to improve the situation involving the rejuvenation of grassroots sports, 'Sport for All' (Kim, 2008).

The time from 1993 to mid-2000 was perceived as being a time of shrinkage, disorientation and decrease for sports within Korea. As stated by Son (2002) and Kim (2004), there was significant decline in sports starting with the leadership of Kim, Young-Sam (1993-1998) to that of his successor, Kim, Dae-Jung (1998-2003) due to an aspiration toward a 'small

government'. In particular, the overhauling of the Sports and Youth Ministry indicated significant structural changes in sports administration at the central government level starting in 1993 and beyond. In 1993, the government created the 'Ministry of Culture and Sport' by joining the Ministries of Culture and Sports and Youth and this new ministry managed the affairs of arts, culture, sports and youth (Shin, 2011).

The Ministry of Culture and Sports pursued fame and developed a national agreement by choosing to concentrate on the people's sports life and enjoyment (Kim, 2008). In 1993, a time frame of 5 years was set by the Culture Ministry for plans to promote national sports to maintain its position in the global top 10 through the development of elite sports. The specific promotion strategies relied on the policy's tasks, which required the best-performing athletes' scientific and methodical coaching, the members of the national team's scientific coaching, national team athletes' training conditions being enhanced, national sports' and youth sports' championships and robustly facilitated the education of excellent sports trainers (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2003; Son, 2002).

South Korea's aspiration to be among crucial sporting countries from around the world has been seen from its hosting of numerous sporting activities conducted by the central and local governments, for example, the 1997 East Asia Championships and Winter Universiade Games, the 1999 Asian Winter Sports, the 2002 Korea-Japan World Cup and Asian Summer games and the 2003 Summer Universiade Championships, all of which promoted the force behind developing an elite sports' system.

The key aspects concerning the grassroots sports' policy included the spreading of the information needed for participating in sporting events, the national championship, expanding the available spaces for the people's sporting activities, educating trainers for grassroots sports, the systematic growth and aiding of people's sporting activities and expanding opportunities for people's healthy leisure (Jo, 2006).

Before and after the 1988 Seoul Olympics, grassroots sports became a task of policy, but the primary notion of ensuring that all people took part in sporting activities did not suffice. Depending on those aged 15 years and older, in 1985, there was a sharp rise of 21% in the rate of participation in sports two to three times weekly; in 1989 it was 27%, and in 1991 it



was 35%. However, this is still low compared to countries with developed sports, for instance, Germany, Japan and the US (Shin, 2011).

In the five-year plan for promoting national sports, there was an implementation of policy tasks to accomplish these objectives, with the goal of the policy being increasing the rate of participation to over 50% by 1997 (Ministry of Culture and Sports, 1993).

The conclusion of the Kim, Dae-Jung Administration in 1998, when the financial crisis in Asia hit the country hard, caused the Culture and Sports Ministry to again be transformed into the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Sports status at the central government became reduced. The aftermath of the progressive status decline was the trimming of the central government's sports management organisation to the Bureau of Sports as well as the team for sports policy, the team for grassroots sports policy, the team for sports industry and the disabled team for sports. The intervention of the IMF, which produced a tremendous national problem, negatively impacted public spending (Son, 2003; Park, 2011).

The total budget of the government was roughly £48.3 billion (KOR 74.804 trillion won) in 1998 but the budget for the Ministry of Culture and Tourism was just approx. £115.8 million (₩179.3 billion KOR), which was 0.25% of the total budget. In the budget for sports, the elite sports budget was approx. £20.1 million (₩311.36 billion KOR), which accounted for 17.3% of the sports budget. This was a significant reduction compared to 48.5% in 1996 and 22.8% in 1997 (Kim, 1998: 32-33). According to Lee (2003), the economic crisis caused significant damage in the sports sector, proof of which included the shrinking of the organisations related to sports and the closing down of various sports teams.

Notwithstanding the IMF financial crisis and the clear challenges and psychological problems of hosting in collaboration with Japan, the country successfully accomplished the joint hosting of the 2002 World Cup. Presenting the 2002 World Cup and the first advancement of Korea to the World Cup semi-finals boosted the pride of the people concerning politics and diplomacy including beneficial impacts, for instance, the emergence of the logo "KOREA" brand and the improvement of the image of the nation (Kim, 2008).

There was a reduction in the size of the sports management department and a decline in sports performance in the 1990s, but Korea still attempted to remain at its level as a

developed nation. Specifically, there was the pursuing of a policy to improve economic impacts that concentrated on boosting international relations and the conditions of unification by boosting the exchange of sports (Son, 2003).

### 2003 – Present

The government of Roh, Moo-Hyun in 2003 was dubbed the 'participatory government', meaning the value of the operation of the government in the active participation of citizens would have a significant function (Lim, 2003). In this participatory government, there was an increase in the national income and an expansion of leisure time because of the enacting of a five-day workweek. There was also an increase in the interest and aspirations of the citizens in relation to individual well-being, heightening the need for sporting events.

Besides, successfully presenting international sporting activities such as the World Cup had beneficial impacts, and the appreciation of developed sports as an industry with future promises that boosts economic values, provides employment and guides the local economy, displayed the business aspect of the sports industry (Klm, 2010).

Despite the rejection from the stakeholders in sports, the Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) was created in 1991 with the guise of resuscitating grassroots sports after the 1988 Seoul Olympics because of the inactive promotion by the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) for grassroots sports. There was a separation and operation of grassroots and elite sports which resulted in duplications in both areas of business. The similar functions between the local associations of the KCSA and the regional associations of sports of the KOC would be solved by harmonising the associations and establishing a system for honest and repetitive connection was seriously required to beat the inefficiency of the detached functions of the elite and grassroots sports (Yun and Lee, 2008; Park, 2015; Jung, 2016).

There have been several discussions to assimilate the KOC and KCSA. They did not come to agreement; however, the two organisations concur on the need for integration, but concerted greed to maintain combined actions to support self-organisation and an absence of mutual trust, the unwillingness of the government to integrate and the passive attitude of the government towards the committee of arbitration express the challenges to resolving the fundamental problem (Park, 2015).

The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism and Korean sports policy experts know the extent of the inefficiency challenges and differences in the detached functions of grassroots and elite sports. For resolving the problems, there was a partial amendment and announcement of the National Sports Promotion Act in March 2015. Additionally, there was the establishment and earnest operation of the assimilation committee. Last, the KSOC was created on March 7, 2016. After joining the KOC and KCSA, the KSOC attempted to build an advanced system of sports by establishing an honest sports cycle.

The original objective of the governing bodies of integrated sports was to achieve coordinated growth and harmony between the elite and grassroots sports. During the process, the physical learning of a school was to develop an advanced, respected system of sports that all citizens loved through sports with a solid start, sports with excellent participation and sports that promote patriotism.

For the development of the sports system, it is essential to enlarge the foundation of club-focused participation reliant on enough facilities of sports and enliven grassroots sports to achieve involvement in sports. Besides, society and schools, together with sports in schools and grassroots sports, can be the benchmark of professional sports (Sung, 2016; Hong, 2018). The KSOC should ensure a sound system of sports, an objective of integration.

### **3.6. Conclusion**

So far, the profiles of the UK, Australia, Norway and Korea and changes in the sports systems have been reviewed. This information is helpful in understanding when looking at the policies of the countries to be benchmarked in the future and the issue of the sports system in Korea as well as how much the sports system is affected by the operations of the governments and institutions. Furthermore, understanding the history and sentiment of the discussed countries' sports systems and policies is essential because it shows the differences and similarities in each country's situation. In the next chapter, I will take a deep look at the policy transfer framework used in this study and make plans to transfer sports policies from the UK, Australia and Norway to Korea by understanding the importance of the concept of policy transfer.

## **4. Framework**

### **4.1. Introduction**

The interpretive approach to political analysis has gained considerable ground over the past ten years. Interpretive politics have a very different perspective from the general approach of past empirical traditions in both theory and method. In particular, modern governance seeks to provide more comprehensive and relevant explanations on social reality and more holistic perspectives (Bevir and Rhodes, 2006; Turnbull, 2016). Mark Bevir and R.A.W. Rhodes were the most prominent researchers in political interpretation, which can be interpreted as an effort to do interesting and innovative things, especially in the fields of public policy, governance and public administration. In the 'new governance', which is marked by a 'differentiated polity', Bevir and Rhodes argue that a maze of institutions and a complex pattern of decentralized functions have replaced the unitary state and integrated administration. As such, governance is splintered between organisations delivering different functions or covering different territories. Therefore, governance happens in and through networks made up of the relevant governments, agencies, departments and other social and political actors (Bevir, 2007; Turnbull, 2016).

Public policy is especially important as it influences every aspect of our lives. It is challenging to think of any aspect of social life without a connection to policy. This means it is important for policy to be right, or to at least explain what goes wrong and what can be done about it. Essentially, we make a comparison of simple stories of how we believe that policy should be made with more complex ones of how policy is actually made. As such, policy makers and scholars study public policy's concepts and theories since many different answers to these questions are acknowledged (Cairney, 2013). Also, these concepts and theories attempt to capture the individual choice's role within a complex policymaking environment containing many rules, actors and networks covering many types and levels of government. However, things become complicated when a definition is attempted to be given to each of these concepts, one which usually references bounded rationality and the relationships between the many policy environments' constituent parts. A single theory to unify every approach to public policy will never exist; however, language to aid us in understanding and comparing

many theories can be developed and used to communicate our findings (Cairney and Weible, 2017; Cairney, 2019).

Nearly all policy theories reference the role of 'ideas' – or shared beliefs – for summarising this relationship between the policy actors' bounded rationality and the restrictions presented by complex policymaking environments. These policy theories define ideas and depict this dynamic in various ways, centring on a policy problem's potential solution ('I have an idea'), the narrative designed for persuading people to choose it, or a fundamental set of understandings or beliefs which appear to provide structure to policy debate (Cairney and Weible, 2015). For example, an idea may be a shared belief that gives people a common goal, which represents behavioural standards considered normal or an ideology that serves as a basis for policy behaviours, and in each case, people can exercise power in situations that involve only certain beliefs or behavioural norms, or only certain types of knowledge (Jenkins-Smith et al., 2018; Cairney, 2019). To this end, this study will be conducted using the policy transfer theory, one of the public policy theories.

The policy transfer concept has become progressively influential in public policy studies (James and Lodge, 2003). It is not surprising that the increase in policy transfer has resulted in the development of interest in the topic among students of public policy, comparative politics and the interconnected world (Dolowitz et al., 2000; Evans and Davies, 2002). For instance, 172 countries have signed the World Health Organizations' Framework Convention on Tobacco Control. It is the most widely embraced treaty in the history of the UN (World Health Organization, 2011). Also, in the UK, the £3.5 million Economic and Social Research Council's Future Governance Programme promoted the empirical examination of policy transfer in various policy sectors such as housing, taxation and prisons (Page, 2000).

In the sector of sports policy, Houlihan and Green (2008) analysed the plans for transferring systems in nine separate nations in their book which analysed comparative elite sports development. Besides, an analysis of sport for all and community interest reduced the gap between policy and its transfer. Hove and Nicholson (2009) identified sport policies which facilitate funding for Australian communities through policy transfers, primarily driven by similarity within state agencies and communication within states. Tan et al. (2019) recently

examined the transfer of policy through the perspective of developing elite sports by analysing the Chinese elite swimming institutions from the early 2000s.

Nonetheless, presently, there are inadequate studies in the application of policy transfer in sports policy, although there has been a gradual increase in the volume of research (Green, 2007; Tan et al., 2019). In particular, there is no research on policy transfer related to Korean sports. Therefore, this chapter reviews the concepts of sports policy and the salience of the policy transfer concept in sports policy.

## **4.2. Policy Transfer**

According to Green and Houlihan (2005), various researchers have argued that although there have been a variety of discussions on sports systems and policy elements of elite and grassroots sports in different countries, a considerable similarity was found among the policies' factors. In other words, the influence of globalisation on a macroscopic level had led to the discovery of a significant overlap among the policy elements of each country. In addition, the mechanism of policy transfer between countries increased the tendency to pursue a homogeneous model for the development of elite and grassroots sports (Green and Oakley, 2001). Accordingly, with reference to the scholarly research on policy transfer produced in Western academia, this research aims to contribute an academic foundation that can help with the change of domestic sport policy and to provide policy implication for policymakers.

The development of policy transfer studies in the US was designed to explain the adoption of policy in the federal system (Stone, 2004). Policy transfer refers to the process in which policy-making elites attempt to learn under the belief that a policy or system which has been successfully implemented in other countries will be equally successful in their own country (Stone, 1999). Policy transfer emphasises the sharing of knowledge amongst various political systems around the globe, such as 'ideas, programmes, plans, institutions, policies and policy instruments' (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996:344; Bulmer et al., 2007). The political system includes the local and central governments and transnational organisations. Recent developments in globalisation, transportation, communication, the global economy, etc. are

factors driving modern policy transfer. According to Jessop (1997), one of the three key trends of national re-organisation, along with 'the denationalisation of the state and destatisation of the political system', is represented by 'the internationalisation of the policy regimes' (574-575). Foreign agents and institutions increasingly functioning 'as sources of policy ideas, policy design and implementation', are an implication of 'the internationalisation of policy regimes' (Jessop, 1997:575; Marsden and Stead, 2011:1). There is no contradiction in the literature regarding the concept that policies circulate across the world in space and time. The notion that whether this process is a phenomenon which can be observed is quite different from general policymaking and one that can be researched and enhanced (James and Lodge, 2003; Marsden and Stead, 2011).

A subset of the comparative politics literature gradually developed as the study of policy transfer. Formal institutions of government were usually emphasised upon by many comparative studies before 1940, and, as a result, they were 'state-centred' and needlessly descriptive. Such approaches became outdated during the 1940s, and the focus of the studies shifted towards analysing how civil society communicated with the state. The comparative policy analysis became the main focus by the 1960s (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996).

Certain content of the policies being transferred is not related to these initial studies; however, required explanations of diffusion based on geographic proximity, resource similarities and timing are included as if a broader focus is not a concern as compared to later studies of policy transfer (Walker, 1969). The weaknesses of the reports were brought up as the diffusion studies advanced, thus by the 1980s, a key critical review claimed, (the) basic problem regarding this research tradition is that it does not unveil anything about the content of new policies. Its interest is not associated with substance but process (Clark and Majone, 1985). Therefore, the questions ignored by diffusion studies have to be answered owing to this perceived need, which was discussed as lesson drawing by the comparative policy analysts. The voluntary act of transfer by rational actors employed in certain political contexts is the focus of lesson drawing (Rose, 1991). Nevertheless, criticism emerged for lesson drawing, too, for its 'implicit assumptions', meaning that this process is voluntary as well as rational (Bulmer et al., 2007: 13).

In the late 1990s and mid-2000s, research into policy transfer went through an exponential growth; however, now it is arguably in a more mature phase. Thus, as a preferably distinct area of research, these days, policy transfer is generally used in the assessment of a wider phenomenon, like Europeanisation, globalisation and policy innovation. For instance, it is stated as one way to define policy convergence along with globalisation and actions by non-state actors within the Europeanisation literature (Holzinger and Knill, 2005; Evans, 2017; Stone et al., 2019). Likewise, policy innovation activities can either cause or result in policy transfer (Benson and Jordan, 2012).

The emergence of policy transfer is apparently increasing and will continue to increase as 'market, technological and communication advances' will make it easier and cheaper to achieve information about other systems (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000: 9). After this began happening, a growing body of literature developed focusing on the process by which the knowledge of ideas, policies, institutions and programmes in a single setting are integrated into the policy-making arena in the development and change of programmes and policies in a distinct setting (Dolowitz et al., 2000).

According to Evans and Davies' (2002) analysis, the existing research trends are multilevel, such as transfer from developed countries, transfer between regional communities such as the European Union and transfer between local governments. The transfer of policy ideas is, in fact, the subject of all policy areas, but in previous studies, ideas were led to policy areas such as the welfare state and welfare policy transfer, immigration policy, education policy, public health policy, economic policy, etc. (Ha, 2010).

Dolowitz and Marsh (1996) asserted that policy goals, policy structures and contents, policy instruments, administrative means, institutions, ideologies, ideas, attitudes, concepts and failures are transferred in details. These are considered to be included in the concept of a policy idea (Campbell et al., 2004). Evans and Davies (2002) insisted a policy transfer network is a special and 'action-oriented phenomenon' that has been established with a specific intent to change policies. When a transfer occurs, it only exists during the time. Evans and Davies (1999) explained:

When governments (local, regional, national, or supranational) engage with these networks, it reflects an interaction between (1) the need to satisfy objective policy



problems, (2) gaining access to other organisational networks, (3) further relevant motivating values (regime-pull, discourse-pull, ideological factors), and (4) providing certain essential skills and knowledge resources (376).

The work of Dolowitz and Marsh (1996) and Dolowitz (1998; 2000: 9) is utilised to develop the model illustrated in this chapter by going through a series of questions presented in Table 4.1: “Why and when do actors engage in policy transfer? Who transfers policy? What is transferred? From where are lessons drawn? Are there different degrees of transfer? What restricts policy transfer? How to demonstrate policy transfer? How can policy transfer help our understanding of policy failure?”

Table 4. 1 A policy transfer framework

Why Transfer? Continuum			Who is Involved in Transfer?	What is Transferr ed?	From Where		Degrees of Transfer	Constraints on Transfer	How to Demonstrate Policy Transfer	How Transfer leads to Policy Failure
Want To	.....	Have To								
Voluntary	Mixtures	Coercive			Past	Within-a Nation	Cross- National			
Lesson Drawing (Perfect Rationality)	Lesson Drawing (Bounded Rationality)	Direct Imposition	Elected Officials	Policies  (Goals) (Content) (Instrum ents)	Internal	State Governments	International Organisations	Copying	Policy Complexity  (Newspaper) (Magazine) (TV) (Radio)	Media     Uniformed Transfer
	International Pressures		Bureaucrats Civil Servants	Program mes	Global	City Governments	Regional State Local Governments	Emulation	Past Policies	Reports   Incomplete Transfer
	(Image) (Consensus) (Perceptions)								(Commissioned) (Uncommissioned)	
	Externalities	Pressure Groups	Institutions			Local Authorities		Mixtures	Structural Institutional	Conferences  Inappropriate Transfer
	Conditionality (Loans) (Conditions Attached to Business Activity)	Political Parties	Ideologies					Inspiration	Feasibility (Ideology) (Cultural Proximity) (Technology) (Economic) (Bureaucratic)	Meetings/Visits
	Obligations	Policy Entrepreneurs/ Experts	Attitudes/ Cultural Values						Language	Statements Written) Verbal)
			Consultants Think Tanks Transnational Corporations Supranational Institutions	Negative Lessons			Past Relations			

Source: Dolowitz and Marsh (1998; 2000)

As illustrated in Table 4.1, the generation of a series of questions is of limited utility in providing a method of organising research but does not indicate that the concept possesses explanatory power. However, as shown in Figure 4.1, policy transfer can be either a dependent or independent variable. Basically, when using policy transfer to explain policy outcomes, one would also need to describe the causes of the transfer. Therefore, providing a full analysis considers policy transfer as both a dependent and independent variable (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; 2000).

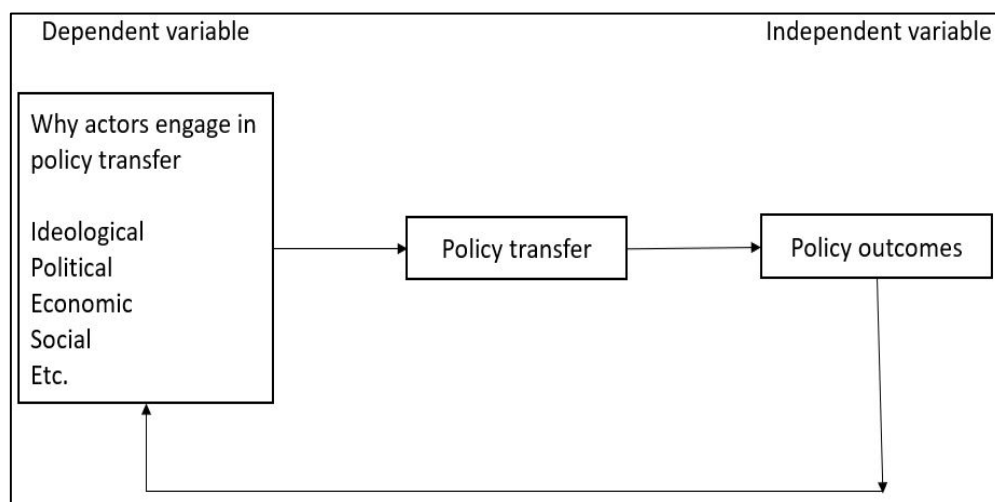


Figure 4. 1 Policy transfer uncoupled  
Source: Dolowitz and Marsh (1998: 176; 2000: 11)

Additionally, the questions presented in Table 4.1 can be investigated using various theoretical frameworks; thus, to pinpoint their contribution to policy transfer research, these questions are reviewed (Levi-Faur and Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). This procedure is significantly mediated by various private-sector, state and quasi-state actors within organisations, although the lens through which analysis is conducted could be restricted to studying policies' movements among organisations, therefore increasing the significance of the agency and structural part in the transfer process (Mackinnon et al., 2008). In time, not only did the emergence of transfer and why it is interesting to know become important, but the assessment of whether it will inspire improved policy results compared to results obtained in different manners and which conditions make it happen (Marsden and Stead, 2011).

Various literature suggests the reasons as to why policy transfers occur. In general, the explanation usually referenced is required in-house expertise, something which public organisations that deal with new or more difficult problems do not always have; as such,

solutions are often sought through other governments or non-governmental organisations (Evans, 2009). Ordinarily, policy transfer occurs due to dissatisfaction with existing policies, and this in turn encourages the status quo to change (Rose, 2005). New solutions are made by either going over how, in similar circumstances, the problem has been previously solved, or by examining how a different place is or has dealt with a similar issue. As a result, the policy transfer process can have dimensions of time and/or space. This process can involve a variety of actors both in terms of applying the policy transfer or developing new policies (Marsden and Stead, 2011).

Explaining and responding to the following questions which form the Dolowitz and Marsh(1996; 2000) framework's basis will help to make sense of the policy transfer process and take a deeper look. However, in order to provide an answer to 'How can policy transfer help our understanding of policy failure?', it seems it can be presented by analysing when implementing benchmarking policies and programmes; therefore, this study is conducted excluding this question.

#### Actors Engagement in Policy Transfer: Why and When?

An early stage in the development of a policy transfer analysis framework is finding the most important motivation for its creation. The reasons for which different policymakers look for specific models and countries rather than not is explained by this. Understanding the reasons why actors choose to implement a policy transfer helps to explain why some governments implement policies and programmes which are not suitable for specific situations. In light of this, understanding the difference between voluntary and forced transfer is crucial (see Figure 4.2) (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996; 2000; Bulmer et al., 2007; Evans, 2009). A pure voluntary transfer occurs when political actors make rational and conscious decisions to borrow various policies and programmes from another political system or time.

However, a pure coercive transfer occurs when a programme, policy or institutional reform on another political system is imposed by one or more political systems or international organisations. Lying in between these two extremes are a variety of categories which feature voluntary or more or less coercive elements. Lastly, the perception of its audience affects how the lesson (policy change) is used (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; 2000). Based on this, through

an in-depth examination and analysis of the Korean sports system, it is possible to identify problems and make suggestions for improvement.

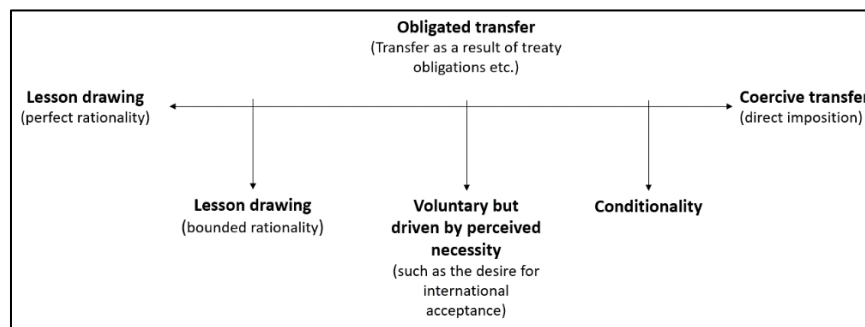


Figure 4. 2 From lesson drawing to coercive transfer

Source: Dolowitz & Marsh (2000: 13)

### Who Conducts the Policy Transfer?

Identifying the key people and groups involved in the policy transfer process is the next step in the framework for policy transfer analysis' development. More than one actor is usually involved in various stages of the process of transfer cases, and they are responsible for different roles. These actors also live in different countries and regions and are therefore forced to interact through a series of epistemic communities or policy networks in addition to the excessive number of nongovernmental organisations (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; Bulmer et al., 2007). In spite of this, theoretically, anyone within the policy-making process is free and able to participate in the policy transfer. The actors can be divided into the major categories of: bureaucrats, administrators, professionals and elected members; political parties; policy experts and entrepreneurs; think tanks; corporations; consultants; and governmental and non-governmental international organisations and institutions (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998: 15-20; Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000: 16; Bulmer et al., 2007: 16). Of these policy experts, administrators, elected officials and consultants are the most interested in research.

Elected officials are the main group in policy areas involving policy transfer as their values guide public policy; also, their endorsement is crucial in legitimising the adoption of programmes (Rose, 1993). Furthermore, during their administration, these elected officials have the power to set the boundaries for acceptable policies (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; 2000). For example, in 1995, Iain Sproat, an elected official who later became the Minister for

Sport in the UK, made an important visit to Australia. As acknowledged in a UK Sport statement at 1998, former Prime Minister John Major brought about the idea of establishing a sports academy after Iain Sproat visited the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) (Green, 2007). Politicians are closely associated with administrators, bureaucrats and professionals which are just as important as the politicians regarding the policy transfer process of policy development, even in the stages of implementation (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; 2000). Policy experts and entrepreneurs are individuals who have strong interests in specific areas of policy; they are also willing to invest their time, reputation, energy and resources, even including money in the hope of receiving future returns (Kingdon and Stano, 2011). On top of that, their concern over particular subjects encourages them to establish a network (national or international) of contacts who are important sources of ideas for establishing new programmes (Rose, 1993). Therefore, it is possible to select stakeholders involved in the Korean sports system to understand and improve problems in more depth, to confirm opinions on how and alternatives to improve the problems and the stakeholders' roles.

#### What is Transferred?

Many of the types and features of policies are transferable. Policy transfer encompasses a wide range including making a decision to copy the aims which have more substance as well as adopting, in their entirety, institutions which are associated with major policy changes. However, since policy transfer can take decades to complete, hasty decisions are often made which pursue vague ideas (Cairney, 2019; Dodds, 2018). According to Bennett (1991: 218), five key measures exist which determine convergence including outcomes, policy goals, content, styles and instruments. Dolowitz (2000: 23) gives six general categories: ideologies, ideas, programmes, institutions, attitudes and negative lessons. Policy transfer has numerous sources, including foreign and local as well as historical and present-day (Tan et al., 2019).

Tan et al. (2019) declared that China's National Aquatics Management Centre (NAMC) had established five components regarding policy transfer content which came from three countries: the US, the UK and Australia which it thought of as being the countries of origin which will help it to surpass Japan as being the most successful sporting nation in Asia. The five components include: gains of more intense training, outstanding training in aerobics, approaching recovery training with integrals, reiterating techniques and providing insights to

a period. The problems found within the Korean sports system can present applicable policies and programmes to stakeholders by examining policies and programmes in the UK, Australia and Norway.

#### From Where are Lessons Drawn?

The results that come from transferring policy are quite often unknown, unpredictable (Stone, 1999) and 'hard to control' (Dunlop, 2009: 307). As such, there is no guarantee that a policy will transfer successfully (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000; Marsh and Sharman, 2009). However, the likelihood that governments will look for solutions overseas when trying to find alternative solutions to newly arising problems is increasing (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000: 21). Transferring policy is quite useful among the various nations and domains of policy (Radaelli, 1995; Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998). To explain this, Dolowitz (1998) utilised policy transfer to scrutinize the British government's efforts in copying the US government's welfare-to-work scheme.

The research which is currently ongoing regarding the emergence of developed countries' elite sports policies has thoroughly described system transfer's tendency to be promoted over the past 40 years through the use of national operational networks in policies (Houlihan and Green, 2008). As such, this situation is a phenomenon in elite sports policies' evolution in diverse countries, including the UK, Australia and Japan, all of which highly rely upon sports systems which had been developed in the past in the Soviet Union and East Germany (Houlihan et al., 2010; Dennis and Grix, 2012).

Houlihan et al. (2010) conducted research on China's adoption of an elite sport (basketball) and its development which was taken from the US, thus indicating how China sought to copy the model of the NBA (National Basketball Association) to quickly improve its instructors' and athletes' characters. They trusted that it was a result of various pressures to find a 'quick solution' and embrace a model which would guarantee success in basketball during the 2008 Beijing Olympics. As such, to benchmark sports policies and programmes, the UK, Australia and Norway, which are advanced sports countries, will be selected and their sports policies and programmes will be analysed.

### Are There Different Degrees of Transfer?

The steps for transferring policies include various levels of policy adoption mechanisms coming from the adopting countries. As such, moving systems is not a process done in vain (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000). There are a variety of transfer levels, such as copying, imitation, amalgamation and disastrous results (Bulmer and Padgett, 2004; Rose, 2005).

The most robust transmission form is copying (Bulmer and Padgett, 2004) which entails the comprehensive transmission of a policy (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000). Reproduction suggests the acquisition of a system in its entirety and implementing it without making any changes. Emulating calls for the transfer of the concepts which the plan or policy is based upon (ibid). Amalgamation means either mixing two or more systems's contents from different regions (Bulmer and Padgett, 2004) or by making a combination of a variety of policies (Moyson, 2017). Encouragement happens when another area's plan may require a change of policy in one area, but in cases for which the resulting policy does not, in a real sense, rely at all on the original (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000). Last but not least, fruitless transmission occurs when authorities with veto power in the borrower's jurisdiction hinder a transfer (Bulmer and Padgett, 2004; Bulmer et al., 2007). This is necessary to look at policies and programmes which have been carried out or conducted in each country and to suggest how they can be applied to the problems of the Korean sports system, which will be determined through comparison and analysis.

### What Restricts Policy Transfer?

Lessons are learned from a nation's counterparts with the belief that they are able to pick and impart a winning combination (Rose, 2005). However, the challenges the implementers of the policy transfer process face must be examined by any transfer level. The examination is crucial as it provides reasons for transmitting certain policies and not others. Furthermore, it helps to explain the transfer of policies from certain schemes but not all (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000; Asare and Studlar, 2009).

Benson (2012) presumed that the policy transmission process's result is dependent on the stress from demand (i.e., policy demands and possible rejection), programs' constraints (i.e., distinctiveness and complications), situational constraints (i.e., dependence on paths, current



institution assets, political background and the political levels and the ideas' similarities) and application constraints (i.e., substitution in the assets and institutions, levels of adjustment and systematic alteration). Also, Dolowitz (2000) and Bulmer et al., (2007) detailed six vast categories to be acknowledged when a system is being formed for policy transfer: the policy's complexity, resulting interaction, feasibility challenges, institutional constraints, language barriers and previous associations.

Making policy transfer a success can happen based on these conditions: elevated demand for policy, minimum rejection, simple plans which are more general and less specific, suitable paths of reliance, supportive and more achievable institutional structures which are replaceable and with a low structure density, few politics, sufficient resources, consistent ideas, few changes and low levels of systemic alteration (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996; Bache and Taylor, 2003; Benson and Jordan, 2012). There is more to resources than just finances. Rose (2005) described leaders of politics' devotion while also highlighting that 'for the delivery of various public programs, skilled personnel are of the essence' (Rose, 2005: 110). As such, policies and programmes found in the UK, Australia and Norway need to be presented with consideration of the Korean sports environment, government interest, institutional procedures and feasibility.

#### How Can Policy Transfer Be Demonstrated?

After presenting the principal framework of analysis, it is necessary to describe the various sources which agents of change can implement to seek their ideas for models which are overseas. Besides using these primary sources for gathering foreign schemes' data, the contributors to this issue used them when collecting their information. Their origins include mass media (magazines, newspapers, radio and television), the Internet, reports and research, consultations and seminars and official government statements (records and interviews) (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998; 2000; Newmark, 2002). To present this, the problems found in the Korean sports system and the applicable policies and programmes of the UK, Australia and Norway will be examined through interviews of stakeholders, government documents, news and previous studies.

### How Can Policy Transfer Help Our Understanding of Policy Failure?

Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) believed that the acceptance or rejection of a given free transmission was dictated by three factors: its information's level; if a complete transfer of every attribute which made it succeed in its country of origin occurred, therefore its extent of completion; and whether the transmission is acceptable, to be more precise the level to which it satisfies, or adjusted for the fulfillment of political practices and the acquiring nation's behaviours (Zhang and Marsh, 2016). As mentioned above, this question will be excluded for this study.

The policy transfer framework is to find important motives for policy transition. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) explain the reasons why specific models and countries are looked for by different policymakers. This means the next step in the policy transfer analysis' development is to identify the key groups and people involved in the policy transfer process. Based on their analysis, they discover alternative ideas, programmes and policies and merge them to match policy objectives, content, style and tools. Furthermore, governments will likely increase their search for alternative solutions to newly arising problems for overseas (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1998). For example, China imitated the NBA model for basketball development and benchmarked the Australian swimming system to improve swimming problems (Houlihan et al., 2010; Tan et al., 2019). In addition, depending on the level of application in the stage of the transfer, there are copying, imitation, amalgamation and disastrous results (Bulmer and Padgett, 2004; Rose, 2005), and constraints, such as a policy's complexity, feasibility challenges, resulting interaction, language barriers and organisational constraints, in transferring policies should be fully considered. In addition, it should also be checked how successful policies to be transferred have been proven. Through all these processes, policies are transferred.

Due to the separate sports-governing bodies within Korea, Korean sports grew unbalanced. As such, the division of elite sports and grassroots sports occurred, and the operation of the sports system became inefficient (Ahn, 2002a; Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) - Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) integrated Committee, 2015b). Numerous experts such as policy experts, sports policy experts, lawmakers, government officials and professors and professionals working in sports organisations perceived the various problems which required

policy change. The Korean sports system requires redevelopment through the benchmarking of the 'virtuous circle' structure as seen in advanced sports systems (Grix and Carmichael, 2012). For this purpose, in this study, elite sports policies, grassroots sports policies and various programmes that have been successfully carried out for the growth of sports systems in selected countries, the UK, Australia and Norway, were analysed. The policies and programmes analysed and discovered are to present improvements to the problems in the Korean sports system considering the Korean sports environment, the role of the government organisation, organisational procedures and feasibility. In particular, Korea's sports environment and system are different from the three countries selected in various areas, but the government's investment in elite sports to achieve excellent results in international competitions, the government's support to increase the participation rate in grassroots sports, especially facilities and sports clubs, and exchanges with elite sports, and the general environment for the development of sports systems, such as cooperation between government organisations, were similar. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to discover and benchmark the key elements that are feasible rather than copying all parts of the policy to be improved using the policy framework in the selected three countries.

## 5. Methodology

### 5.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to outline the strategy of the research methodology, methods and sources to address key research questions. Grix (2019) argued that “If we are to present clear, precise and logical work, and engage and debate with other’s work, then we need to know the core assumptions that underlie their work and inform their choice of research questions, methodology, methods and even sources” (p.51). Thus, having a clear idea of ontological and epistemological assumptions makes it possible to understand the mutuality of the critical characteristics of research such as methodology, methods and sources, etc. Second, it will be possible to avoid confusion in the discussion of theoretical debates and access to social phenomena. Finally, it can create awareness of others’ perspectives and help us to defend our own stances or perspectives (Grix, 2019). Ontology and epistemology are fundamental for the research structure, and the ontological and epistemological assumptions are closely related to methodology, methods and sources. In building the research, the epistemological and methodological positions follow logically, starting with ontology (Hay, 2002; Grix, 2019).

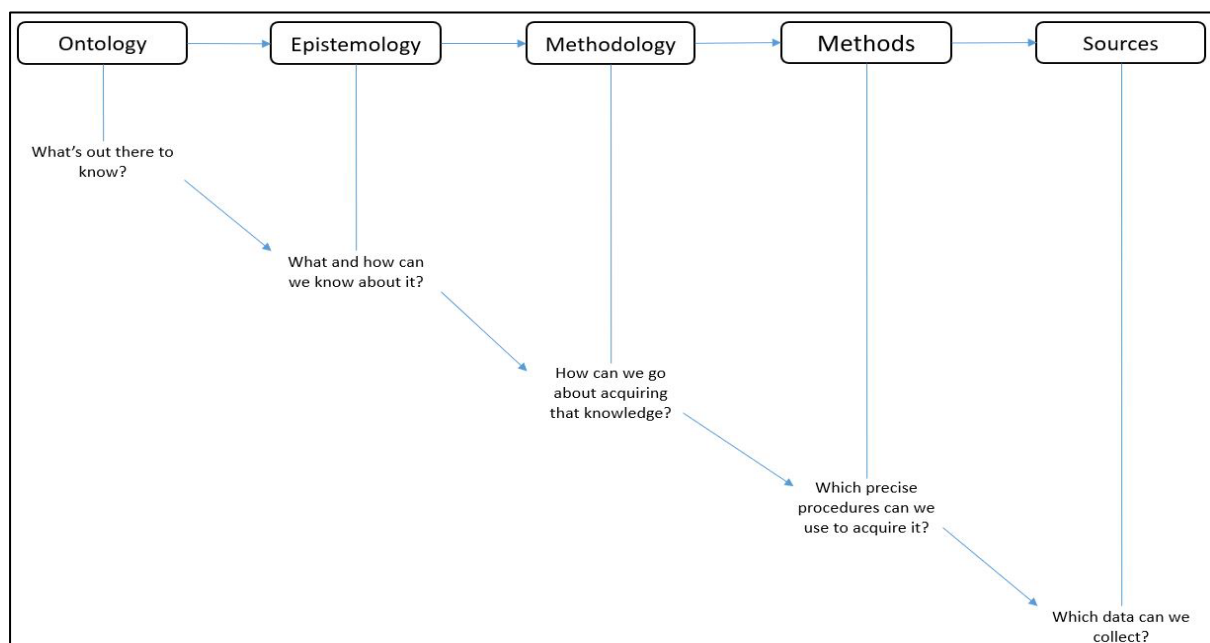


Figure 5. 1 The interrelationship among the building blocks of research

Source: Hay (2002: 64); Grix (2019: 62)

Thus, first, this chapter will examine significant ontological and epistemological assumptions and clarify the philosophical positions necessary for this study. Second, methodological consideration of the research structure based on ontological and epistemological perspectives will be investigated. Third, research methods such as semi-structured interviews and document analysis, etc. will be briefly described for the best suited research design in this study. In addition, it will explain the basic considerations related to the research design and each method. In conclusion, this chapter will present a summary of the research design for the practical investigation of policy change.

## **5.2. Ontology**

The three steps of conducting research are: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology presents the social reality which can be utilised to form theories. It involves the claims and assumptions about the social reality which includes the prevalent factors and how they are related to one another. Concisely, the ontological assumptions are about the components of social reality as perceived by us (Blaikie, 2009; Hay, 2002; Marsh and Furlong, 2010; Grix, 2019). Marsh and Furlong (2010) stated that the ontology is about 'being' which concentrates on the probability of the existence of a 'real' world 'out there' which is unknown to us as well as on how the world is perceived by the investigators.

There are two viewpoints of the ontological positions: foundationalism and anti-foundationalism. The concept of foundationalism focuses on the independent existence of the so called 'reality' irrespective of its recognition. According to this, reality claims are logical and acceptable world-wide (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Grix, 2019). Foundationalists follow the traditional ontology, epistemology and methodology for research on politics and policy (Grix, 2019). According to foundationalism, there are 'measurable' and quantifiable patterns in a society and the questions posed are generally based on the testing of present theories. A positivist epistemology and quantitative methodology that involves surveys and questionnaires are, hence, often applied (Grix, 2010).

The other viewpoint of anti-foundationalism states that "there is not a 'real' world, which exists independently of the meaning which actors attach to their action, to discover" (Marsh

et al., 2018:178). For the areas of research which are not directly observable, an anti-foundationalist ontological and epistemological position is thought to be better suited than a positivist epistemology (Grix, 2019). Grix (2019), in researching social capital, used an anti-foundationalist ontology and stated that “institutional structures and modes of governance matter for the existence, maintenance and creation of social capital” (p.66-67). Therefore, to research on ‘institutional structures’, he used an ontological position that states “not all social phenomena are directly observable, structures exist that cannot be observed and those that can may not present that social and political world as it actually is”; this view is opposite to that of the Putnam School (Grix, 2019:67). As this research focuses on complicated effects of structures and their relations with the agency with regard to the devising of policies, anti-foundationalist ontology was deemed a better choice.

### **5.3. Epistemology**

Epistemology as a philosophy of knowledge is “the claims or assumptions about the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality, whatever it is understood to be. In short, claims about how what is assumed to exist can be known” (Blaikie, 2000:8 cited in Grix, 2019: 58). The justification of knowledge is reached through methods and methodology connected with the epistemological positions (Grix, 2019). This indicates the available information and why it is called knowledge and not merely beliefs (Blaikie, 2009). The justification of knowledge and reasoning in social research through epistemology validates the research of scientific discoveries as they are not then considered simple opinions. If social research is conducted without epistemology, it is similar to ‘a castle on the sand’ (Park, 2011). Nevertheless, it is not signifying that for research purposes, one position is better than the other. However, the selected research design needs to be considered when selecting the position, and if the epistemological position is chosen, it needs to be justified with reasonable arguments (Marsh, 1999; Marsh and Furlong, 2010).

The three main paradigms for the research presented by Grix (2019) are: positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism. All of these are based on varying epistemological assumptions.

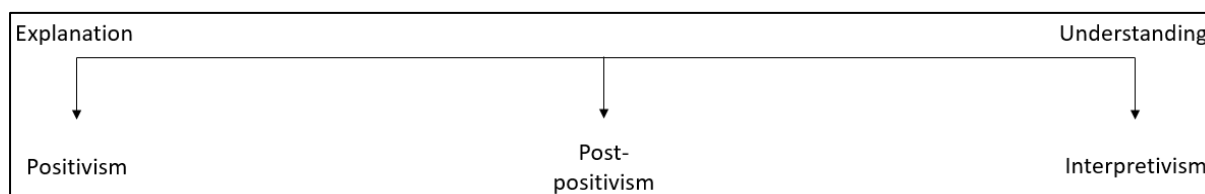


Figure 5. 2 The key research paradigms  
Source: Grix (2019:72)

Positivism, post-positivism (critical realism) and interpretivism, being acceptable to the social and political sciences, are the main perspectives of and differences between the three paradigms which are divided. Being based on a realist, foundationalist epistemology (Guba and Lincoln, 1998), positivism sees the world as existing separately of our knowledge of it. It is possible to establish regular relationships between social phenomena, in which the theory is used to generate hypotheses which can then, by direct observation, be tested, and falsified. In social research, great emphasis is placed by positivists on explanation, rather than understanding, and many positivists think that the 'real purpose of explanation is prediction' (Rubinstein, 1981; Grix, 2019: 73-81).

Post-positivism (critical realism), sharing positivism's foundationalist epistemology, spans both the positivist and interpretivist paradigms, allowing research room for interpretation. Realists, unlike positivists, believe there are directly unobservable deep structures. What is most crucial, is post-positivism's compatibility with a wide variety of research methods. This implies that choosing which method to use should depend on a study's object's nature and what the researcher wants to learn about it (Sayer, 2000; Grix, 2019).

Contrasting positivism and post-positivism, interpretivist positions are based on an anti-foundationalist epistemology. They believe that the world does not exist separately of our knowledge of it. The interaction of individuals is what the world is socially constructed through, and different from the positivists' claim, the separation of 'fact' and 'value' is not clear-cut. Interpretivism emphasises understanding instead of explanation since relying on mere observation for understanding social phenomena goes against interpretivists' beliefs. Interpretivism sees a distinct difference between the social and natural sciences. As such, the social world must be studied from within using different methods than those used in the study of natural sciences. Social phenomena do not exist separately of our interpretation of them, and these interpretations are what affect outcomes. Therefore, researchers are an

inextricable part of the social reality which is being researched, i.e., they are not 'separate/detached' from their subject of study. As such, it is impossible to conduct 'objective' (value-free) analysis. This is due to the fact that knowledge is discursively and theoretically laden and the sum total of a researcher is their own personal (subjective) values, attitudes and opinions (Marsh et al., 1999; Grix, 2019: 73-81).

For the purpose of this research, a methodological approach, which emphasises an individual agency for their involvement in national policy (both general and sport-specific), will be used for the chosen paradigms. The theory of 'structuring structures' presented by Bourdieu (1990) cannot be ignored. This theory emphasises that the circumstances in which the policy are being formed hold significance and they may prove to be a shaping structure and may limit the available options. The interpretivist approach will be employed with the ontological and epistemological position in this study.

The process in which elites who make policies attempt to learn under the belief that other countries' successfully implemented policies or systems will be equally successful in their own country is known as policy transfer (Stone, 1999). 'Ideas, programmes, plans, institutions, policies and policy instruments' are the knowledge that is shared amongst various political systems around the globe, which is emphasised by policy transfer (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996:344; Bulmer et al., 2007). Based on the policy transfer framework, this study identifies the problems of the Korean sports system with the help of sports experts in Korea and benchmarks the policies of sport advanced countries, the UK, Australia and Norway, to improve them. As such, the policy transfer framework can be said to be related to the interpretivist approach.

#### **5.4. Research Design**

Researchers often employ frameworks, techniques or methods to effectively address a research problem. These techniques are referred to as research designs. Research designs are methods and processes of data collection and analysis that effectively answer research questions and accomplish the research aims and objectives (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2018). According to Bryman (2016) and Creswell (2018), there are a variety of research designs which



include case study research design and narrative research design. Other types of research design include grounded theory research design, experimental research design and phenomenological research design. This section will explain types of research design such as a case study and provide justification as to why this researcher chose the case study research design and how it aided in addressing research questions, aims and objectives.

#### 5.4.1. Case Study

A researcher can choose from a variety of methods. A case study is a qualitative research method used in social science allowing a researcher to approach and answer empirical inquiries. Case studies involve the study of phenomena in a real-world setting and exploring and deciphering the analysis of an event, group or an individual (Baxter and Jack, 2008). The aim of a case study is to analyse specific issues within the boundaries of a particular situation, environment or organisation. There are three fundamental types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Rebolj, 2013). An explanatory case study answers the 'how' and the 'why' questions. The researcher has minimal control over the occurrence of events, instead focusing on phenomena in real-life situations (ibid). A descriptive case study analyses the pattern of interpersonal events after a period of time. In most cases, descriptive case studies are used to describe a culture or sub-culture and try to discover key phenomena. Lastly, exploratory case studies answer the 'what' or 'who' questions. The researcher uses other data collection methods such as experiments, questionnaires and interviews.

Stake (1995) argued that case studies focus on complexities within the specific nature of a case in question. In addition, case studies allow an in-depth analysis of a case, often an individual, event or activity. While case studies are bounded by activity and time, the research can collect detailed information through various methods of data collection over a specific period (Stake, 1995; Creswell and Poth, 2018; Yin, 2012; 2018). A case study is the most suitable method of addressing research questions, aims and objectives.

Single case studies are not tied to specific research methods. However, they are perceived as an organisational strategy involving organising data to reserve the common or similar characters of the social object under study (Punch, 2014; Grix, 2019). On the other hand,

multiple case studies involve the analysis of two or more cases and overlap with a comparative design often linked to different experiments. A prominent distinction between the two types of case studies is that multiple case studies involve studying several cases to obtain an understanding of the contrast between the cases under investigation (Stake, 1995; Baxter and Jack, 2008). Also, the researcher can conduct data analysis with different situations and across situations (Yin, 2018). As a result, the researcher can determine whether the case study findings prove to be significant or not (Eisenhardt, 1991).

With these ideas in mind, this study will adopt the single-case study format to examine the revolution and perplexity of sports policy alterations in South Korea. The research will develop a comprehension of administrative support along with sports policy alterations in South Korea by analysing the function and support of sports as well as communicating sports encoded by the government. This study will also involve various sporting organisations along with quasi-government agencies. Various South Korean government bodies have attempted to make several changes in order to improve the sports system. Specifically, the success factors are positively affected by the operations of sports organisations which are government-sponsored and engage in volunteering programmes, managing and monitoring critical systems and various projects towards the achievement of organisational goals (Lee and Kwak, 2011). Examining the success factors in countries like the UK, Australia and Norway will provide secondary data that will be used in the research. The aim of the analysis is to obtain a benchmark from these countries to the enhanced sports development system and recommend development plans for the Korean Sport and Olympic Committee (KSOC) based on the improved systems.

## **5.5. Research Methods**

The use of ontology and epistemology for the research questions is associated with the employed research methods. The selection of quantitative, qualitative or an amalgamation of the two approaches is based on their suitability for the philosophical thought. According to Bazeley (2019), if a qualitative approach is selected, the reasons should be the research questions and the aim of the research, not the researcher's personal choice. The choice of

quantitative and qualitative approaches should be effective for methods and data, the researcher and aim and the objectives of the research (Blaikie, 2009).

Bryman (2016) explained that the main epistemological variation in the quantitative and qualitative methods is the ideas behind their application which entails social world knowledge and its justifiable acquirement. He further explained that the quantitative method is a 'scientific' method that involves surveys and experiments, but it does not consider the variations of the natural sciences (Bryman, 2016). On the contrary, the qualitative approach makes use of observation and unstructured interviews and, hence, could prove to be better as it would not use ineffective conceptual frameworks but would rather explore the factors about the people under consideration.

Amidst this discussion, the research of Marsh and Furlong (2010) cannot be ignored. According to them, there are methodological effects of the interpretivist position and it is objectively incorrect that a socially constructed world exists which must be explored through the social 'science'. The results of the quantitative approach may not be accurate. However, as interviews, focus groups and vignettes are used in a qualitative approach, the results present a better picture of world perception of the people. The variations in the two approaches have been well documented by Bryman (1988).

According to Blaikie (2009), quantitative and qualitative approaches cannot be objectively or subjectively segregated. This is because the data initially exists qualitatively and for record or measurement of data in the social world, subjective data is available. The quantitative approach, therefore, is a very useful approach for repetition and validation purposes.

Table 5. 1 Differences between quantitative and qualitative research

	<b>Quantitative</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>
Role of Qualitative research	Preparatory	Means of exploration of actors' interpretations
Relationship between researcher and subject	Distant	Close
Researcher's stance in relation to the subject	Outsider	Insider
Relationship between theory/concepts and research	Confirmation	Emergent
Research strategy	Structured	Unstructured

Scope of findings	Nomothetic	Ideographic
Image of social reality	Static and external to the actor	Processual and socially constructed by actor
Nature of data	Hard, reliable	Rich, deep

Source: Bryman and Burgess (1999: 39)

The qualitative approach is the primary methodological approach of this research. To fully understand the research paradigm, it is necessary to review the qualitative methodology concept.

#### 5.5.1. Qualitative Research

Qualitative methods aim to uncover and understand participants' experiences, attitudes and thoughts (Hiatt, 1986). Creswell (2018) argued that qualitative research occurs in a natural environment allowing the researcher to create information through taking part in the actual studies. The social and physical worlds are fundamentally different, and qualitative research attempts to explain beliefs and behaviours in a natural setting (Denzin and Lincoln, 2018). Using inductive reasoning, which seeks to identify the participant's perception of reality, often results in detailed knowledge through participant observation such as in anthropological fieldwork, the use of interviews and the analysis of archives or various documents or previous ethnographical studies (Ragin, 1994).

Benton (2014) stated that the interpretation of qualitative research occurs through the main informant's viewpoints and contexts, namely how they understand actions and meanings in social settings. Schofield (2002) also suggested that the quantitative research approach aims at producing a clear and meaningful description based on a detailed study of a situation under investigation. The precise replication of data collection and the criterion of generalisability in quantitative research is impractical in qualitative research.

Qualitative research is characterised by the extensive exploration of a topic in which a researcher gathers information through ethnographic work, interviews, case studies and other applicable methods, describing the interactions between informants and researchers in a natural setting with limited boundaries which results in flexible research. These interactions that are unique and dependent on the researcher which means that they could record

different results because the researcher and the participants create the results (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Furthermore, qualitative researchers seek to understand social reality through close association with subjects of their study (Denzin and Lincoln, 2018). Hence, qualitative methods aim to deduce meaning, detail and context within contextual settings (Bryman, 2016). As such the aim of qualitative research is neither replicability nor generalisability.

Given that a researcher can develop theories or hypotheses, explanations and concepts from a participant's information, qualitative research methods can also be inductive. This approach recognises that the experiences, perceptions and biases of researchers are included, and thus they cannot carry out the research 'objectively'. Another crucial feature is that the extensive application of qualitative research in education is still new with developments in methodology and guidelines of reporting still ongoing (Denzin and Lincoln, 2018).

Contrary to quantitative methods, the researcher may adjust the strategy or adapt their questions during the stage of data collection (Denzin and Lincoln, 2017). Nonetheless, this may not produce responses that are meaningful or comparable across sites and respective participants (Leedy and Ormrod, 2015). Qualitative researchers can include various methods in the study design as they deem fit regarding the answering of research questions, objectives and aims (Marshall and Rossman, 2011).

Researchers in their studies could adopt one or a combination of the following methods: observation (participant observation/non-participant observation), interview (the structured interview/ semi-structured interview/ unstructured interview/ group interviews (or focus groups)) and document (meetings and events, legal documents, formal studies and investigations and news in newspapers or mass media) (Marshall and Rossman, 2011; Yin, 2018; Grix, 2019).

The research methods outlined above are mostly used in empirical collection and analysis (Grix, 2019). However, a comprehensive list of requirements could be much broader - 'including films, photographs and videotapes, etc.' (Yin, 2018:113). Yin claims that every source has an equal advantage, suggesting that the various sources complement one another, and a satisfactory case study will look to utilise a multitude of sources (Yin, 2018).

Qualitative research is the most suitable for this researcher's research project because the data required in this study manifest as values, beliefs and an understanding, which will lead to an extensive description of social phenomena. Although it's possible to consider the existence of several other qualitative research methods applicable, this researcher has selected document analysis and interviews as they are most relevant to this researcher's aims and objectives.

#### 5.5.2. Data Collection

Collecting data is a step of compiling and gauging interest of variable information, in a developed systematic manner that facilitates the answering of the research's questions, the testing of hypotheses and evaluating the results. Data collection aims to acquire quality evidence pertinent to a rich analysis leading to satisfactory and conclusive answers to the research questions. According to Kabir (2016), selecting suitable instruments for data collection and giving instructions on their correct use reduces the probability of errors in the research. This is because the accurate collection of data is essential in protecting the integrity of the research regardless of the area of study or information defining preference (quantitative, qualitative) (Kabir, 2016; Marshall and Rossman, 2011; Creswell and Poth, 2018; Yin, 2018).

The details of the documents and interviews used in this research are as follows:

##### 5.5.2.1. Documents

Documents play an essential role in case study research by supporting an argument with evidence from different sources. First, documents help in authenticating the correct spellings of names of the people and institutions that may have participated in the interviews. Second, corroborative information from other sources can be gained from documents. Third, documents can enable a researcher to infer information (Yin, 2018).

Documents which clearly state the aims and objectives of a party, an association or an organisation when made public can provide an excellent yardstick against which to measure

reality on the ground (Grix, 2019). In 2015, for instance, the Sport, Tourism and Culture Minister, Tracey Crouch, announced that the (UK) government had published a new strategy in sports, 'Sporting Future: A New Strategy for an Active Nation'. The plans of the government focused on five significant results: physical wellness, mental wellness, developing the community and society, developing the economy and developing the individual. The purpose of the strategy was particularly for inactivity, less presented classes like women and girls, people with disabilities, young and older people and the social value of sport (Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) and Crouch, 2015; Flitcroft, 2015).

The 'Sporting Future' document may be analysed by a researcher, who may also talk to a few people associated with the governing body of sports to create a good list of their intentions. The researcher can then use this to make questionnaire. The part of the Documents' list are the below.

Table 5.2 A part of the Documents' list

Organisation	Year and title
Korea Institute of Sports Science(KISS)	(2017), Fundamental Research for a Successful Sports Club Operation Model (2018), A Study for Linking Grassroots Sports Community Societies and Public Sports Club (2020), Changes to the 2020 National Sports Festival
Korean Sport Innovation Committee	(2019), 2nd Recommends Innovation of Athlete Training System for Normalization of School Sports and Activation of Sports Participation by General Students (2019), 5th. 'For a Lifetime in Everyday Life!' Recommends Revitalisation of Sports Clubs for Realising a Sport Welfare Society.
Ministry of culture Sport and Tourism (MCST)	(2016), A Survey on Participation in National Grassroots Sports (2016), The Sport White Book (2019), The Sport White Book (2019), Three-Year Living SCO Plan (2020), The Sport White Book
National Human Rights Commission of Korea	(2019), Results of a Total Survey on Human Rights Violations of Elementary, Middle and High School Students (2020), Case Analysis of Sexual Violence and Violence in the Sports Field and a Study on Measure for Relief (2021), Human Rights Information and Policy
Department for Digital, Culture Media and Sport (DCMS)	(2015), Sporting Future
Department for Education (DE)	(2021), 3.4 million Pound to Expand the Duke of Edinburgh's Award in Schools
Australian Olympic Committee (AOC)	(2017) Annual Report 2017

Australian Institute of Sport (AIS)	(2014), Sporting Schools (2019), Athlete Wellbeing & Engagement Framework: Diving Australia
Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs	(2010) Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South
The Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic committee and confederation of sports	(2015) Children's Right in Sports
Norges Idrettsforbund	(2019) Sports Should: Strategic Focus Areas

#### 5.5.2.2. Interviews

According to Fontana and Frey (2005), researchers rely on interviews to collect comprehensive and extensive data to understand humans since it is the most prominent and powerful tool for both qualitative and quantitative studies. Additionally, Yin (2018) asserted that it is an essential source of evidence for case studies.

The semi-structured interview was the preferred method for this research. Grix (2019) explained that when researchers are conducting a semi-structured interview, they consider having several questions as manageable (do not exceed ten), which they prefer to administer to the respondents and which do not have to follow a particular sequence that is predetermined. There are some upsides to this, such as allowing some flexibility, reducing irrelevant information to the topic and enabling the provision of some background context by the interviewees (Patton, 2002). Besides, semi-structured interviews also offer the prospect of analysing qualitative data thematically (Alvarez and Sintas, 2002).

In-depth interviews such as this offer a comprehensive report that describes the perception, behaviour, beliefs, views, meaning and interpretations that individuals give to occurrences and things in addition to their attitude (Hakim, 2000). Subsequently, with major personnel involved in the improvement in the system of sports, semi-structured interviews would divulge their viewpoints, judgment, skills, backgrounds and assumptions and provide an essential explanation in comprehending and clarifying the difficulty in the process of changing sports policy.



The following reasoning strengthens the rationale for selecting the semi-structured interviews. First, the semi-structured interview seeks to understand the perception of the world on various major sports policy players in Korea, officials of the government and the involvement of academics in the policy of sports to analyse why they view things the way they do (Fielding, 2006); it also seeks to understand the normative values and the system of beliefs that underlay the perspective of an agent in addition to appraising their views on the restraining/prompting structural operational context (Green, 2003). Nonetheless, in spite of a keen concentration on a specific interviewee, the following reasoning strengthens the rationale for selecting the semi-structured interviews. First, the semi-structured interview seeks to understand the perception of the world on various major sports policy players in Korea, officials of the government and the involvement of academics in the policy of sports to analyse why they view things the way they do (Fielding, 2006); it also seeks to understand the normative values and the system of beliefs that underlay the perspective of an agent in addition to appraising their views on the restraining/prompting structural operational context (Green, 2003). Nevertheless, despite a keen concentration on a specific interviewee, it is not about a critical person; instead, interview transcript reports concentrate on different sequences or collections of attitudes and behaviours that are complementary and come up from the interviews (Hakim, 2000).

Table 5. 3 A provided overview of the interviewees

	Occupation	Interview date
1	Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST), official	25 September 2019
2	Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), professional	1 October 2019
3	Korea Institute of Sport Science (KISS), policy researcher	20 September 2019
4	Professor in sport sociology major	29 January 2020
5	KISS, policy researcher	1 October 2019
6	KISS, policy researcher	2 October 2019
7	KSOC, professional	28 September 2019
8	Policy maker	16 September 2019
9	Assistant of policy maker	13 March 2021
10	Sport policy evaluator	26 September 2019
11	School sports promotion association, official	4 October 2019
12	Professor in sport policy major	14 October 2019
13	Assistant of policy maker	14 March 2021
14	Sport policy consultant	26 September 2019

### 5.5.2.3. Thematic Analysis

According to Fossey et al. (2002), analysis means evaluating, incorporating and clarifying data to illustrate and explain the study subject. Gratton and Jones (2010) defined qualitative analysis as an extensive theory which adopts various comprehensive techniques. Nevertheless, qualitative analysis has multiple steps: reducing the data, displaying the data, drawing conclusions and substantiation (Gratton and Jones, 2014). Data coding is the most crucial part of the first stage. According to Gratton and Jones (2014), coding is organising raw information into theoretical groups.

Themes are extensively considered robust 'code' and thus as thematic analysis contained in the 'qualitative analysis document' (Altheide and Schneider, 2013). It is typically used to develop qualitative data in general and interview data, in particular, to assist in testing how various actions shapes the behaviours of different factors and their 'production, functioning and their alterations (Howarth and Sanstad, 1995).

This research uses thematic analysis as a significant technique in interview data analysis. Thematic analysis is a technique for determining and analysing specific implications of a set of data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is mainly employed in investigating verbal data from interviews and data from text newspapers (Goffe et al., 2011). It shows which themes are of significance to the explanation of the study topic (Daly et al., 1997). The outcome of a thematic analysis should give the most basic categories of implications the data set represents; the groups may be emotional, intellectual and figurative aspects (Goffe et al., 2011). Since a thematic analysis is typically applicable to social subjects, there must be a proper examination of the idea of what constitutes the proposed theme because a topic implies a particular recurrent meaning of patterns within the data (:ibid).

Being based on the stages, first, the data from the interviews and documents will first be transcribed. Second, after transcribing the data, the first list containing thoughts regarding what the content of the data and what makes them unique will be produced. Third, involves dividing the different codes into numerous possible themes and consolidating all the extracts of relevant coded data. Fourth, all the combined excerpts for each theme should be read and whether they appear to create a logical arrangement should be decided. If these candidate themes appear to form a sensible collection, the next step of this stage is undertaken. If these

candidate themes are inappropriate, the decision of whether the subject has problems or whether some extracts of contained data are just inappropriate must be made. Fifth, the researcher further describes and polishes the topics the researcher will analyse and then the data is analysed. Through 'defining and refining', the 'basis' of each theme will be determined by the researcher. Sixth, when the researcher obtains a set of completely solved themes and entails the scrutiny, the researcher will do a write up to convey the complex narrative of the researcher's data in a manner which will assure the reader of the researcher's authenticity concerning the inquiry.

## **5.6. Conclusion**

This chapter described this study's research strategy and the research methods to be used based on epistemological and ontological assumptions. When in the social sciences, choosing suitable research methods based on correct epistemological and ontological perspectives is crucial. This study firmly roots itself in the interpretivist position. To understand social phenomena in the context of sports systems' problems, the adoption of an interpretive epistemology is essential. Semi-structured interviews and document analysis are the specific methods used in this study's data collection.

For this study, a case study is employed for analysing the problems of the South Korean sports system. In the following Chapters (6, 7 and 8), empirical analysis will be used to present the problems of elite sports, grassroots sports and sports governing bodies. And in the final chapter, Chapter 9, this researcher will recommend applicable policies or programmes from three countries (the UK, Australia and Norway) which could be applied in the Korean sports system.

## **6. Salient Problems in Korean Elite Sports**

### **6.1. Introduction**

The purpose of this thesis is to identify the problems of elite sports, grassroots sports and Korean sports governing bodies in Korea and to propose policies that can help the sports system in Korea through system analysis of the UK, Australia and Norway, which are advanced sports countries. To this end, this empirical chapter consists of 14 interviews with lawmakers, professors, policy consultants and officials of the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST), the Korea Institute of Sport Science (KISS) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), who have all been closely involved in Korean elite sports, to trace the most salient problems with elite sports. After examining and analysing the interview data, government documents and previous research, the key problems of elite sports discovered after review, thematic analysis and a process of narrowing down topics were:

- 1) problems/difficulties the win-at-all-costs mentality,
- 2) re-socialisation of retired athletes and
- 3) problems of school sports, which were set as the main themes.

These themes will be dealt with sequentially, beginning with the 'win-at-all-costs' mentality behind the Korean elite sport system.

### **6.2. Challenges with the Win-At-All-Costs Mentality**

For Korean athletes, winning a competition is not necessarily the same as for athletes in other countries. In Korea, winning brings not only glory but lucrative economic rewards or personal treatment; thus, athletes fiercely compete to win prizes in domestic and international competitions (Koo, 2013). This researcher found problematic factors that make Korean elite athletes obsessed with victory, which could be divided into: pension systems, financial support from business teams and intensive media reports. The value of victory has been highly prized by South Korean athletes, indicating that this is causing a deviance over-

stimulation. Jung et al. (2012) explained that a deviance of over-stimulation caused by the win-at-all-costs mentality encourages athletes to play a dysfunctional role in promoting elite firstism, and Park (2013) insisted that athletes must use any means and methods necessary to win in a society where if they do not become the best, they are driven to become losers. Kim and Noh (2013) said that financial support would be graded according to the competition performance of Korean semi-professional teams, while Lim (2014) said media reports on international competitions were also factors that encouraged the win-at-all-costs mentality. In summary, the key factors that make athletes obsessed with victory are: first, pension plans, second, financial support for athletes from semi-professional teams and third, the media's problematic focused coverage.

First, the performance-improving research pension system is a factor that encourages an obsession with medals. The performance-improving research pension system is a system that rewards athletes who have contributed to the advancement of national prestige by winning at major international competitions such as the Olympics, Asian Games and world athletics competitions. Although this has contributed to Korea's growth as one of the world's top 10 sports powerhouses, this has caused problems that make elite athletes obsessed with sports and encourage overheated competition among athletes. In addition, in the case of athletes in unpopular sports events, their probabilities of obtaining a pension are low, and if they cannot receive a pension, it affects their livelihood after retirement (Kim and Kim, 2013; Korea Sports Promotion Foundation, 2018). In this regard, Interviewee 6 (2 October 2019, policy researcher) and Interviewee 7 (28 September 2019, KSOC official) stated the following.

There are many athletes who receive a pension through the Korean elite system and make a living with the pension. In the case of athletes in popular events, if you win medals in international competitions such as the Olympics, there are many ways to make money other than pensions. However, in the case of unpopular events, you only make money by pensions and an annual salary. If you quit an unpopular sport's event career, and don't have a pension, you'll become very unhappy because in Korea, grassroots sports leaders, especially for unpopular events, have difficulty making money. That's why athletes are so obsessed with winning (Interviewee 6).

Elite athletes train tremendously for national prestige and do a lot to achieve [excellent] results in international competitions such as the Olympics and Asian Games. However, that's because they have to get [excellent] results to get a pension. If you look at it, not all athletes perform [excellently]. That's why athletes exercise like crazy. But, even if they do this, athletes in unpopular sports events or sports

events with poor grades don't really have anything left after they retire. Even their livelihoods are threatened. That's why it is said that there is a need for improvement (Interviewee 7).

Elite athletes will receive a pension based on the performance-improving research pension system. As for the selection criteria, evaluation scores are given for each international competition's ranking, and pensions are paid from the total of 20 evaluation scores.

Table 6. 1 Evaluation scores by competition (Unit: points)

Criteria		Gold	Silver	Bronze	4th	5th	6th
Olympic Games		90	70	40	8	4	2
World Championships	4-year cycle	45	12	7	-	-	-
	2-3-year cycle	30	7	5	-	-	-
	1-year cycle	20	5	2	-	-	-
World Student Competition/ Asian Competition/ World Soldier Sports Competition		10	2	1	-	-	-

Source: Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (2021a)

As shown in Table 6.1, the evaluation scores given for each international competition vary, and the performance-improving research pension is awarded to athletes who receive 20 or more points by winning medals. There are two types of performance-improving research pensions, such as a monthly payment and a lump sum payment, and athletes can choose whichever they prefer. The details presented by the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC) (2021a) for the payment amount of performance-improving research pension are as follows:

Monthly payments are in the form of monthly pensions, and if the evaluation score is 20, approx. £190 will be paid per month, and if the evaluation score exceeds 100 points, the upper limit of approx. £630 will be paid per month. On the other hand, a lump sum payment is a one-time payment. The lump sum is paid after calculating the points obtained by subtracting the existing points from the combined points when obtaining more medals, and there is no upper limit for the payment. For example, if a gold medallist chooses a lump-sum payment, the amount received is approx. £42,432.

The performance-improving research pension system was created at a time in the past when winning medals at international competitions was recognised as a symbol of national prestige, economic growth and a leap forward, and it has been pointed out that the support is given to a few athletes with the best performances rather than many athletes, encouraging

overheated competition among athletes, and overlapping with the government's separate prize money in an outdated system (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019b; Kim and Kim, 2020).

Second, the win-at-all-costs mentality can also be found among semi-professional Korean teams, with interviewees 10 (26 September 2019, sport policy evaluator) and 14 (26 September 2019, sport policy consultant) stating that the annual salary for the athletes of semi-professional teams is important for living and that the competition's performance could affect the renewal of contracts and an increase in salary:

The win-at-all-costs mentality is a problem related to the athletes of semi-professional teams.... This is because in national championships or competitions like this, they [the athletes of semi-professional teams] get their salaries in proportion to their skills.... Regardless of the world record in 100m and 200m in track and field in our country [Korea], if there is a player who is at a higher level, [the player's] salary is very high. But the problem is that the athletes have a short life span, so even if you earn a lot of money as an athlete, that's it. It's the same for all the other events. That's why Korean athletes of semi-professional teams are competing against one another. If you win, your annual salary will go up" (Interviewee 10).

Most semi-professional teams in Korea belong to government agencies and local governments. Government agencies provide financial support. Therefore, the annual salary of the semi-professional teams is determined by the amount the local government calculates, and the performance at competitions has a significant impact. If you participate in competitions as a city's or province's representative athlete and get good results, the status of the local government will rise. Then you could increase your salary. For the athletes who have to sign a contract every year, they have no choice but to win in this structure (Interviewee 14).

Kim and Noh (2013) said in their studies that if Korean business teams perform well in the Provincial Sports Festival and the National Sports Festival, they can not only secure financial support for the business team but also raise the status of their local government, which is the reason for rampant win-at-all-costs mentality between teams and athletes. According to a study by Kim and Noh (2013), the win-at-all-costs mentality is prevalent among Korean semi-professional teams and it is argued that financial support can be secured by performing well at provincial and national sports events. As for salary-determining factors that can be characteristic of semi-professional team athletes, past and present awards, such as national sports awards and junior awards, and data, such as experience in the sport, affect the player's salary decision (Lee, 2014). In addition, semi-professional team athletes, unlike professional

athletes, who usually have a high salary, sign one-year contracts and maintain their careers. Therefore, the performance at domestic competitions directly affects not only the salaries of athletes but also their contracts, which gives athletes no choice but to obsess over competition (Lee, 2020).

Third, the problematic factor that encourages the athletes to be obsessed with the victory is intensive reports by media on specific athletes. Korean media outlets broadcast all night on public channels during international events such as the Asian Games, the Olympics and the World Cup, and on top of this, the news time was filled with competition news. For example, during the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, the Korean public broadcasters KBS, MBC and SBS broadcast the Olympics at the same time, and Figure 6.1 shows that they broadcasted the same game at the same time. Furthermore, competition broadcasts were concentrated on athletes who were more likely to win medals, and the various events held after the Olympics were also held mainly by medallists (Park, 2017).



Figure 6. 1 Broadcasts shown simultaneously on the KBS, MBC and SBS broadcasting stations in Korea

Source: KBS (2020 Tokyo Olympic, 2021); MBC (2020 Tokyo Olympic, 2021); SBS (2020 Tokyo Olympics, 2021)

As shown in Figure 6.1, it is easy to see the phenomenon that the games of the public interest were relayed at the same time, and it is difficult to find less popular sports events.

Also, by showing the rankings by country based on the number of gold medals, media outlets encourage patriotism among athletes and make them become obsessed with gold medals (Jeong, 2012). Media outlets provided videos on athletes, teams and sports events, which were more likely to win medals from the beginning of the year when there were international competitions such as the Olympics, raising the public's interest in international competitions. Athletes who received such attention had no choice but to focus on winning, and if they failed to win a gold medal, the disappointment in having failed to meet people's expectations came as a heavy burden. In this regard, Interviewee 4 (29 January 2020, professor in sport sociology)



stated as follows.

One of the things that determines the success or failure of Korean sports and encourages the match is the media, especially during the Olympics and international competitions. They intensively broadcast to the public. Broadcasting stations buy the airing rights, and then a lot of people watch it. They then have to produce stimulating results which is why they keep talking about gold medals. For each event, they broadcast a special statement, making a promise to gold medal winners. The best thing to raise interest is, "Who will win the gold medal?" and "How many gold medals will Korea win and rank as a sports power in the world?" All stations only broadcast the Olympic Games during the Olympics. They broadcast as if Korea has to rank within a certain level to be satisfied. If the ranking is low, they complain about it as a failed policy, as such this incites the win-at-all-costs mentality through the stimulating delivery of broadcasters (Interviewee 4).

Choi and Kim (2017) argued that they lose universality and equity by popular sports-oriented bias, popular star-oriented culture and reporting behaviour and victory-oriented reporting behaviour, which threaten the publicness and fairness that must be abided by in sports media journalism. Unlike the International Olympic Committee (IOC), which does not announce the Olympic medal rankings, Korean media outlets determine the overall ranking by counting the number of gold medals.

In addition, the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), a National Olympic Committee (NOC) group in Korea, also announces its goal of being at the top of the overall rankings ahead of the Olympics, and the media reports it extensively (Park, 2017). Kim (2021) reported that in the 2020 Tokyo Olympic medal predictions by country announced by Gracenote, an American sports data company, Korea would win 9 gold medals, 10 silver medals and 6 bronze medals, taking 10th place overall. In addition, they encouraged the public to focus on the athletes who were expected to win by reporting sports events where medals and materials related to athletes could be obtained, which is a problematic factor promoting the win-at-all-costs mentality among Korean elite athletes.

Looking at the study 'Media Frame and Reception Characteristics of Sports Heroes' by Yoon and Lee (2005), the result of comparing the core frames of Korean newspapers (*Sports Chosun*, *JoongAng Ilbo*) and broadcasters (MBC, KBS) on athletes showed a high obsession with victory as proven by the 'win-at-all-costs mentality' with the highest proportion at 27.3%, followed by 'nationalism' at 19.0%, 'commercialism' at 14.6% and 'sensationalism' at 10.8%. In addition,

Kang (2006) emphasised that the win-at-all-cost mentality is serious enough to be called a 'disease' from which Korean society suffers. As an example, the obsession with victory among Korean athletes can be found at the 2016 Rio Olympics. Looking at Jung, Bo-kyung, who shed tears for missing the gold medal, Korea's first medal in women's judo, there is also a clear sense of goal for victory, on the other hand, it was possible to see a cross-section of Korean society, which is obsessed with number one (Park, 2016). Of course, as the people had high expectations for victory, the sluggishness of some of the national athletes disappointed the people, but this is incomparable to the regret of the athletes, who had worked hard for four years. Also, some people criticised the athletes they had cheered for when they failed to win medals. It was pointed out that these institutional and environmental factors were problems that promoted the victory of elite athletes as well as outdated ideas, which many experts emphasising the need for improvement.

### **6.3. The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes**

Since 1972, to foster elite athletes, Korea has implemented the Sports Specialist System in which the state discovers only a small number of talented athletes and develops them into elite athletes by connecting with them throughout elementary, middle and high school in addition to university. In particular, if student athletes have good athletic performance, admission to upper schools is easier. Therefore, student athletes have prioritised participation in competitions and training rather than academics, lowering their participation rate in school education (Yun, 2017).

In addition, most young people who start exercising dream of becoming national representatives and want to grow into successful athletes, but in reality, the probability of success is extremely low. Growing up exposed to endless competition from an early age inevitably entails failures which then fosters conflicts over maintaining life as an athlete and results in athletes having to voluntarily or involuntarily halt their careers (Kim and Cho, 2017). Interviewees 11 (4 October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) and 13 (14 March 2021, assistant of a policy maker) stated that students who were athletes from elementary, middle and high school have difficulty adapting to university education after

entering university through the Sports Specialist System, and therefore some student athletes halt their studies.

In Korea, [athletes] mostly go to elementary, middle and high schools to exercise and attend universities through special talent admission. Most of them quit sports, so in our country, student athletes, except for those who go to professional or semi-professional teams, play sports to attend university. Even at university, there are only a few students who succeed as athletes and go on to professional or semi-professional teams, and the majority of students who quit sports have a very difficult life. Why? They couldn't keep up with their studies because they only played sports until high school. If they don't play sports, they have to study, but they can't keep up with universities classes. That's the reality (Interviewee 11).

Athletes can't keep up with [university classes], so that's difficult. If they don't receive proper [education] and only play sports, it's hard to keep up with [university]. It's not that [athletes] are ignorant, but it's that they don't know what to do because they've never done it. That's difficult. Now, some of the kids who quit sports at university don't finish school and just drop out. That is why they need to be educated from an early age (Interviewee 13).

In 2020, 104,632 Korean amateur athletes were registered with the KSOC, 17,572 of these are professional and semi-professional team athletes, about 17% of all registered athletes. On the other hand, among Korean student athletes, the probability of entering professional teams or semi-professional teams (local governments, provincial sports associations or corporations, etc.) is less than 10%, and the chance of conversion into being professional athletes is very small. There is a strong voice proclaiming that the student athletes, who failed to grow as professional athletes, need education to prepare for the future after quitting athletics (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021g; S. Jo, 2021)(Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021; Cho, 2021).

According to data from the '2019 Retired Athletes Survey' conducted by the KSOC (2021f), it was found that Korean athletes retire at an average age of 22 that is, a university student's age, which is significantly lower than the average retirement age of 49.5 for the general public.

Table 6.3 shows decisive reasons for athletes' retirement.

Table 6. 2 Decisive reasons for athletes' retirement

Criteria	Frequency (no. of people)	Ratio (%)
Uncertain future	194	29.8
Injury	162	24.8

Lack of competitiveness	79	12.1
Other (military, team break-up, etc.)	68	10.4
Environmental difficulties (contractual terms, discord, etc.)	45	6.9
Change of career	32	4.9
Economic problems	31	4.8
Academic	31	4.8
Marriage/birth/childcare	10	1.5
Total	652	100

Source: Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (2021f)

As suggested in Table 6.3, the reasons athletes decided to retire were surveyed in the following order: an unstable future (29.8%), injuries (24.8%) and a lack of competitiveness (12.1%). Table 6.4 also shows the difficulties of athletes' post-retirement career transition.

Table 6. 3 Difficulties in career transition

Criteria	Frequency (no. of people)	Ratio (%)
Lack of information about jobs and careers	277	42.5
No idea regarding one's aptitude and interest	123	18.9
Lack of personal competence	98	15.0
Psychological atrophy	63	9.7
Other	43	6.6
Social prejudice	28	4.3
Limited choice due to injury	20	3.1
Total	652	100

Source: Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (2021f)

As suggested in Table 6.4, 42.5% of retired amateur and Olympic level athletes felt that the process of changing their careers was difficult due to a lack of information about their occupations and careers after retirement. In fact, retired athletes' employment has been shown to be very poor, and interviewees 7 (28 September 2019, KSOC official), 11 (4 October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) and 13 (14 March 2021, assistant of a policy maker) stated in this regard:

Looking at the employment status by field, about 30% of retired athletes are in sports-related fields, and the rest are not. Retired athletes can't even make inroads into sports. Honestly, the easiest way to get there is sports. However, the employment rate here is very low. And if you get a job that is not related to sports, it seems difficult to adapt.... About 41% of retired athletes are unfit for society and are not economically active. They don't have jobs (Interviewee 7).

When I looked at the career paths of students from elementary, middle and high school athletic teams, most of them [amateur and Olympic level athletes] worked in occupations not related to sports. Very few succeed in athletics or work in sports. This is the reality of our country.... Among the track and field students I taught, some students have a difficult life. It's hard economically. It's too bad (Interviewee 11).

Well, there are a lot of athletes who fall into extreme poverty because there are not many elite athletes who can carry on their normal economic activities after retirement or a change of career.... Because they haven't done anything but sports, they can't leverage their majors (Interviewee 13).

In fact, looking at the employment status of retired amateur and Olympic-level athletes surveyed by the KSOC (2020a), 41.9% were unemployed, meaning only 58.1% were employed. Of the employed, only 29.8% were sports-related workers while the rest had jobs unrelated to sports. In addition, 55.7% of the employed were part-time workers and 46.8% had a monthly income of less than ₩1,276 (₩2 million KRW). Table 6.5 shows their specific types of occupation.

Table 6. 4 Retired athletes' types of occupation (unit: %)

Year	Sports-related	Office	Sales	Service	Soldier	Other	Jobless (Unemployment Rate)	Total
2015	21.7	9.59	4.17	14.92	2.52	9.99	37.1	100
2016	25.08	9.1	5.27	17.09	4.48	3.6	35.8	100
2017	22.7	4.8	1.3	0.8	2.0	34.0	35.4	100
2018	35.8	7.5	2.5	9.5	1.5	5.4	33.8	100
2019	29.8	4.0	2.0	1.4	4.3	16.5	41.9	100

Source: Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (2020a); Lee (2020)

Table 6.5 shows that for five years the number of sports-related workers has risen while the number of other jobs has decreased. However, unemployment has increased. For example, Kim, Jae-yeop, who won a gold medal at the 1988 Seoul Olympics, was successful as a medallist, but after his retirement, he lost everything due to business failure and family strife caused by a lack of experience and even attempted suicide. Kim, Jae-yeop criticised Korea's elite culture and appealed for support for athletes' careers and futures after retirement (Jung, 2016).

As such, it can be understood that athletes are having difficulties in finding employment after

retirement, and to improve this, the KSOC has been conducting career support projects for retired athletes since 2018. However, a 2020 survey by the KSOC found that only 20.6% of retired athletes knew of the project, and most especially, the 20-24-year age group with the largest number of retired athletes had a lower rate of knowledge at 13.4%. In addition, among retired athletes, the number who experienced the four services provided by the support centre (employment support, customised vocational training, career education and employment/start-up education) was very low at 6.7% (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2020a). In this regard, interviewee 13 (14 March 2021, assistant of a policy maker) stated:

I started the Retired Athlete Support Project at the KSOC in 2018 to help retired athletes, but the country's funding is too low. Because the subsidy is small, the public doesn't work well, and athletes don't know it well. It's just mentoring. We have to give them real education and help them find jobs. The subsidy is small, not being of much help (Interviewee 13).

As such, support for retired athletes is an important issue for athletic circles, which has long been talked about. For athletes, who retire at the age of 23 on average, significantly earlier than the general public, we need to come up with effective measures to help them live their second life as a member of society.

#### **6.4. The Problems of School Athletic Sports**

With the successful hosting of the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympics, South Korea became the seventh country to achieve a grand slam of international sports events by having hosted the Summer Olympics, Winter Olympics, FIFA World Cup and World Championships. Considering these international quantitative achievements, Korean sports can be said to be a powerhouse that have achieved growth and development. However, in Korea, problems such as poor human rights and undemocratic problems have been pointed out due to the closed and hierarchical structure of the organisational culture of sports organisations, the administrative organisation centred on relatives, the difficulties in democratic communication and the opacity of information provision (Kim, 2020).

Seo (2019) pointed out that anti-human rights issues in the sports sector dominate athletes' daily lives, so there is a unique structure that prevents them from being exposed to the

outside world, and this undemocratic and anti-human rights organisational culture has continued for a long time. In particular, the stress factors experienced by Korean student athletes have a lot in common. This includes Korea's unique school athletic team culture, a unique stressor due to the special nature of the entrance examination system, fear of punishment and conflicts between senior and junior members of a school's athletic team (Kang, 2009; Chung, 2013). Problems like these have become more serious due to the Sports Specialist System. In this sub-theme, the problems of school sports were analysed in areas such as being deprived of the right to learn, a physical assault/sexual abuse problem, a camp as the culprit of school athletic sports problems and apprenticeship training.

#### 6.4.1. Being deprived of the right to learn

The Sports Specialist System is a policy introduced to Korean sports in 1972 to foster elite athletes; however, the government has discovered only a few talented athletes and continuously been linked with them throughout elementary, middle and high school as well as university to foster elite athletes. Through the Sports Specialist System, student athletes are able to go to universities if they are good at sports, so they often miss classes and focus solely on sports (Lee, 2019). Various problems began to emerge due to this elite fostering system, and first, if you look specifically, frequently missing classes makes it impossible for students to understand the contents of classes even in classrooms, which leads to student athletes' poor learning abilities. Second, in 1972, when the Sports Specialist System was created, the National Boys' Sports Competition in which elementary and middle school students participated began, and it created an environment in which student athletes could no longer study and participate in sports (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019ba). Interviewee 11 (4 October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) stated that student athletes' training and participation in competitions has a negative impact on their academic performance.

Then elite athletic teams must participate in competition events as well as training.... However, if a competition is held during the semester, students have to participate unconditionally, even during classes.... Then it could lead to missing classes, and if possible, it would be good to hold the competition in a way that doesn't interfere with class, but the KSOC insists that it shouldn't be allowed. Student athletes are also

students, so they at least need to take classes and learn things, so even if they quit sports later, even if they don't succeed on a professional team, at least they have the basic academic background and ability learned and can choose another profession or work related to sports. You have to be equipped with the skills to find your own path in life based on your scientific academic background, which means you can get these things in class. But the problem is that students don't attend classes and only do sports (Interviewee 11).

In fact, if you look at the 'Current State of Human Rights Survey of Elementary, Middle, and High Schools' Student Athletes' conducted by the National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2019), the student athletes who participated in the survey showed that the usual number missing classes was 14.4% for middle school student athletes at the amateur-level and 46.5% for high school student athletes. Lee and Jung (2017) claimed that student athletes are continuing to be deprived of their learning rights, saying that many schools only conduct morning classes to secure training time for student athletes.

In addition, student athletes are experiencing difficulties in understanding the progress and content of classes due to missing classes to participate in competitions, leading to the deprivation of learning opportunities and the deterioration of student athletes' learning ability, thus leading to a vicious cycle of losing interest and motivation in learning (Lee and Kwak, 2011). Not only that, interviewee 6 (2 October 2019, KISS policy researcher) pointed out that athletic team students can earn credits and graduate from school without taking classes.

I think athletic team systems like [South] Korea are the only ones in the world.... In Korea, everything is excused if you do sports, giving them a class-missing right, too. But they give credits even if students don't go to class for three years, all year round, and they can graduate with that. Without reading any books or taking any exams for three years, they'll graduate with a lack of academic background.... I don't understand it, but the athletic team takes it for granted (Interviewee 6).

According to a survey conducted by the National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2019) on middle and high school students, the average class time per day was 4.48 hours when there were no competitions. However, it was reduced by more than half to 1.91 hours when there were competitions. Few students received supplementary classes, and 82.1% of the students said they did not take any supplementary classes. Choi, Min-Su, who used to be a student soccer player, said, "It became impossible to follow class because I only took morning



classes. I would be lying if I said I didn't have time to study, but after sports, I was tired, and it was hard to grab a book" (Lee, 2018). This phenomenon gets worse as they become seniors in high school. The percentage of students who did not meet the standard of the 'Student Athlete Target Minimum Educational Attainment System', which has been in effect since last year, increased as the grade level increased. It is only 3.4% of fourth graders in elementary school, but it soared to 43.9% when they reach their third year of middle school. The report analysed that the decline in academic ability was serious because of a lack of class due to frequent participation in competitions and training (ibid).

Many sports scholars are talking about sports specialist systems as the cause of this phenomenon. Because the Sports Specialist System allows student athletes to enter upper schools without studying, Korean middle and high schools made athletic teams to increase the number of elite student athletes which led to athletes being immersed in sports to the extent that they were both physically and psychologically exhausted (Lee, 2019; Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019ba). Interviewee 11 (4 October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) spoke about the amount of student athletes' training.

[Korean] elementary, middle and high school's student athletes train almost every day for 5-6 hours. There is a study conducted by the Korea Institute of Sports Science that investigated the amount of training of athletes. If you look there, you can see how severe the amount of training of student athletes in Korea is. There is a huge difference in the amount of training compared to student athletes in Germany. Korean student athletes train too long. That's the reality. It is inefficient to unconditionally increase the amount of training and time. We need to reduce the amount and time of training and approach sports scientifically and efficiently. I study in my spare time after training. We need a change (Interviewee 11).

In fact, if you look at the 2014 survey of Korean and foreign student athletes' training hours, it explains the training hours of student athletes and the number and hours of training by age group in Korea, the US, Germany and Japan (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2014). Table 6.5 shows the comparison of the average training hours for swimming and soccer of student athletes in Korea and Germany.

Table 6. 5 Average training hours per week for Korean and German student athletes  
(unit: Hour)

Criteria	Country	Grade		
		Elementary school	Middle school	High school
Soccer	Korea	19	22	28
	Germany	8	12	14
Swimming	Korea	28	30	42
	Germany	18	20	24

Source: Korea Institute of Sports Policy Science (2014)

As shown in Table 6.5, it can be seen that the sports hours for Korean student athletes increases as they move through elementary, middle and high school, and there is a big difference compared to German student athletes. In addition, the frequency of training was confirmed to be about six times a week for Korean student athletes, while it was just two to three times a week for German student athletes. Also, despite the relatively large and frequent sports hours of student athletes in Korea, most of the leaders and athletes answered that it was adequate or insufficient. This can be interpreted as student athletes' expectations that the effects of training will increase if they train a lot, but excessive training fatigues athletes and causes negative effects on training and academic satisfaction (Kim, 2019).

In 2020, the Ministry of Education (MofE) changed the regulations regarding the number of days allowed for students to participate in student athlete competitions and training per a year. It was changed to 20 days for elementary school students, 30 days for middle school students and 40 days for high school students so that student athletes can faithfully participate in school life while studying and doing sports (Ministry of Education (MofE), 2020b).

However, this regulation has been changed every year since 2017, so student athletes were not given enough time to adapt to the new regulation, and behind the scenes, student athletes were found to be training using expediency (Kim, 2018). Song (2017) stated that student athletes participating in individual events should usually receive a written explanation of the reason for skipping classes from sports organisations, such as the Korea Skating Federation and the Korea Swimming Federation, and submit it to their school. However, it was pointed out that the sports organisations did not write written excuses according to the competition or training schedules and instead wrote an excuse for an entire month's absence

for important competitions, and they also made notes for several months according to convenience. The KSOC has encouraged student athletes to participate in school classes by revising the rules, but it is sceptical as to whether they are being followed properly.

#### 6.4.2. Physical assault/sexual abuse issues

As well as being deprived of their learning rights, physical assault/sexual abuse issues have also emerged as a problem in school athletic sports. In 2019, the National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2019) announced the results of the 'Survey on Athletes' Human Rights of Elementary, Middle and High Schools', which was conducted on 63,211 people (57,557 responses), and 15.7% (9,036 students) and 14.7% (8,440 students) experienced verbal violence and physical assault, respectively, and 3.8% (2,187 students) experienced sexual abuse. It was shocking that most of the perpetrators of the violence were coaches.

Asked about their feelings after experiencing physical violence, 38.7% (898 students), 21.4% (707 students) and 16.1% (459 students) of elementary, middle and high schools, respectively, said, "I think I should work harder", and many of them accepted physical violence as a form of 'discipline to improve their skills' (ibid). When Park (2021) visited a school athletic team, leaders thought that the verbal and physical violence that occurred during training is for students and even students and parents thought that they had to endure it to achieve results. Therefore, it was reported that coaches, students and parents had the common perception that violent behaviour was inevitable. It was pointed out that if students learned sports in a coercive atmosphere before learning how to respect one another, they would regard such an atmosphere as natural. Even though violence is rampant, there are many cases in which the fact goes unnoticed for a long time. Interviewee 8 (16 September 2019, policy maker) stated the issue of physical assault and sexual abuse based on recent cases.

You know the Shim, Sukhee sexual abuse #MeToo case. Former coach Cho, Jaebeom raped Shim, Seokhee for 4 years. And Choi, Sookhyun committed suicide after continuous physical assault. It's a serious problem. There should be no more 'athletic circles' assault, or sexual assault. Elite sports have been engrossed in the competition for gold medals, creating a hierarchical order of absolute obedience between coaches and athletes and structurally repeating inhumane physical assault and sexual abuse crimes using violence as a means of uncontrolled power. They have to reflect on themselves (Interviewee 8).

In fact, there was the suicide case of Choi, Sook-hyun in 2020. She was selected for the triathlon national team in 2015 as a high school student. She later joined a team camp and was constantly insulted and assaulted by her team's coach and fellow athletes. Of course, Choi, Sook-hyun asked for help from organisations such as the Gyeongbuk Province Sports Association, but she did not receive any help and eventually committed suicide in 2020 (Kim, 2020). This incident also occurred due to the lukewarm response or concealment of related agencies such as the Gyeongbuk Province Sports Association. A survey of 422 female high school athletes on past sexual assault showed that 34.4% had experienced sexual harassment. 76% of the perpetrators were coaches and 24% were fellow athletes (Joo, 2008). The National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2020) published the 'Study, Analysis, and Remedy on Cases of Sexual Violence and Violence Cases in Sports'. As a result of analysing 87 cases of sexual violence, the perpetrators were leaders (directors, coaches, etc.) for an overwhelmingly high number of cases (77), and in 82 cases, the victims were minors.

Two causes of physical assault/sexual abuse problems were identified: the deification of leaders and soft punishments. First, the deification of leaders means that leaders (coaches, directors, etc.) are like gods in school athletic teams, and student athletes absolutely obeyed directors and coaches while tolerating violence and justifying or concealing harsh acts (Park, 2021). It was also pointed out that the leaders' statuses, coupled with their professional careers, could exercise more power in grades, school, employment, competition opportunities and influence over national teams, making it difficult for athletes to reject the perpetrator's sexual demands or abuse (National Human Rights Commission of Korea, 2020). Interviewee 10 (26 September 2019, sport policy evaluator) stated that parents are trying to please leaders for their children.

Parents want their children to get good grades and enter good universities, but special talent admission remains the same. So, parents can't help but please athletic team directors. They try to please leaders because it's hard to play when they're out of favour with the leaders (Interviewee 10).

For this reason, leaders have exercised absolute power in athletic teams, but student athletes and parents did not raise any concerns, and these issues did not come to the surface.

Second, soft punishments are another source of physical assault and sexual abuse problems. Regarding soft punishments, interviewee 4 (29 January 2020, professor in sport sociology

major) stated:

As far as we know, soft punishments have aggravated this problem.... The KSOC and each event organisation has a reward and punishment committee. If an assault or sexual assault case breaks out, the reward and punishment committee determine the gravity of the punishment. There are some guidelines. But first of all, paternalism has become common. Until now, we could not keep principlism<sup>1</sup> due to paternalism. Punishment is now according to the rules, and the rules have probably been strengthened a bit. But problems happened again, and leaders returned. Even if they get permanently expelled, they come back again (Interviewee 4).

In 2017, a high school kendo club coach in Gyeonggi Province seriously assaulted a male student he was teaching. However, the student's parents did not want to punish the coach. They didn't want the coach to be punished because the rate at which athletes were admitted to a good university was high, and in the end, it was concluded that he would receive a two-month salary deduction. According to data on school athletic teams' discipline by violence over a five-year period surveyed by the KSOC from 2014 to 2018, 82 cases of leaders beating student athletes were reported to the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education, and nearly half of these cases (39 cases) ended with light punishments such as a suspension of three months or less (5 people), salary deduction (10 people), warning (16 people), light warning (6 people) and reprimand (2 people). Considering the cases that were not even reported to the Metropolitan and Provincial Offices of Education, there are far more cases of violence perpetrated by school sports leaders (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), 2018; Yun and Kim, 2019). As such, experts criticised the school assault/sexual assault issue of the sports world as the cause of the reality of performance-oriented elite sports education, where even assault is tolerated to get medals or to achieve high rankings. As for the reason that violence has been tolerated, such as the latest revelation of physical assault/sexual abuse more than a decade ago, he pointed out the closeness within the sports world, abuse of the positions of leaders such as directors and coaches and soft punishments.

Looking at the cases of different countries, it can be seen that the cases of sexual assault differ greatly from country to country. A European study by Krahé et al. (2015) on young people's sexual victimisation in ten European countries showed that between 19.7% and 52.2% of the

---

<sup>1</sup> Principlism is an applied ethics approach to the examination of moral dilemmas that is based upon the application of certain ethical principles(Keeling and Bellefleur, 2016).

females and between 10.1% and 55.8% of the males reported at least one incident of sexual victimisation since the age of consent. When looking at Germany in particular, a comprehensive survey on the prevalence of sexual abuse/assault in children younger than 16 years (by a person at least 5 years older), which included 11,428 people between the ages of 15 and 40 (51.9% female), found a prevalence of sexual violence with physical contact of 1.5% for men and 7.4% for women (Staldler et al., 2012). A prevalence rate of 28% in Norwegian female national team athletes could be found (Fasting et al., 2004), whereas in Great Britain, 34% of the female and 17% of the male athletes were affected by sexual violence (Alexander et al., 2011).

As such, other countries are also experiencing cases of sports violence and sexual assault, and in 2011, the Sport Unit of the European Commission proposed project support goals to fight this. Through exchanges between European countries, by increasing the scope of the European network and highlighting the particular challenges faced when implementing preventative measures, efforts were made to create synergy in national cooperation and development (Deutsche Sportjugend, 2012). Korea also needs to find ways to improve by checking other countries' prevention methods.

#### 6.4.3. Camp training as the culprit of school sports problems

Currently, Korea's Sports Specialist System depends on the single supply from the school athletic teams. The Sports Specialist System has led to the fierce competition and training of students to enter upper schools and to improve their performance, and a phenomenon called camp training has emerged in schools. This phenomenon has spread widely due to the National Sports Festival and the Boys Sports Festival, elementary and middle school athletes' tournaments, and even the youngest athletes, put everything they have into training (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2011). Lee (2009) argued that school athletic team camp training was effective in extending training time, enhancing training concentration, facilitating player management, improving teamwork and housing (especially for remote scout athletes and poor home environment athletes). Lee (2008) stated that camp training can achieve goals quickly through concentration and mutual competitiveness which are necessary for sports performance, thereby increasing efficiency and performance. Thus, the camp training of

school athletic team has been considered inevitable in terms of securing training hours and the efficient management of athletes. Interviewee 4 (29 January 2020, professor in sport sociology major) stated the purpose of the camp as follows.

[Student athletes'] training has to start early in the morning and sometimes runs late, so to do that, they have to be together in one place, and when they are together, young student athletes can focus on training and have teamwork, and for that reason, they couldn't give up camp life. The camp's purpose is training. It's the convenience of control, convenience for coaches and directors. Camp life is just island culture. Lock them up so they can't get out. They can control students like that, make them obey well, and students do not get away. If students go back and forth from home, they might get away because training is really hard. On top of that, the number of student athletes is also decreasing a lot. In the absence of student athletes, it may be intended to prevent student athletes from getting away (Interviewee 4).

The camp surveying results of Huh et al. (2020) showed of the 1,433 semi-professional team athletes who experienced the camp during their school years, 703 (49%) experienced the most camp life in high school, 531 (37%) in middle school and 199 (14%) in elementary school. The specific reason for living in camp is detailed in Table 6.6.

Table 6. 6 Reasons for living at camp.

Reason for living at camp	No. of students (ratio)
Coercion due to internal team guidelines	236 (16.5%)
Leaders (coach, director) want a camp life	156 (10.9%)
Economic reasons	63 (4.4%)
To focus on training	345 (24.1%)
"My fellow athletes live in the camp, but if I don't, I'm afraid of falling behind in training."	24 (1.7%)
It helps to improve performance	275 (19.2%)
Teamwork	255 (17.8%)
Other	79 (5.4%)

Source: Huh et al. (2020)

As shown in Table 6.6, the greatest reason for living in camp was 'to focus on training' at 24.1%, to 'improve performance' at 19.2% and for 'teamwork' at 17.8%. The reasons 'coercion due to team internal guidelines' was 16.5% and 'leaders (coach, director) want a camp life' was 10.9% suggest that living in camp was to control student athletes to some extent (Huh et al., 2020).

Since 2000, the question of the necessity of school athletic team camp training began to be raised, leading to a fact-finding survey of its harmful effects, and voices for improvement were further raised. Specifically, they began to raise concerns about school athletic team training with excessive allocation of sports hours, regular camp implementation, missing classes, indifference to schoolwork and burdening parents with the abnormal operation of camp expenses (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2011). Interviewee 5 (1 October 2019, KISS policy researcher) stated that there have been changes, giving examples of events that brought problems of camp to the surface.

Beginning in the 2000s, many scholars and people in the sports field started to introduce sports systems from developed countries. Then, we said that we need to go to the club system, but it didn't work because until then, there was no cause for change. But an incident occurred in 2003, the fire at a soccer team camp in Cheonan. The charred camp shocked people. At that time, there were problems with camp and elite sports only on paper, so these problems didn't show up and people didn't care. But then this incident happened. As a result, problems began, and Ahn, Minseok [a member of the assembly] started to eliminate camp, and the elite sports concentration policy began to shift to the direction of the club (Interviewee 5).

In fact, in 2003, a fire broke out at an elementary school soccer camp in Cheonan, and the sleeping young soccer players were killed. It was a large fire disaster in which 9 young athletes died and 17 suffered severe burns, later dying, resulting in a total of 26 casualties (Baek, 2003). Figure 6.2 shows the gruesome scene.

Figure 6. 2 Cheonan Elementary School fire incident



Source: Baek (2003)

School athletic team camp has become a headache since this awful fire disaster in 2003. In 2007, the National Human Rights Commission of Korea issued a recommendation to abolish the school athletic team camp. As the Gyeonggi Provincial Office of Education decided to abolish the camp and the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education followed, other City and Provincial Offices of Education reportedly considered abolishing the school athletic team



camp in succession (Kim, 2017). However, according to the recently reported state audit data, the reality is that this is not the case. Ahn (2016) reported that 4,039 student athletes were still doing camp training at 218 school athletic team camps through a government audit report based on the Ministry of Education's data, and they live in the camp for an average of 220 days a year. Moreover, since this data is a survey of 11 City and Provincial Offices of Education, excluding Seoul, Busan, Incheon, Gwangju, Gyeonggi and Jeju, the number of school athletic team camps and student athletes that are conducting camp training is expected to be higher than that.

The school athletic team camp training system seems to have changed little compared to the past in spite of the governments' efforts, with some entities of school athletic teams being in opposition or disobeying the system of eradicating camp training through signature campaigns, petitions and protests to the contrary (Lee, 2015). Unfortunately, the governments' policy efforts have not been effective and conflicts with the field have been shown to intensify.

## **6.5. Conclusion**

In this chapter, the problems of elite sports in Korea were analysed and the following results were drawn. The first problem happened due to the win-at-all-costs mentality, where winning in competitions became a means of success for Korean athletes, and economic rewards and personal treatment such as pensions, prizes and various prize money made athletes more obsessed with winning. Most of the victories and medal wins were from popular sports events, whereas they were sparse in unpopular sports events. As a result, many athletes flock to popular sports events which encourages overheated competition among athletes. In the case of unpopular sports events, many athletes suffer from financial problems after retirement. The second problem with the win-at-all-costs mentality appeared among the Korean business teams, and the records are very important because the athletes of the business teams have to renew their contracts and negotiate their annual salary every year. If they fail to win, they may retire regardless of their will because they are not guaranteed an extension of the contract. Finally, the media also incited the victory of elites and focuses people's attention on

athletes by intensively introducing specific athletes or specific sports events during international events such as the Olympics and the Asian Games. Such institutional and environmental factors were pointed out as a problem that incited the victory of elites.

The second problem is the resocialisation of retired athletes which has long been of interest. When student-athletes stop playing voluntarily or involuntarily, they have a hard time adjusting to a college education or social life due to the absence of participation in school education during elementary, middle and high school, and some student-athletes have even stopped studying. In addition, it was found that more than 90% of Korean athletes failed to go to professional or business teams and have difficulty in the career transition process due to a lack of information for their career path after retirement, aptitude, personal competency and psychological withdrawal. In fact, the employment status of retired athletes is very low. To improve this, the Korean Olympic Committee has been conducting the career support project for retired athletes since 2018, but it was found that only a small number of retired athletes actually know about this project. Since most of the retired athletes are young (between 20-24 years old), support for their post-retirement careers is urgently needed, but it is a pity that they are not actually provided this support properly.

The third problem was found in various school sports due to Korea's unique sports club culture and entrance exam system. First, the Sports Specialist System, which started in 1972, brought a decline in student athletes' learning abilities due to a lack of school education, and a large amount of training and participation in competitions made an environment in which study and exercise cannot be conducted at the same time, leading to the student athletes being deprived of the right to learn. Second, as one of the biggest problems in Korean elite sports, the issues of violence and sexual assault/abuse were found to be serious. Most of the perpetrators of physical violence and sexual assault/abuse were leaders, and it was shocking that students accepted physical violence and sexual assault/abuse as disciplines to improve their skills. Even students and parents tolerated them to achieve results. Students have been overwhelmed by a coercive atmosphere when most of them started sports when they were mentally immature minors and could not express their rejection because of worries about their career. In addition, the problem of punishment was also pointed out, and it was shown that the number of such cases did not decline due to light punishment given. Another problem

with school sports is the operation of the camps. Although the operation of the camps was shown to be effective in helping athletes grow and improve their performance, problems such as excessive exercise time, class absence, indifference to schoolwork and increased burden on parents for accommodation expenses can be found. Although the government is considering abolishing the camp training system, it appears that they are still in operation, and the officials of school sports clubs are still opposed to abolishing the camp training system.

As a result of analysing the Korean elite sports system, various problems were found. To improve these problems, the policies of the UK, Australia and Norway were reviewed, and the policies for improvements are proposed by benchmarking them. This will be dealt with in Chapter 9. The next chapter will present the results of analysing the Korean grassroots sports system and the most salient problems to remedy.

## **7. Problems in Korean Grassroots Sports**

### **7.1. Introduction**

According to Article 2, No. 3 of the National Sports Promotion Act, grassroots sports are defined as “a voluntary and daily sports activity to promote health and fitness” (National Sports Promotion Act, 2020), and that “all citizens have the right to enjoy grassroots sports for healthy physical activities and healthy leisure and should be able to enjoy grassroots sports equally without any discrimination, and the state and local governments are obligated to guarantee the right for grassroots sports” (Article 3, Grassroots Sports Promotion Act, 2015). This Act was first enacted as a law in 2015, and after two revisions, it went through several stages to become such a regulation. However, problems with expanding the grassroots sports base and grassroots sports support projects continue to appear in relation to the grassroots sports policy of Korea, which will be discussed in this chapter.

First, the lack of sports facilities, problems related to sports club members, i.e., lack of connectivity by age groups, facility monopoly and problems related to the community sports club, lack of connectivity by age groups and the monopoly of facilities and lack of sports participation of youth are found to attribute to the problems with expanding the grassroots sports base. Regarding the lack of sports facilities, the government proposed a plan to create conditions to expand new grassroots sports facilities and improve the utilisation of existing facilities based on the National Grassroots Sports Promotion Act promoted by the government since the early 1990s. The number of facilities relative to the population in the living area was insufficient, so public sports facilities such as swimming pools and gymnasiums were actually insufficient. Although the government expected to expand the participating population by fostering grassroots sports clubs, the problem related to sports clubs was that certain sports clubs monopolised public sports facilities and were adult male-centred, resulting in insufficient intergenerational operations. Lastly, the youths' lack of participation in sports is recognised as being at a serious level due to the youths' living environment centred on entrance exams. The WHO (2019) surveyed 11-17-year-old youth in 146 countries in 2019 and found that 94.2% of Korean youth had less than an hour of physical activity per day,

ranking the lowest in the world compared to other countries. As such, while the interest in grassroots sports is increasing among Koreans, it was confirmed that participation did not increase due to the support of the government and the environment.

Second, problems were also found in the grassroots sports support project promoted by the Korean government, which included problems with the sports club pilot project, public sports clubs and the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, etc. Since 2005, the Korean government has introduced an advanced sports club system based on examples from Germany, France and the UK, but all the policies failed due to the absence of participation from various classes and the lack of connection with school sports, elite sports, unclear identity and being short-term projects rather than long-term. By improving this, the public sports club policy was promoted in 2014, and it is expected to become the base with which to expand grassroots sports and improve the people's health and quality of life (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019ab). However, problems such as the lack of self-reliance, lack of connection with the city and provincial sports associations and lack of professional leaders were found and persisted, which should be improved in various ways. Lastly, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, which was implemented to contribute to the promotion of national health through individual physical fitness diagnosis and customised exercise prescription, also showed problems in various aspects. In 2021, more than a decade after the start of the policy project, only 75 Certification Centres were opened nationwide, showing limitations in policies promoted by the whole nation, and accessibility limitation due to the small number of locations was also found. In 2018, it was confirmed that 258,429 people participated, which confirmed that infrastructure construction was at a serious level, as only 0.5% of the total Korean population of about 51 million participated. In addition, various programmes are also necessary because programmes tailored to the participants are not attracting the interest of the participants because they are simple. Lastly, this policy project was meant to improve public health by increasing people's participation in grassroots sports but lacked connection with grassroots sports.

As such, various problems were found in the Korean grassroots sports system, which were analysed in-depth as follows.

## **7.2. Problems with expanding the grassroots sports base**

### **7.2.1. Lack of sports facilities**

After the 1988 Seoul Summer Olympics, the government recognised the need for a grassroots sports promotion policy for people to participate in as the public awareness of sports activities improved significantly and interest in the individual quality of life increased due to income improvement. Based on the successful hosting of the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul, the national government, along with local governments and private organizations, established the first grassroots sports policy, the "National Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan", in March 1990. Compared to the previous government, the National Grassroots Sports Committee was established to pursue the balanced development of grassroots sports in 1991, and the national administrative organization and organization for grassroots sports promotion was improved in earnest (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020).

Looking at the sports facility part of the "National Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan", it can be divided into three large parts: expanding new grassroots sports facilities, improving utilization of existing facilities, and improving the conditions for participation in grassroots sports (Ministry of Culture sport and Tourism (MCST), 2019). First of all, the new expansion targets were basic sports facilities such as stadiums and gyms, the Olympic Memorial National Recreational Centre, village sports facilities, winter sports facilities, the Olympic Garden for athletes, and workplace sports facilities, and it suggested an easy-to-use plan for the public by promoting private investment and expanding sports facility installation areas. In addition, to improve the utilization of existing facilities, it established practical measures such as the conversion of public sports facilities to grassroots sports facilities, the utilization of Olympic facilities, the opening of company sports facilities, and the conversion of school physical education facilities to grassroots sports facilities (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020). However, interviewee 1 (25th September 2019, MCST official) pointed out that the problems that arose with the government's policies are as follows:

They started the National Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan, a grassroots sports promotional policy, about 30 years ago. In fact, for grassroots sports to develop, there are three elements: a facility, a program, and a leader. But in Korea,

the demand of the people at that time was increasing, but the facility conditions were not good enough. Especially in the case of big cities, there's no land, so they're implementing policies to expand the gyms or stadiums that we can use here, but it's not going as planned. That's the problem (Interviewee 1).

According to the *JoongAng Ilbo* newspaper (1990a.02.02) at that time, there was no investment in public sports facilities at all. With about 100 public stadiums and gyms nationwide, and 40 million people at the time, we can assume that 400,000 people should use one facility. As an alternative, it was argued that at least one public complex sports facility per village should be installed to increase facility accessibility. Overall, the government at the time realised the need to revitalize grassroots sports after the 1988 Seoul Olympics and came up with specific policies to do so, but it was practically limited in terms of the supply of facilities. Meanwhile, the Republic of Korea's government has pursued various policies for expanding bases of grassroots sports since 1990 as shown in Table 7-1.

Table 7. 1 Grassroots Sports Policy List Since 1993

Policy Name	Goal	Contents
1st Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan (1993-1997)	Spread of grassroots sports nationwide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increase the public's awareness of participation in sports activities</li> <li>-Expand physical activity spaces and training of grassroots sports leaders</li> <li>-Expand people's healthy leisure activities</li> </ul>
2nd Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan (1998-2002)	Establish an environment for grassroots sports participation to create sports activities conditions centred on communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Expand sports facilities as a place for local community residents' activities</li> <li>-Expand participation of non-participating population in grassroots sports programs</li> <li>-Cultivate and utilize sports instructors</li> <li>-Proliferate private-led grassroots sports</li> </ul>
3rd Grassroots Sports Promotional Complex Plan (2003-2007)	Improve the quality of life of the people through the vitalization of physical education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Expand resident-friendly living and sports spaces</li> <li>-Systematic development of sports clubs</li> <li>-Operate various programs to expand participation in sports activities</li> <li>-Establish a scientific national fitness management system</li> <li>-Cultivate and utilize grassroots sports instructors</li> </ul>
Culture Vision (2008-2012)	Improve conditions for participation in sports activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Establish and activate local sports clubs</li> <li>-Implement customized sports welfare</li> <li>-Expand and improve the utilization of grassroots sports facilities</li> <li>-Expand grassroots sports facilities and space</li> </ul>
Sports Vision 2018 (2013-2017)	Change society through sports	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Cultivate comprehensive sports clubs</li> <li>-Certification of national fitness certification system</li> <li>-Expand the placement of grassroots sports leaders</li> <li>-Create small gyms</li> </ul>

Sports Vision 2030 (2018- Present)	Sports for people, the happiness of a healthy life	-Renovate and repair public sports facilities for the disabled -Expand happiness sharing sports classes for low-income citizens
		-Expand sports participation opportunities, strengthening national sports -Promote the welfare of athletes and create a fair sports ecosystem -Successfully host the 2018 Pyeong Chang Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games -Foster the sports industry and create jobs through sports

Source: Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (2020)

As shown in Table 7-1, the common contents of the policies for expanding bases of grassroots sports can be found to expand sports facilities, expand programs, and foster leaders. In this regard, the ‘2016 Sports White Paper’ found that the number of public sports facilities in the Republic of Korea was 24,303, an increase of 25.3% compared to 2013, but that the number of facilities relative to the population was still insufficient compared to other developed countries (see Table 7-2). In particular, 18,394 of these facilities are simple sports facilities, which are not normal sports facilities such as gyms and swimming pools, so the situation is even worse. Besides, the portion of the population participating in basic events such as badminton, table tennis, and swimming has continued to grow, and the lack of facilities in the community area has continued (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2016b).

Table 7. 2 Population per Gym

Criteria	U.S.	Japan	Korea
# of people/gym	5,000	10,000	117,000

Source: Korea Institute of Sports Science (2018)

In this regard, interviewee 1 (25th September 2019, MCST official) stated as follows.

We don't have enough gyms or swimming pools in the area, so we've planned to expand the pool. The pool is 15 minutes away from my home and the gym is 10 minutes away. The Moon Jae-in Administration stressed that it would work on that, which is going well. You'll find out if you look at the SOC Three-Year Plan. The government says a lot of things can be solved within three years, but I don't think it can be done in such a short time (Interviewee 1).

In fact, the Republic of Korea's government announced the “Social Overhead Capital (SOC) Three-Year Plan for Recreation” in 2019 and plans to expand facility supply to meet the rapidly increasing demand for indoor and outdoor sports activities, such as baseball fields and



football fields, as well as indoor sports facilities, such as swimming pools and gyms. It is also said that it is necessary to reflect the growing desire of senior citizens to participate in grassroots sports and the demand for grassroots sports in the aging population. Accordingly, baseball stadiums and football fields will be accessible within a 12km radius of service and within 30 minutes access, and various sports infrastructures such as health and grassroots sports facilities for the elderly will be established, and outdoor sports facilities and urban parks will be established (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2019) . However, Cho (2020) pointed out that the process of setting various policies and selecting projects related to the SOC is decided and promoted in a short period of time despite the large scale. Although a prompt implementation of the policy is necessary, the compatibility with the existing plan was not sufficiently considered despite the fact that it was a nationwide project rather than a pilot operation in some regions. In addition, as the project was rushed, it was not possible to come up with a comprehensive plan based on the needs of local residents, and even discussions on related plans or laws were not actively conducted. He also pointed out that there is a possibility of simply putting projects together in one place rather than a close connection between them.

#### 7.2.2. Problems related to Community sports club: the deficiency of connection by age group and the monopolisation of facilities

Grassroots Community sports clubs play a large role in Korea's sports ecosystem. The National Sports Promotional Act defines it as “a group of people who continuously participate in the same grassroots sports activities” (National Sports Promotion Act, 2020), and Park and Kwon (2010) defined it is a voluntary association that operates mainly on preferred events and reflects various social expectations and demands, unlike public and corporate organizations that have a standardized institutional framework and structure. The clubs maintain organizational permanence with elements such as their names and objectives, bylaws and places of activity, sports events and programs, organizational promoters (representatives and leaders), and operational funds (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2018). These sports clubs are the result of the organization Youth Sports Department which launched the “Sports

in Daily Lives Movement” in 1991, and the Korea Council of Sport for All, which was launched at that time, first implemented and nurtured private-led sports clubs.

The Youth Sports Department decided to promote clubs by having local residents produce and distribute handouts with the purpose of club formation, activities, and membership registration methods for local residents at monthly neighbourhood meetings under the supervision of each city, county, and district, and also decided to induce the formation of clubs through women's associations in densely populated areas. Along with this, they decided to introduced exercise programs by facility and activity time for local residents who are active in nearby sports parks, formed clubs, hosted sports competitions by workplaces, sports, and industries, and actively promote the work-oriented club organization (Joongang Ilbo, 1990b).

At that time, there were 8,319 registered sports clubs nationwide and about 345,000 registered members in 40 events by region and company (Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST), 2017). According to the ‘2018 Sports White Paper’, in 2017, there were a total of 115,303 sports clubs nationwide, with 5,579,640 active members which was 9.3% of the population or one out of ten Koreans, showing rapid growth (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2018). This can be seen as the result of the government's efforts to foster sports clubs and expand the participating population since 1991. For example, the Event Association Promotion Project by event promoted the ‘National One Sports Daily Campaign’ by supporting the spread of sports club activities. This project induced the formation of community sports clubs for each new event and supported the Event Association for each event to secure financial independence through the fitness enhancement of grassroots community sports club members and the systematic management of clubs (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020).

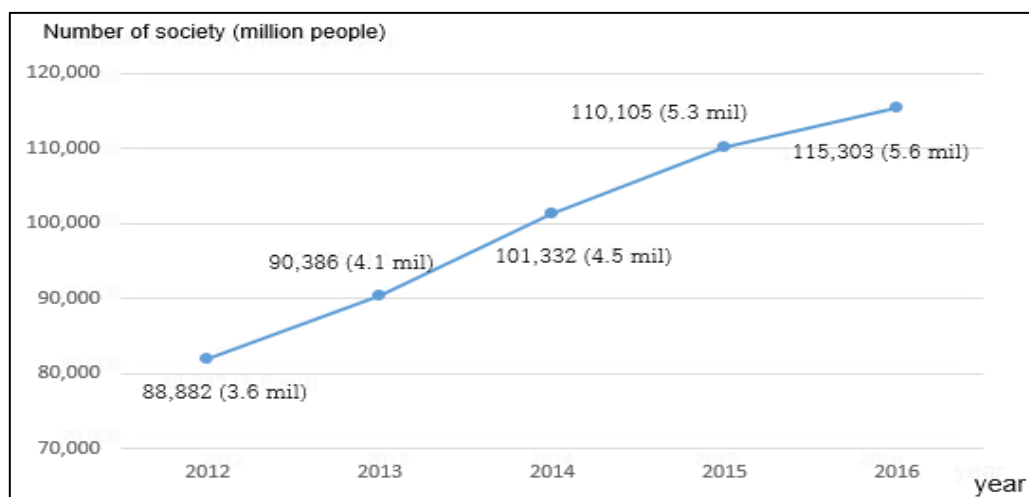


Figure 7. 1 Trends in the Number of Grassroots Community Sports clubs and Members

Source: Korean Sport & Korean Committee (2019a)

Despite the government's efforts, various problems arose in the personnel composition, the public sports facilities monopoly, a lack of a professional guidance system, and a backward registration system. In this regard, interviewee 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher) pointed out the problems of the club member policy promoted by the government so far as follows.

The biggest problem for grassroots community sports club members in our country is that they have a closed culture centred on men in their 30s, 40s, and 50s. Another thing is that there is no such thing as classes for each level within it. This is because only the good players actively participate. The entry barrier is high for underachievers to get in. That's how they grew up in the areas on their own. ... Besides, community sports clubs or local governments can't control them because they're already oversized. As a result, public sports facilities are used exclusively by them (interviewee 5).

According to a survey conducted by the Korea Institute of Sports Science (2018), the representative problem of sports clubs is in the composition of the human resources. Most clubs are male-centred, and teenagers and the elderly participate in closed operational clubs with insufficient connectivity between generations (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2005). If you look at the National Grassroots Sports Survey conducted by Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (2020), you can see the status of community sports club enrolment in Table 7.3.

Table 7. 3 Status of Club Enrolment

(Unit: %)

Age	10s	20s	30s	40s	50s	60s	70+
Enrolment percentage	6.4	7.3	8.9	12.6	11.8	8.6	5.0

Source: Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (2020)

As shown in Table 7.3, it can be seen that the adult age groups in their 30s (8.9%), 40s (12.6%), and 50s (11.8%) have higher enrolment rates than teenagers and the elderly. In other words, middle-aged adults in their mid-30s to early 60s are the main members, and these characteristics predict that intergenerational entry and access have been difficult within sports clubs, thus forming exclusive attributes (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020).

On the other hand, the problem with the community sports club is the clubs' monopoly of facilities. Interviewee 11 (4th October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) stated the severity of the monopoly of facilities as follows.

The last time I visited public sports clubs in Jeolla-do, the badminton coach said there was a class, so I went to the gym to take it. However, they had the class late at night. That's when I asked them why they had a class so late. They can't use the court other than this time because the rest of the time the sports clubs use the court exclusively. Most of the sports clubs use it at good times, so the general public, who want to learn, attend the class late at night (Interviewee 11).

As in this statement, it was confirmed that coaches of public sports clubs gave lessons to the general public during times when club members were not using the facilities. In May 2015, a physical fight between a badminton club member and a general participant occurred due to a gym use problem, resulting in the death of one male member in his 50s (Korean Broadcasting System (KBS), 2015). It was an incident that occurred because of the lack of public sports facilities compared to those who enjoyed sports. Although the public sports facilities and school physical educations facilities are basically insufficient, the bigger problem is that even the insufficient facilities have been monopolized by specific clubs. Specifically, problems caused by cases in which only specific clubs have monopolized the schools' physical education facilities, causing complaints of nearby residents (Won, 2016), cases in which specific clubs privatized public sports facilities (Yu, 2017), and cases in which only specific

clubs hold long-term reservations in the reservation system (Lee, 2017) have become more aggravated.

The lack of a professional guidance system was also mentioned as a problem with community sports club. Interviewee 4 (29th January 2020, Professor in Sport Sociology major) stated the following about this.

In fact, club members go to enjoy tennis after work, but they do not want to play with beginners, they want to have fun with people who are good at it. I also went to the tennis court paying money, and everyone does. And I go to sports clubs, play a game or two, and go home. Rather than spending time learning and teaching beginners, I just go and play a couple of games. They give lessons at sports clubs separately (Interviewee 4).

Although there were also leadership-oriented club member groups, such as badminton, As Interviewee 4 mentions, most grassroots sports club members did not have professional leaders because they were formed and operated just to enjoy the same event for friendship. Of course, they invite leaders to participate in competitions, but most take private lessons to improve their skills. Due to this structure, socialization and solidarity can take place within the clubs, and the enhancement of individual competence related to motor skills can occur outside the clubs (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2018).

### 7.2.3. Sports participation restrictions of teenagers

The "2020 Teenagers' Health Behaviour Survey" of 793 middle and high schools and 54,948 students by the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, and the Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency (2020) is in Table 7.4.

Table 7. 4 Participation Ratio of Physical Activity at least 60 Minutes a Day, 5 Days a Week and Muscle-Strengthening Exercise at least 3 Days a Week

Criteria	Middle School			High school			Total		
	Male	FEM	Total	Male	FEM	Total	Male	FEM	Total
Physical activity at least 60 minutes a day, 5 days a week (%)	22.1	9.6	15.9	17.8	5.9	11.9	19.9	7.7	13.8
Muscle-strengthening exercise at least 3 days a week (%)	35.2	12.1	23.7	38.4	8.2	23.3	36.8	10.1	19.0

Source: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency (2020)

As shown in Table 7.4, 13.8% of teenagers participated in physical activities for more than 60 minutes a day more than 5 days a week and 19.0% participated in muscle-strengthening exercises more than 3 days a week. Also, the survey results for 5 years from 2016 are shown in Table 7.5.

Table 7. 5 Teenagers' Physical Activities Trend by Year

Criteria	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Physical activities for more than 60 minutes a day, 5 days a week or more (%)	13.8	13.5	13.7	13.9	13.8
Muscle-strengthening exercises more than 3 days a week (%)	20.4	22.4	22.9	21.4	23.4

Source: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency (2020)

As shown in Table 7.5, the rate of teenagers' physical activities participation is consistently low, which shows the reality that Korean teenagers do not enjoy the right to exercise due to the entrance exam-oriented environment (National Youth Policy Institute, 2019). In this regard, interviewees 1 (25th September 2019, MCST official) and 11 (4th October 2019, School Sports Promotion Association official) stated the following.

If you look at the educational enthusiasm and social structure of Korea, it is common to think that you have to graduate from Seoul National University, Yonsei University, or Korea University to have a good job and succeed. Parents tell their children, 'You have to go to the top to succeed. That's why you have to study. It is not the time to exercise. Exercise is not important, answer one more problem right and go to a good university to better your future.' This social structure created by the overheating of entrance exams makes students entangled in their studies without having time to exercise. Students who participate in sports clubs in Korea are seen as separated from the social structure (Interviewee 1).

I mean, parents have their kids do a lot of schoolwork and get tutoring. Private education. So, the kids don't have time to exercise. For example, we have a school sports clubs league under the Seoul Superintendent of Education. The league starts every spring. When the league starts, we usually schedule matches on Saturdays. Kids can't play on weekdays because they have to attend classes. But even if we have matches scheduled on Saturday, some teams do not show up and the games are forfeited. The kids can't come to the games because they go to academies. They have to go to academy even on weekends. This is the reality. In particular, high school teams are worse. It's just that one team doesn't come out and the game gets forfeited automatically (Interviewee 11).

In fact, the Ministry of Education started the school sports clubs league in 2008 to increase student participation in sports, but only a few students participated in the 2019 sports club league 12 years later (Lee, 2019). As an example, looking at the data in Table 7.6, we can see that a small number of students participating in the league compared to the total number of students in Seoul.

Table 7. 6 Status of Teenager Participation in the School Sports Clubs League in Seoul

Age Range (School)	Entire # of school s	Entire # of student s	2018			2019		
			# of teams	# of students	Participa tion student ratio	# of teams	# of students	Participa tion student ratio
Elementary	603	424,600	458	8,079	1.9%	431	7,379	1.7%
Middle	385	216,330	1,097	18,362	8.5%	1,114	18,607	8.6%
High	283	263,952	759	13,442	5.0%	724	12,904	4.8%
Total	1,271	904,882	2,341	39,883	4.4%	2,269	38,890	4.3%

Source: Korea Educational Development Institute (2018; 2019); Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (2018; 2019)

As suggested in Table 7-6, the participation rate is significantly lower in Seoul, where sports club leagues are the most active in the country. In addition, Lee (2019) pointed out that not only is the low participation rate a problem, but another problem is that teams that fail to participate in the game on the day of the league's game due to attendance at private academies forfeit.

In Korea, we found data showing the poor sports activities of teenagers. The World Health Organization (2019) announced the physical activity levels of teenagers aged 11-17 in 146 countries in 2019, which reported 94.2% of Korean teenagers as having less than an hour of physical activity per day, ranking the lowest in the world. In other words, it means that more than nine out of ten Korean teenagers lack exercise, not even exercising for an hour a day. In particular, in the case of female students, it was found that 97.2% of them had insufficient physical activity to maintain and develop physical and mental health. In general, the income level of a country and the lack of exercise in teenagers tended to be inversely proportional, but the Republic of Korea was cited as a serious case for the lack of teenage exercise in spite of high national income. Figure 7-2 shows the ranking of countries lacking teenage exercise by continent.



Figure 7. 2 Proportion of Teenagers with a Lack of Exercise Worldwide and Ranking by Country

Source: WHO (2019) adapted by Blanchard (2019)

The “National Life Participation Survey” reported in 2018 suggested the reasons for teenagers’ non-participation in sports activities, and the first reason, the lack of available time for physical activity (53%), was significantly higher than the second reason, the lack of interest in physical activity (10.3%) (Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST), 2018).

The mental, physical, and social difficulties of teenagers in modern society are increasing. Policy efforts to address the problems experienced by teenagers through sports have been active since the 1990s. In addition, various teenage sports policy projects have been carried out to discover and nurture elite athletes, promote health, social, and character development, form leadership, and for social integration (UNESCO, 2014).

Looking at overseas cases, in countries such as Finland, Sweden, and Denmark, the participation rate of teenagers once a week in sports is close to 95%, and in Sweden in particular, up to 25% of teenagers participate in sports every day (van Tuyckom, 2016). New Zealand and Australia, since the 2000s, maximized teenagers’ participation in sports inside and outside of school by promoting national after-school sports programs such as ‘KiwiSport’ and ‘Sporting Schools’, which could promote their positive development (Keat and Sam, 2013; Hogan and Stylianou, 2016). The UK emphasized strengthening the connectivity between schools and local sports clubs as part of a policy targeting teenagers in 2012 and endeavoured



to expand bases of teenagers' sports activities by connecting with at least 6,000 clubs (2,000 for football, 1,250 for cricket, 2,300 for rugby, and 1,000 for tennis) by 2017 (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2012).

According to a study by Choi et al. (2013), teenagers' participation in sports activities improves physical development and the ability to respond to social changes, naturally forming peer groups, thereby relieving themselves from the pressure of entrance exams and relieving stress in various ways. The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) (2017) also reported that teenagers' moderate sports activities help improve life satisfaction by improving academic performance and reducing anxiety, and that athletic students can lower their anxiety regarding exams compared to those who do not. Despite the positive effects of physical activities on teenagers, the fact that only limited physical activities are possible due to Korea's excessive enthusiasm for education is a factor that threatens the physical health of teenagers, which requires an urgent need for change in the education culture focused on entrance exams.

### **7.3. Limitations of Grassroots Sports Support Project**

#### **7.3.1. Problems with the Sports Club Pilot Project**

The Republic of Korea's government has been pushing for the introduction of an advanced sports club system since 2005 to solve the dualised structural problems of elite and grassroots sports and revitalize grassroots sports. In particular, various pilot projects were promoted to establish a sports club system suitable for Korea based on the examples of advanced sports such as Germany, France, and the UK (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2017d). In this regard, interviewees 5 (1<sup>st</sup> October 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 6 (2<sup>nd</sup> October 2019, KISS policy researcher) stated as follows.

Since the early 2000s, sports clubs have been introduced through many sports experts. The concepts of sports clubs were introduced from many developed sports countries, including the UK and Germany, and voices began to be raised to activate them. Since 2005, the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism and the Sports Science

Research Institute jointly joined hands with the Ministry of Culture and Tourism and the Sports Science Research Institute to come up with the Korean-Model Sports Club Pilot Project Plan. Since then, they have been doing various types of projects such as regional, school, and facility types. Recently, in 2014, a comprehensive sports club business started, which has become the public sports clubs of today (Interviewee 5).

Using the Korean model, I made four of them: facility type, school type, regional type, and company type. That is the Korean- model sports clubs that the Republic of Korea's government and the Sports Science Research Institute made in 2005 and the pilot projects were carried with the budget from the Ministry of Finance since 2006. If you look at it, about 15 years have passed. While with little success, and then from the Park, Geun-hye Administration, I see now that a comprehensive sports club is succeeding after the premise that sports clubs can be legally incorporated. It's been changed to public sports clubs and is operated now. Still, looking into it, there are a lot of problems (Interviewee 6).

The background of the Korean-Model Sports Club Pilot Project Plan was to solve the issues such as the disorganization of domestic sports clubs, the lack of unity and diversity of the participation class, the low participation rate of grassroots sports, generational segmentation, the lack of connection between grassroots sports-school physical educations-specialized sports, the problem of recruiting elite athletes centred on school sports clubs, and the lack of contribution to the local community. Various pilot projects such as teenager sports clubs, regional clubs, community sports clubs, school sports clubs, public sports clubs, and comprehensive sports clubs have been carried out (Korea Council of Sports for All (KCSA), 2013). The attempts of these projects have been positively evaluated for contributing to the revitalization of grassroots sports, but contrary to their original intentions, various classes failed to participate. The connection and development of 'grassroots sports - school physical educations - specialized sports' were insufficient, and it was negatively assessed due to an unclear identity and short-term business (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2017d). A brief look at the Sports Club Pilot Projects conducted by the government is shown in Table 7-7.

Table 7. 7 Sports Club Pilot Project

Division	Youth Sports Club	Local Community Sport Club	Community Sports Club	Public Sports Club
Year	2004-2007	2004-2005	2006-2010	2011-2014
Concept	After-school activities made up of youth	Community Sport club with friendship	A non-profit sports organization operated by membership while pursuing diversity in sports, age, and exercise level	Sports club centred on local public sports facilities based on grassroots sports clubs
Target	Korean Olympic Community	Korea Council of Sport for All	Ministry of Culture Tourism	Korea council of Sport for All
Object	Teenager	Adult	Adult	All tiers
Area	6 cities	4 cities	Nationwide (60 locations in total)	Nationwide (92 locations in total)
Purpose	Nurturing elite athletes through the expansion of youth athletic experience and training	Support for community sport club development and building an advanced local sports club model	Inducing club revitalization through existing clubs and regional leagues	Operation of multi-age, multi-level programs in two or more sports
Result	1. Development of elite sports and improvement of youth life culture; 2. Contribute to raising awareness of sports among city and provincial youths and expanding the base of sports population; 3. Class dropout was reduced by combining exercise and study.	1. Operated mainly for adult males, but with the effect of increasing the number of children, adolescents, and adult female members; 2. Improving the ties of local residents; 3. Possibility of discovering elite players	1. Provide a place where people can enjoy sports in their daily lives; 2. Confirmed possibility of connectivity between school physical education, daily physical education, and elite sports system	1. Increased number of operating locations, operations, and participants
Limitations and Problems	1. Dissonance between local governments and local offices of education; 2. Lack of financial autonomy; 3. Overspending on labour costs; 4. The club's self-sustaining issue if state or local government support is suspended	1. Direct management or support is impossible because a cooperative system between local governments and local offices of education cannot be established; 2. Increase in the number of children, youth, and adult female members, but the continuity was not maintained; 3. No training program	1. Difficult to cooperate with local governments and public sports facilities, and the working conditions of leaders was poor; 2. Difficult for sports clubs to become financially independent. Sustainability is limited; 3. Failed to deviate from the existing lifestyle sports club support project	1. Focused on single sports such as football and badminton, which are easily accessible due to the limited use of sports facilities; 2. Difficulty on self-sustainability due to lack of finances; 3. Age and gender imbalances were observed in the participation system; 4. In conjunction with the comprehensive Sports Club Pilot Project implemented by the government in 2013, some of them were converted into comprehensive sports clubs and gradually reduced

Source: Korea Institute of Sports Science (2017d)

Since 2004, the Republic of Korea's government has deployed a variety of pilot projects to stabilize sports club projects. But if you look at the limitations that have emerged in the course of running an existing pilot project, first, it was conducted as a government-led, short-term pilot project, and not enough time was given to build a foundation for the independence of sports clubs. Second, it was a random administrative project implemented by the government, so the lack of support from the government and local governments after the end of the project period weakened the self-sustainability of sports clubs, and the burden of labour costs increased. This was directly connected to the supply and demand of leaders, not only being unable to provide high-quality classroom services, but posed problems in maintaining facility maintenance. Third, it failed to secure multi-age and multi-class members. In the end, these problems could not be overcome, and the Sports Club Pilot Project drifted or disappeared, and it did not settle down as an alternative sports system and culture that could fully take root in the local community (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2017d).

### 7.3.2. The problem with public sports clubs

The Public Sports Club Activation Policy, which began in 2014, has been transformed into a way to improve the openness, autonomy, and diversity of sports clubs through reflection on existing limitations and to provide various supports necessary to have sustainability at the same time. Through this, it was expected that it would be possible to take a step closer to the realization of a sports welfare society, the restoration of local communities, and the practice of grassroots democracy through expanding the base of grassroots sports, pioneering new routes for elite sports, and improving people's health and quality of life (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019a). Regarding public sports clubs, interviewee 7 (28th September 2019, KSOC official) stated as follows.

The public sports clubs project is a representative club project that has been operated so far. The previous name of the business was Comprehensive Sports Club, and now it's changed to Public Sports Clubs. Students who are interested in sports activities are actively encouraged by education in the school, and students who are interested in sports choose the event they want among various events in public sports clubs centred on the community outside of school, where there are various age groups, so they set the event, age, and level and enjoy sports at low cost. At first, they start exercising at the lowest level, but after one or two years, they will eventually move

up to the advanced level. I wanted a system like this that hopefully grows them into elites (Interviewee 7).

The government has been nurturing the current Public Sports Clubs, a comprehensive sports club that started in 2014 to increase the public's participation in sports activities, expand the sports base, and overcome the limitations of the existing sports system, and is expanding nationwide. However, it is still not settled and various problems continue. The first problem that has been pointed out is the self-sustaining problem that has been continuously happening since the start of Public Sports Clubs. In this regard, Interviewee 10 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Evaluator) and 14 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Consultant) stated as follows.

Currently, the Ministry of Culture and Sports is taking the initiative in supporting this project. The government has supported all the clubs and is trying to induce them. So next year, up to 100 will be made. But this seems to be the limit. The number of local governments which voluntarily participate in sports club public offerings is getting smaller, and the level of clubs' internal capabilities is also declining. From now on, it is necessary that the local sports associations actively participate. In fact, about half of the clubs are self-reliant, which is characteristic of areas with a larger population. They have many registered members. However, other places are not self-reliant due to their smaller populations (Interviewee 10).

Actually, there are no clubs that have grown that one club can cover an entire city, country, or district. Actually, if you think about it, the minimum number of people of a facility that can be balanced after the third year is actually 700. So, if you look at a club that is operated at the level of nurturing athletes to a certain extent while running events with more than 700 people, little bit more than half of them are doing well and half are just surviving (Interviewee 14).

According to the KSOC (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee)'s "2019 Public Sports Club Performance Evaluation" report, 47.2% (25) of 53 clubs received an evaluation of 70 points or less, which was considered as needing improvement in membership, financial independence, and various program operations in 2019. In particular, the financial independence rate was low with an average of 54.3% (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2019b). It is the membership fee that accounts for the absolute share of public sports clubs' finances, and due to the low enrollment and 30-40% cheaper membership fees compared to private clubs, it is difficult for them to fully become independent and not needing government support. Therefore, it is urgent to prepare measures to secure external subsidies along with

efforts to increase the proportion of their own income. The second problem is the lack of connectivity between public sports clubs and City/County/District Sports Association – the related institutions or organizations. Regarding this, Interviewee 10 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Evaluator) and 14 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Consultant) stated as follows.

From the upper level of the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee to City/County Sports Association, City/County/District Sports Association, and the lowest level organization, public sports clubs, there is an organizational structure like this, but there is no management system except for those organizations that actually support the finances. For example, there is no system in place to systematically report public sports clubs' membership structure, events, and leaders to City/County/District Sports Association. So, I think the biggest problem is that it's disconnected in all aspects. I think it's a problem that we can't connect (Interviewee 10).

When the government said it would distribute public sports clubs through City/County/District Sports Association or Sports Association, there's less than 1% chance that public sports clubs would know that there are such projects. We're really interested in it. Unless you're a person who frequents the Ministry of Culture and Sports or the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee websites, you can't really know because the information doesn't flow down. It is not a structure that can go down because it is cut off. So, they praise themselves that there are 100 public sports clubs now, but actually, the general public doesn't know that either. We don't know. Neither the local governments nor the City/County/District Sports Association publicize the public sports clubs to the citizens. It is urgent to establish a system that can connect even down to the grassroots (Interviewee 14).

Unlike previous sports club projects, public sports clubs have been incorporated and funded by the Republic of Korea's government for three years. After three years, sports clubs have been allowed to operate independently, but need financial support from local governments and operational support from City/County/District Sports Association (Lee, 2018). Therefore, the connectivity between the City/County/District Sports Association and public sports clubs is essential, but various problems are occurring. First, conflicts arise because there are cases since some projects are overlapping. Also, since City/County/District Sports Association have been focusing on elite sports projects, it is far from the local grassroots sports site, and conflicts have arisen as local governments preferred to entrust the grassroots sports project to public sports clubs rather than the City/County/Sports Association. Ahn (2018) reported the interview with the chairman of the National Sports Club Association as follows.

In order for [public] sports clubs to be activated, City/District Sports Association, and City/County/District Sports Association, including local governments, need to clearly distinguish their roles. There is a lot of confusion due to the lack of understanding of sports clubs by the people in charge of each related organization. The existing sports system officials may consider [public] sports clubs as a threat. They do not seem to be happy with the situation in which the existing sports order is shaken and change is required. To minimize confusion in the field, policy authorities should present specific and mid- to long-term public sports club roadmaps.

After all, how to reconcile the relationship between community sports club and associations is the key. In other words, it was suggested that the creation of a system in which the benefits of one organization's growth would be key to increasing the contribution of the two organizations to the region through transferring the benefits to another organization in the future. Lastly, the lack of professional leaders was also pointed out as a problem. The role of the leader is important for the vitality of the club. According to the "Basic Study for a Successful Sports Club Operation Model" published in 2017 by the Korea Institute of Sports Science (2017), leaders must have good competencies, have abundant knowledge related to the event, and have attitudes and behaviours of sports that are suitable for the clubs. Interviewees 10 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Evaluator) stated the following regarding the causes of sports club activation.

Now it has to be changed to clubs, but there are actually few students who learned something right during school physical education - almost none. I heard that there are school sports clubs now, but few of them have been lucky enough to have gotten good teachers, and they just play ball, basketball, and football at most school sports clubs. Without proper guidance, there is no opportunity to develop professionalism for the event. If there are professional leaders at school sports clubs or public sports clubs, and students can learn sports professionally and receive benefits to encourage their interests, I think there will be chances that students can grow even at the grassroots level (Interviewee 10).

Sports clubs need to provide various levels of leadership and training programs to help members enjoy sports and physical activities at different levels and needs, and to systematically and efficiently improve their performance and skills (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019a). However, it is not their competence that has emerged as a problem with sports club leaders, but the supply and demand of leaders, and there are differences depending on regional characteristics. For example, in the case of Osan Sports Club located in Gyeonggi-do and Mapo Sports Club located in Seoul, the supply and demand of leaders is

not a problem at all, but on the contrary, in the case of the Seogwipo Sports Club located on Jeju Island, it was investigated that it is quite difficult to get leaders (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2017d). In addition, the problem of wages is also related to the financial independence of sports clubs, and if the ratio of personnel expenses over sports club profits increases, the increase in the number of leaders leads to an operational burden, and ultimately the quality of leaders cannot be guaranteed (Nam et al., 2019). The Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (2018) reported in its 2018 "National Grassroots Sports Promotion Master Plan" that the wages and allowances of leaders is poor, and that job motivation and satisfaction remain low due to job insecurity. Therefore, it was emphasized that these areas should also be improved for the vitalization of sports clubs.

#### 7.2.2.3. The problem with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: a lack of connection between measurement and exercise

The National Fitness 100 Policy Project aims to motivate participation in grassroots sports through individual fitness diagnosis and customized exercise prescription for citizens for teenagers over 13 years old and adults below 65 years and to contribute to public health promotion by providing a scientific fitness management program (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020). The background of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's is accessible from two aspects. The first aspect is to meet the people's demand for a systematic fitness management. A survey on the needs of the people for systematic fitness management was first launched in 2006 based on the 'survey of People's Participation in Grassroots sports'. According to the results, 74.8% of the participants were found to need fitness management, but only 10.5% of participants received needed fitness management. On the other hand, 72.4% of the participants were surveyed that they were willing to participate in fitness management (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2006). These results became an opportunity to introduce the National Fitness 100 Policy Project (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2014). The second aspect is that the National Fitness 100 Policy Project was promoted for the purpose of increasing the grassroots sports participation rate and improving the level of fitness in proportion to the expansion of sports promotion projects and increase the budget input by the Republic of Korea's government (Ministry of Culture Sport



and Tourism (MCST), 2010). At the time when the National Fitness 100 Policy Project promotion was discussed, the government budget for the grassroots sports sector was prox. 130 million pound in 2009 and prox. 166 million pounds in 2010, prox. 184 million pounds in 2011, and prox. 197 million pounds in 2012, showing a steady increase (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2016ca). Nevertheless, the participation rate of grassroots sports more than twice a week was 34.2% in 2008, 41.5% in 2010, and 35% in 2012, without an increasing trend, and the level of fitness of the people also continued to decrease (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2013b). As a result, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project was promoted to meet the public's demand for systematic fitness management and to promote continuous participation, as well as practical fitness and health promotion by providing customized exercise prescription programs and encouraging grassroots sports participation (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2014; Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2013a). Regarding the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, Interviewee 1 (25th September 2019, MCST official) testified as follows.

We need to provide programs that are appropriate according to age and fitness condition, such as developing and distributing programs for girls or providing programs for older people. ... Then, we need to manage scientific fitness. ... For example, if you have a bad back, you can't do that, you can't exercise to enhance fitness. ... In addition, a fitness system that allows you to manage fitness according to your age, and a project that scientifically manages fitness is called the National Physical Strength 100. It measures fitness and gives weak people a separate program for 8 weeks. And we measure fitness and issue a fitness certification. ... Then you exercise the 8-week program so you can manage your fitness. There are a few fitness 100 centres across the country right now, about 50, and now we're planning to increase the number (Interviewee 1).

Starting with prox. £189,430 in funding in 2010, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's support increased every year, and in 2018, it increased by about £631,43 compared to 2017 to about prox. £5,682,901. Except for 2011 and 2016, the early stages of the project, the subsidies increased by more than about £631,433 each year.

In addition, the company started piloting the Fitness Certification Project in four locations in 2011 and currently operates 75 locations as of 2021. Table 7.8 shows the specific status of National Fitness 100 Policy Project's annual support amount and the number of centres.

Table 7. 8 Current Status of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's Annual Support and Number of Centres (*unit: proximately. million pound*)

Criteria/Year	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2021
Support Amount	0.2	0.3	1.3	2.3	3.5	4.3	4.4	5.1	5.7	
Number of Centres		4	4	14	21	26	32	28	43	75

Source: Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (2020); National Sports Promotion Corporation (2021)

By promoting the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, the goal was to diagnose the fitness of the people and to improve the health of the people by prescribing exercise programs for weak participants. However, during the 10-year period starting in 2010, various problems were found, specifically: 1) the lack of facilities, 2) limitations of accessibility, and 3) the lack of connectivity with public sports clubs.

First, 75 locations nationwide fall far short of reflecting the needs of the introduction of the national fitness certification centre, and the lack of certification centres allows limited access to people to receive national fitness management services. As shown in Table 7-8, the number of certification centres is increasing every year, but in 2017 there were 28 centres, less than half of the 68 planned by the government at the beginning of the project. Currently, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project is a process in which a participant first completes the fitness test at the fitness certification centre and then proceed with the exercise program prescribed by the fitness improvement class. The number of people who received fitness certification at the fitness certification centre increased from 4,583 in 2011 to 258,429 in 2018, and the number of people who participated in the exercise program conducted in the fitness improvement class also increased every year from 1,250 in 2012 to 10,759 in 2018 (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020). However, despite the continuous expansion of the fitness certification centre, the establishment of business infrastructure for all citizens is insufficient, and the majority of the public are unaware of the existence of the policy project itself. The accurate annual number of participants in the National Fitness 100 Policy Project is shown in Table 7.9.

**Table 7. 9** The Number of participants in the National Fitness 100 Fitness Certification and Fitness Improvement Class (*Unit: person*)

Criteria	Total	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Number of participants in fitness certification	913,887	4,583	12,216	56,104	86,887	122,739	161,122	211,807	258,429
Number of participants in and fitness improvement class	47,902	-	1,250	4,257	6,167	8,413	7,564	9,492	10,759

Source: National Sports Promotion Corporation (2021)

According to Table 7.9, the population of the Republic of Korea in 2018 was 51,826,059 and the number of visitors to the fitness certification centre was 258,429 (0.49%), a shameful level to call it a project for all people. In addition, the re-participation rate of the fitness certification centre, a measure of continuous fitness management, was 31% in 2017, and the number of participants in the fitness improvement class after receiving an exercise prescription was only about 5% of the total number of participants (Korea Sports Promotion Foundation, 2018). In contrast, the participants in the fitness certification centre and the preference for the fitness improvement class was 50.2%, a high level (Kim, 2019).

Second, the Republic of Korea's government's initial plan for the National Fitness 100 Policy Project was to provide health-integrated care services such as medical, nutrition, and fitness, but it did not show a perfect performance by focusing on quantitative growth such as simple fitness measurements, customized exercise prescription operations, and expansion of the number of people. Anyone who wants to participate in the National Fitness 100 Policy Project can apply through the website of the base centre in their area of residence, by phone, or in person, and measure their fitness by visiting the centre. After the fitness measurement is made, personalized exercise programs are prescribed through consultation with experts based on the results of their fitness evaluation, and the prescribed programs are provided in prints and videos on websites (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020). However, the prescribed exercise program is simple, such as stretching, circulatory exercises by part, and cooling-down, which may reduce participants' interest in the long run. Such exercise programs did not require participation in the fitness improvement class because they could

be done at home. As such, the government has yet to provide conditions for its continued participation in the program, which is a precondition for systematic fitness management.

Third, there is no connectivity between the National Fitness 100 Policy Project and grassroots sports. In this regard, interviewees 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 10 (26th September 2019, Sport Policy Evaluator) stated as follows.

The National Fitness 100 may be a good indicator to measure basic fitness, but the problem is that is all. The National Fitness 100 could serve as a point of contact between citizens and public sports clubs. Measure your own fitness, and if you know your body condition, you should exercise to improve it. So, go to public sports clubs or go to event clubs. I mean, one of the purposes of the National Fitness 100 is to make people think that they need get into sports and do sports that suit them. To do that, they have to recommend exercises that suit people, not just simply measure their body conditions. However, that didn't happen (Interviewee 5).

It's called the National Fitness 100. There are currently 75 across the country, and this is a problem now. After measuring fitness. After receiving the investment [from the government], they just measured, and that's it. This doesn't make sense. Then to promote the legitimacy and scalability of National Fitness 100, people need to know what level of fitness they have. After measuring fitness, in conjunction with public sports clubs, a system that enables sports that can increase fitness must be established. But there is no such connection at all (Interviewee 10).

As such, it is pointed out that there is a limit to increasing grassroots sports participation in the National Fitness 100 Project due to the lack of connectivity with public sports clubs. Jeon et al. (2015) argues that there is no system for continuous health care in conjunction with the grassroots sports program for participants in fitness certification centre. In addition, it criticized the limitation of the expansion of facilities, programs, and leadership through the connectivity between city, country, district grassroots sports and public sports clubs. Choi (2019) said that the connection between the National Fitness 100 Project and medical institutions supports sports that match the health condition of participants in the fitness certification centre and connecting with public sports clubs can establish a virtuous cycle of fitness measurement, sports prescription, and grassroots sports participation. However, Choi (2019) criticized that it currently lacks any connection with public sports clubs as well as medical institutions. These various problems were discovered, indicating that there was a limit to contributing to the promotion of national health by providing sports prescriptions tailored to individuals who were the objective of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project

through fitness diagnosis, promoting their participation in grassroots sports, and disseminating scientific fitness management programs (Saejong Park et al., 2014; Misuk Kim, 2013; Y. Kim, 2019).

#### **7.4. Conclusion**

So far, this researcher has analysed the problems of grassroots sports and confirmed the reason why it is difficult to change grassroots sports and the problems with the grassroots sports support project in spite of the government's positive attempts. First, as problems for expanding bases in grassroots sports, the lack of sports facilities, problems related to sports club members and lack of youths' participation in sports were found. Starting with the hosting of the 1986 Seoul Asian Games and the 1988 Seoul Olympics, the government began to pay closer attention to the promotion of grassroots sports along with intensive investment in elite sports at the time. As a result, the government enacted the 'National Grassroots Sports Promotion Act' and began to improve the conditions for people to participate in grassroots sports. However, contrary to the government's intention, public sports facilities were still found to be insufficient, and facilities in living areas such as swimming pools and gymnasiums were insufficient. In addition, although the Korean government announced the 'Living SOC 3-Year Plan' in 2019 to plan and promote the supply of more indoor sports facilities and outdoor sports facilities such as baseball diamonds and soccer fields, which is a project that must be carried out simultaneously nationwide, it can be confirmed that the demand of each region is not properly identified and even discussions on legislation are not actively progressing. Second, grassroots sports clubs were created to promote grassroots sports as organisations with participation autonomy, the openness of organisation, independent operation according to certain bylaws and an active attitude toward a common purpose and cooperation. However, since most organisations were centred on adult men, it was difficult for youth and seniors to participate, sports facilities were monopolised and they had a social structure without professional guidance, which was pointed out as being different from the direction the government pursued. Finally, it was found that youth's participation in sports ranked the lowest in the world due to the entrance exam-oriented living environment and the lack of interest in sports. This variety of reasons was found to be the problem for expanding the base

of grassroots sports.

Second, there are various grassroots sports support projects that the government has implemented but which have had various problems. First, the Korean government recognised the need for the vitalisations of grassroots sports due to the unbalanced development of elite sports and grassroots sports and continuously introduced and promoted the developed country-type sports club system since 2005 to improve this problem. However, these projects showed limitations and failed, as they had been promoted as short-term pilot projects, resulting in insufficient time for clubs to build a foundation for self-reliance. Additionally, the lack of financial support from the government and local governments exacerbated the burden of personnel costs, problems with supply and demand for leaders and the maintenance of facilities. In addition, they failed to secure multi-age and multi-level members leading to the failure of support projects. The Public Sports Clubs Support Project, which has been promoted since 2014, is a long-term project that complements the existing limitations. However, it was also confirmed that the problem of self-reliance was not supplemented due to difficulty in the supply and demand of members, the operation of limited programmes, low self-income structure and securement of external subsidies. In addition, it was found that there was no connection with the local sports associations, and the absence of professional leaders was also pointed out as a problem without being properly addressed. Finally, the support project was the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, which is also a project that diagnoses individual's physical strength and provides customised exercise prescriptions for the purpose of promoting national health. However, it has been 10 years since the project started, and only 75 locations are operated nationwide as of 2021, and the number of participants is 258,429 (0.5% of the population). The facilities are insufficient, and the accessibility for local residents is limited due to the insufficient facilities. It has also been confirmed that most of the residents do not have any information about this policy project and are unaware of its existence. In addition, it was confirmed that the customised exercise programme provided after the participant's physical fitness test was simple, not providing motivation to participate, and unlike the purpose of the project, it was not linked to public sports clubs at all.

As such, the government is making efforts in various ways for the development of elite sports and the balanced development of grassroots sports and is promoting various projects, but the

results are not good enough due to the government's insufficient support in grassroots sports compared to elite sports support, as proven by the participation rate of the people in grassroots sports. To improve these problems, the policies of the UK, Australia and Norway are reviewed, and the policies that can be improved are proposed by benchmarking them, which will be discussed in Chapter 9. In the next chapter, the results of analysing the limitations of Korean sports organisations will be presented.

## **8. Limitations of Korean Sports Governing Bodies**

### **8.1. Introduction**

In this chapter, the limitations of South Korean sports governing bodies were found after reviewing and analysing interview data with entities who have been closely involved in Sports governing bodies such as lawmakers, the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (MCST) officials, Policy researchers at the Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC) officials, government documents, and previous studies which were presented to identify the negative issues of Korean sports governing bodies.

As a result of analysing the limitations of Korean sports governing bodies in this study, the main themes found were: 1) Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), 2) the KSOC's preference for elite sports, 3) the lack of cooperation between government ministries, and 4) the adhesion to school connections and regionalism.

First, the Korean government, that is, the MCST and the Korean National Assembly, has continued to promote the separation of the KSOC and the Korea NOC, but KSOC officials have strongly opposed it. This was a refusal of the government's management and supervision using the KSOC's elite-centric structure due to the concentration of international sports competition, the government's financial subordination structure, or the independence of the NOC as a shield, which was discussed in Section 8.2. Second, this research found various limitations with the KSOC's continued preference for elite sports. It was expected that the sports system would develop in a balanced way through the integration of the KSOC and the Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA), but a problem was pointed out that the budget was still concentrated on elite sports, and it has been found that various competitions are also divided into elite sports and grassroots sports and projects operated by the KSOC are also operated separately, which was discussed in Section 8.3. Third, a limitation discovered due to the lack of cooperation between government ministries, that is, non-cooperation between the Ministry of Education (MofE) and the MCST, was especially confirmed in Korean physical education (PE) and school sports (SS). The MofE tried various policies to revitalise PE and SS



to no avail due to limitations such as a lack of sports facilities and equipment, the poverty of various sports and programs, and a lack of professionalism of sports leaders. Accordingly, various sports experts pointed out the problem that the necessity of linkage with the MCST was continuously proposed, but it was not achieved. This was discussed in Section 8.4. Lastly, this research found various problems that occurred in Korean sports governing bodies due to the fixation of school relations and regionalism.

## **8.2. Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC): The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) and the KSOC**

In 2016, the KSOC presented an organisational vision to promote grassroots sports and nurture elite sports based on grassroots sports after being integrated with the KCSA. However, despite its voluntary external promises, the KSOC has not changed in terms of specific policies and project implementation and governing body operation, and the Korean government judged that it is difficult to expect the existing elitist sports paradigm to be shifted to a paradigm based on the 'Sports for All' principle in a situation where the Korea NOC is integrated with the KSOC. As a result, the MCST and the National Assembly have continuously pushed for the separation of the KSOC from the Korea NOC, but the KSOC stakeholders have protested, criticising that it amplifies the anxiety and distrust of the national sports policy and promotes conflicts and divisions among sportsmen that is detrimental to Korea's elite sports. The KSOC delegates also issued resolutions against this (Kim, 2020). The following interviews with also mentioned that the positions of the two sides remain at a close parallel.

The MCST argues that the Korea NOC should be separated to strengthen autonomy and professionalism in international sports, and the KSOC, where public funds are invested, argues that it is necessary to secure appropriate responsibility and public awareness. Due to their different nature, they pursued separation [of the Korea NOC and KSOC]. However, the KSOC is afraid of losing its authority and status if it is separated from [the Korean] NOC. Besides, they claim that the separation could lead to the weakening of Korean elite sports. Therefore, they actively oppose the government's position (Interviewee 5, 1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher).

If the KSOC and the Korea NOC are connected, the KSOC has no choice but to become elite-oriented. This has been shown so far. So, the Korean government is trying to

separate them. Actually, the only thing in the KSOC people's minds is the Olympics. For them [the KSOC officials], it's not a matter of winning or not winning medals but the value of the Olympics and the work related to the Olympics. They want to train national sportsmen, work where hero stories representing the country are created, and do not want to work in general competition at the grassroots base. They [the KSOC people] over-synchronise as if they themselves are the national team members. Whatever role they play, they just have to find meaning in the role itself. Therefore, they object, saying that separating the Korea NOC will destroy elite sports. It seems like only they [the KSOC] should do this [Olympic-related work]. The truth is, elite sports are not in decline, but they [the KSOC] are changing their roles (Interviewee 12, 14th October 2019, Professor in Sport Policy major).

In fact, the central task of the KSOC is related to international competitions, namely the winter/summer Olympics and the winter/summer Asian Games, and for this reason, the administration of various human, material, and financial resources has no choice but to be concentrated on elite sportsmen, especially national sportsmen. For example, in 2019, the KSOC's grassroots sports division had 31 employees, accounting for about 14% of the total, while 103 employees, 44.6% of the total employees, were deployed to the Jincheon National Training Centre (Korean Sports Innovation Committee, 2019a). Therefore, the Korean government decided that the KSOC would maintain the existing elite sports system structurally and pointed out the need for a change in the KSOC.

In 2019, the MCST formed the Sports Innovation Committee, announced restructuring recommendations for the advancement of Korean sports organisations, and emphasised the need for separation between the KSOC and the Korea NOC in the core content of these recommendations. In response, the KSOC issued a statement against the Sports Innovation Committee's recommendations, arguing that the current integrated organisation was appropriate and that separation was impossible (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2019ca). The claims of the Sports Innovation Committee and the KSOC are mixed, and the claims of the two organisations are summarised in Table 8.1.

Table 8. 1 Comparison Table of Claims between the Sports Innovation Committee and the KSOC

Criteria	Sports Innovation Committee	KSOC
Claims	Recommendation for separation of the KSOC and Korean Olympic Committee	Separation of the KSOC and Korea NOC is impossible (maintain as is now)

Core content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- (Insufficient balanced development) The operation of the integrated organisation has not achieved the balanced development of grassroots sports and elite sports</li> <li>- (Passive public responsibility) Under the pretext of guaranteeing independence and autonomy, the NOC is passive in carrying out public responsibilities as a representative organisation and public institution in Korean sports.</li> <li>- (Operation method problem) Inability to deviate from the existing sports association operation method centred on the Olympics and the elites</li> <li>- (Lack of expertise) Lack of expertise in international sports activities as a national Olympic organisation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- (Violation of the IOC Charter) The IOC Charter states that the KSOC shall maintain political and legal autonomy</li> <li>- (Recommend a non-democratic method) The idea of revising the law without sufficient discussion with internal members (delegates) of the KSOC is extremely undemocratic. By issuing recommendations through meetings for only five months, it has not collected sufficient opinions from athletes.</li> <li>- (Premature) It says that there were no results after three years of integration, which proves problems in the separation claim and procedure of integration.</li> </ul>
--------------	--	--

Source: KSOC (2019ca); Sports Innovation Committee (2019a)

As shown in Table 8.1, the Sports Innovation Committee is claiming separation for reasons such as a deficit of balanced development, passive collective responsibility, operational management issues, and a lack of expertise, while the KSOC opposes the separation from the Korea NOC for reasons such as violating the IOC Charter, the undemocratic method of recommendation by the Sports Innovation Committee, and prematurity (Korean Sports Innovation Committee, 2019a; Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2019ca).

In addition, the Sports Innovation Committee (2019a) refutes the violation of the IOC Charter claimed by the KSOC. Looking at the IOC Charter (2017:61), Article 27 Paragraph 6 (Mission and role of the NOC) stipulates as follows:

The NOCs must preserve their autonomy and resist all pressures of any kind, including but not limited to political, legal, religious, or economic pressures which may prevent them from complying with the Olympic Charter.

As presented in the IOC Charter, the NOC must be free, independent, and impartial to any pressure, including political, legal, and economic pressures. However, this guarantees the autonomy and independence of the NOC, which is not related to the general sports policy of individual countries. To this end, the NOC must first have high financial independence and a

low government subsidy rate. On the other hand, Article 2, Paragraph 3 of the Articles of Incorporation of the KSOC provides the same provisions as Article 27, Paragraph 6 of the IOC Charter; however, it lacks the foundation for self-reliance and is receiving budget support from the Korean government, rendering it in a situation in which it cannot be free and independent (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021c). Interviewee 6 (2nd October 2019, KISS policy researcher) pointed out this as follow.

The KSOC is a public governing body under the [Korean] MCST and receives government financial support. However, the problem is that the KSOC receives a budget of about £247 million (97% of its total annual budget) from the [Korean] government and tells them not to supervise them. The KSOC is a governing body that has merged with the [Korean] NOC, and it is a violation of IOC regulations for the state to intervene according to the IOC's charter (Interviewee 6).

In addition to this, Article 4 of the Act on the Management of Public Institutions (Management of Public Institutions Act, 2020) stipulates that institutions with government subsidies equal to or more than half of the total budget may be designated as quasi-governmental organisations. The KSOC, which receives almost its entire budget from the Korean government, is a quasi-governmental organisation and is subject to the management and supervision of the Ministry of Strategy and Finance and the MCST for its budget, settlement of accounts, and institutional evaluation (Jang, 2019). In addition, according to Article 51 of the Articles of Incorporation (2021b), the KSOC is required to undergo consultations and adjustments with the competent ministries in the process of budgeting, and it must also report the settlement of accounts. However, the Sports Innovation Committee (2019a) pointed out that in reality, the KSOC formally responds to or avoids the government's management and supervision for reasons of Korea NOC autonomy and the specificity of other public institutions and that it is abusing the ICO constitution. For this reason, the Korean government recommended the separation of the Korea NOC and the KSOC.

Additionally, the low financial independence of the KSOC has resulted in about £247 million of subsidies from the MCST every year, which has resulted in the structure in which the KSOC is obligated to receive supervision from the government.

Table 8. 2 2018 KSOC Budget Status

Year	Total budget (A)	Finance Type					Own Budget (B/A)*100(%)
		Government Subsidies	Korean Sports Promotion Foundation	Public Interest Project Reserve	Other Subsidies	Own Income (B)	
2018	£202 mil.	-	£190 mil.	-	£0.2 mil.	£12mil.	6.05(%)

Source: MCST (2020a)

As shown in Table 8.2, the total budget of the KSOC in 2018 was about £202 million, composed of about £190 million (93.8%) from the National Sports Promotion Fund and £0.2 million (0.14%) from other subsidies, both accounting for 93.94% of the total budget ratio, while its own budget was about £12 million, accounting for 6.05%. On the other hand, looking at the cases of advanced sports countries, it was confirmed that the financial independence of each country's NOC was remarkably high, unlike the KSOC's. For example, in the United States Australia and the United Kingdom, the NOC is independent; they are 100% self-supporting associations without annual funding from the government; in Japan, the NOC gets support for 44.5% of their total budget, respectively, from the government (Team GB, 2021; Shon, 2017; Min, 2020).

Despite this structure of financial subordination, the KSOC has refused management and supervision by the Korean government, using the independence of the Korea NOC as a shield whenever problems arise due to the governing body's related tasks or activities. Although the KSOC is a public governing body that relies on state subsidies for most of its budget, the MCST has continued attempting to avoid the government's supervision by establishing a KSOC-centred article of association, which led to the government criticising the dual nature of the KSOC (J. Lim, 2019).

Accordingly, the government-led Sports Innovation Committee (2019a) argued that the repeated attempts by the KSOC to evade responsibility had greatly undermined the autonomy and public nature of the Korea NOC, and the range of conflicts intensified. Interviewees 3 (20th September 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 6 (2nd October 2019, KISS policy researcher) said that the KSOC is an institution that should be managed by the government.

Most of the KSOC's budget is received from the government and must be managed by the government. Also, the KSOC is an organisation that merged with the [Korea] NOC and refuses to be managed, saying that it is a violation of IOC regulations for

the state to intervene under the IOC Charter. However, when the KSOC executes the budget received from the [Korean] government, it is only natural that it must receive government approval. Because, in the Public Organisation Operation Act, it is stipulated that the budget received from the [public governing bodies in the [Korean] government and the budget execution status must be disclosed (Interviewee 3).

They [the KSOC] ask to be excluded from the application of the law, saying that they are also the Korea NOC. It doesn't make sense to say that they don't receive management from the [Korean] government while receiving the governing body's operating expenses from them [the Korean government]. So, the [Korean] government said that they [the Korean government] would rather separate them [the KSOC and Korea NOC] and do the same as the Korea NOC, and the [Korean] government would control the domestic projects and projects carried out by the KSOC like other public governing bodies. However, the KSOC is strongly opposed to this (Interviewee 6).

In such a situation where the KSOC is highly dependent on the government for its finances, the conflicts between the MCST and the KSOC have persisted for a long time by emphasising the independence of the Korea NOC, avoiding supervision from the government, and attempting to indemnify matters pointed out in administrative audits, etc. To solve this problem, the separation of the KSOC and the Korea NOC must be completed, and the financial structure must also pursue change in a form similar to that of developed countries. In this regard, specific reform measures will be discussed in Chapter 9.

### **8.3. The KSOC, Maintaining Elite Sports Preference: Neglecting Grassroots Sports Support**

The Korean government expected that the integration of the KSOC and the KCSA would contribute to the establishment of a virtuous-cycle sports system and the balanced development of elite sports and grassroots sports. Accordingly, discussions on integration have been steadily conducted since 2000, and as a result, they were finally integrated on 8<sup>th</sup> of April 2016, as the newly launched KSOC. However, contrary to the government's intention, even after the integration with the KCSA, the KSOC has been relatively negligent in the area of grassroots sports compared to the Olympics and elite sports as well as the linkage between elite sports and grassroots sports (Seong and Oh, 2017). In particular, the KSOC maintained the projects that had been carried out in each governing body without change even after

integration. Interviewees 2 (1st October 2019, KSOC official) and 3 (20th September 2019, KISS policy researcher) also pointed out the unchanging projects and stated that even the budget supported by the KSOC is concentrated on elite sports as before.

[The Korean] government-level governing bodies [the KSOC and KCSA] integrated. But they [elite sports and grassroots sports] are not yet linked. The association has become integrated, but the problem is that the work of the employees remains unchanged. The personnel in charge of elite sports and grassroots sports are different, so they have to cooperate, but it doesn't work. In fact, according to the plan, there should be more work related to the grassroots project, and the elite sports project and the grassroots sports project are still in operation without change. Honestly, I think only the governing bodies' names have changed (Interviewee 2).

Before the integration, the grassroots sports budget supported by the KSOC was close to about £62 million, and the elite sports budget was doubled to about £124 million, but after the integration, the budget difference seems to be unchanged. Looking at the sports White Paper, there is no big change in elite sports projects or grassroots sports projects. Grassroots sports carry out the same projects as they did, and budgets and projects generally focus more on elite sports due to steady domestic and international competitions every year (Interviewee 3).

The MCST (2016a) predicted that the integration of the KSOC would increase not only the governing body's integration of two associations but also the creation of synergy between elite and grassroots sports projects by establishing efficient and systematic governance, thereby increasing grassroots sports projects. In addition, it was expected that various projects that had been implemented independently would be gradually integrated and operated at a time when they had been separated into the KSOC and the KCSA in the past (Lee, 2010). However, currently, the KSOC has held various competitions by dividing them into competitions for elite athletes and competitions for grassroots athletes, and most sportsmen nurturing and support projects have focused on elite sports rather than grassroots sports. It was pointed out that the athletes registration system is also divided into elite athletes and grassroots athletes by the KSOC, which is causing a situation in which elite sports competition and grassroots sports competition by an event are inevitably divided like they were before the sports associations' integration (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019a). Table 8.3 shows the number of competitions conducted by the KSOC before and after integration in 2016.

Table 8. 3 Comparison of the Nr. of Competitions Related to Elite and Grassroots Sports

	2015	2016	2017	2018
No. of competitions related to elite sports	495	391	327	356
No. of competitions related to grassroots sports	81	73	64	67

Source: MCST (2020); KSOC (2021d)

As presented in Table 8-3, it was confirmed that the number of competitions related to elite sports and grassroots sports decreased after integration compared to before integration, but it still shows that the number of competitions related to elite sports is significantly higher than that of competitions related to grassroots sports. The Sports Innovation Committee (2019a) expressed concern that if the KSOC continues to maintain such a situation, the basic purpose of integration for nurturing elite athletes under grassroots sports may become difficult to achieve. In addition, it was confirmed that there was no true connectivity or integrated competition between elite sports and grassroots sports at that time in 2018 (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020).

On the other hand, the proposal for the integration of elite sports competition and grassroots sports competition had been raised before the integration of the KSOC. Park (2012) discussed the problems of national sports competition and national grassroots sports festivals and argued that the integrated operation of both competitions is necessary for the joint development of both elite and grassroots sports. He requested that the cooperative relationship between elite and grassroots sports be strengthened, pointing out problems such as the perception that national sports competitions are for sportsmen and not the public's interest, causing a range of emotions within the various regions between the attempts that were made and the indifference of the public and media for the national grassroots sports festivals' comparatively lower level of competition. However, at present, the two types of competitions (elite and grassroots) are still conducted separately, and it is difficult to find the will to actively integrate them (Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS), 2020).

It can be easily confirmed that the project supported by the KSOC is being operated separately. If you look at the 'Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project', it can be seen that only elite athletes are supported as before integration. Interviewee 7 (28th September 2019, KSOC official) critically evaluated the Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project in progress by the KSOC.



In fact, in order to grow grassroots sports after integration, you have to develop and encourage new projects related to grassroots sports, connect with elite sports-related projects, or operate by integration. They are not doing it at all. For example, if you look at the Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project, they only work with student athletes. Aren't there athletes who have the qualities to become dream trees Athletes among ordinary students? However, they're doing it with only elite athletes (Interviewee 7).

The Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project is a project that started in 1993 and aims to nurture the next-generation national representative and candidate elite athletes who will represent Korea through systematic support as well as continuous training and management by the early discovering of excellent elite athletes and Olympic prospects (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021e). The project outline of the Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project announced in 2021 is shown in Table 8-4.

Table 8. 4 2021 Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project Brief

Criteria	Details
Project target	22 events including athletics, swimming, and gymnastics
Age	7-14 years old
Project scale	1,046 (846 athletes, 149 leaders, 51 dedicated COVID-19 management personnel)
Athletes selection process	- Objective evaluation criteria for each event (competition award results, records, etc.) for the 2021 Dream Tree athletes - Judgment and recommendation by events association (game performance improvement committee, etc.)
Budget	- £3,318,335
3 years performances	- 2018: £3,095,549 - 2019: £3,318,335 - 2020: £3,318,335

Source: KSOC (2021e)

As shown in Table 8-4, the Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project is currently conducting projects for 22 events including basic events such as athletics, gymnastics, and swimming. The athlete selection process consists of a total of 4 stages based on the performance and record of winning competitions. Stage 1 is the recommendation course, in which sports leaders (sports teachers, sports organisation coaches, sports club leaders, etc.)

recommend candidates to the city and provincial associations of the event and to member event organisations through evaluation stages. Stage 2 is the selection process, in which the member event organisation for each event selects candidates within the range of 2-2.5 times. Stage 3 is a measurement and evaluation process, in which the KISS measures the athlete's performance through basic tests, precise tests, and psychological tests based on the physique and physical strength test and then calculates and evaluates the overall score (standard scores and weighted scores by event, age, evaluation item, etc.). The last stage, stage 4, is the final selection process, in which the Dream Tree Athlete selection committee for each event finally decides upon the Dream Tree Athlete for the event, and the Selection Committee for each event makes the final selection based on athlete evaluation (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020; Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021e). As such, if you look at the athlete selection process of the Dream Tree Athletes Nurturing Project, you can see that the performance and record of winning the competition are important reference points. In addition, it proves that this standard excludes non-student athletes and only KSOC-registered student-athletes can meet.

#### **8.4. Lack of Cooperation between Government Ministries: Non-cooperation between the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (MCST) and the Ministry of Education (MofE)**

The birth of a newly integrated KSOC to solve the problem of inefficiency and conflicts due to the separate operation of elite sports and grassroots sports was expected to bring great changes to PE and SS, especially school sports clubs (elite sports) and school grassroots sports, and it was also expected that various PE and SS projects, which have been supported by the MofE and the MCST, would also bring about major changes (Kim, 2016).

However, the two government ministries still support and operate elite sports as the priority, and the budget is also biased. On the other hand, the MofE had quantitatively grown various sports policies such as the school sports club, weekend league, Saturday sports day, and 1-student-1-sport, which were implemented to revitalise PE and SS, but the lack of facilities, programs, professionalism of sports leaders, etc. did not contribute to the quality of growth

(N. Kim and d. Jeong, 2016). Interviewee 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher) pointed out that the MofE has attempted various policies to activate PE and SS, but it is difficult in implementing them because they do not properly meet the necessary facilities and requirements. To solve this problem, it was emphasised that linkage with the MCST is urgently needed, but even this is not being achieved.

To revitalise PE and SS, the MofE started [policy projects] in schools such as school sports clubs, after-school sports, lunchtime sports activities, and Saturday sports days. However, we do events that are easy to do, such as football and basketball, but there are not enough schools with facilities and equipment for events other than these. What should we do? We can use sports clubs and school sports facilities in the local area. However, all facilities and clubs are managed by the KSOC and the Facility Management Corporation under the MCST. If the MofE cooperates with the MCST, it will be resolved immediately. But even though they know this, they do not cooperate because the process is complicated, while they are only talking about various problems such as safety issues, usage fees, and usage time issues. If organisations cooperate with the [MofE and MCST], PE and SS could be more active (Interviewee 5).

Seo et al. (2015) and Yoo et al. (2017) argued that poor school sports facilities and insufficient equipment were the cause of hindering students' participation in physical activities and hindering the normal operation of PE and SS through a comprehensive analysis of school sports activation policies. Since July 2001, numerous school playgrounds across the country have been reduced as the classroom expansion project has been carried out as an educational condition improvement project. Among them, some schools have reduced their playgrounds to such a large extent, rendering it difficult to carry out sports classes (Yun, 2010). An alternative to constructing a sports hall was suggested in case the school playground was reduced, but the Korean government and the local government association did not show any active interest due to financial reasons, resulting in the reduction of the sports space only (Jeon and Yoon, 2012).

In 2015, there was a growing demand for sports facilities, but no clear alternative had been found to secure sports facilities. Since the MofE repeatedly revised the sports curriculum to revitalise PE and SS, the contents of sports education became diversified and school sports club activities became mandatory as a solution to school violence and bullying problems, which have been serious educational issues. In addition, although students' desire for sports activities is increasing, and the number of students wishing to participate in school grassroots

sports programs is increasing every year, the shortage of necessary sports facilities is becoming more severe, which drops the enrolment rate every year (Heo et al., 2015). Table 8.5 shows the total number of students, number of clubs, number of students participating in the school sports clubs, and enrolment rate from 2015 to 2019.

Table 8. 5 School Sports Club Registration Status

Criteria		2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
		Male/Female combined total	Male/Female combined total	Male/Female combined total	Male/Female combined total	Male/Female combined total
Total students	Total elementary, middle, and high school	6,088,827	5,882,790	5,725,260	5,584,249	5,452,805
Total school sports clubs	Total elementary, middle, and high school	199,193	195,516	188,133	174,470	160,036
Total enrolled students	Total elementary, middle, and high school	4,090,887	3,919,778	3,734,732	3,265,341	2,794,060
Enrolment rate (%)	Total elementary, middle, and high school	67.2	66.6	65.2	58.5	51.2

Source: MofE (2020a); Jeong (2020)

As shown in Table 8.5, the school sports club enrolment rate shows a decreasing trend compared to the various tasks implemented by the MofE to revitalise the school sports club. Lee (2020) pointed out that efforts should be made to expand sports programs and facilities so that more students can engage in sports activities. To improve this, Interviewees 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 6 (2th October 2019, KISS policy researcher) argued that the Ministry of Education (MofE) and the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) should come up with a way to use public sports facilities through cooperation.

The MofE is in charge of school classes, and if it is linked to the MCST, the use of public sports facilities and dispatching of professional instructors to teach sports to students would be possible, and then students could experience various sports

events. To be honest, that's not the case (Interviewee 5).

Currently, PE classes cannot stimulate interest in sports in youths. Rather than real PE class, students just kick balls or play basketball, or female students play dodgeball. In fact, the school sports club league is perfunctory, and there are not many students who can [participate]. In the end, if the MofE can use public sports facilities in cooperation with the MCST, it would create opportunities for students to participate in various sports. Because they do not do it, the current situation persists (Interviewee 6).

According to the research report of the Korea Curriculum and Evaluation Institute in 2017, it surveyed PE-SS and regional connection (local facilities and regional sports associations) to local elementary and middle school sports teachers, and the results are shown in Table 8.6.

Table 8. 6 1) Methods or Systems in Connection with PE-SS, Local Sports Facilities, and Local Sports Associations, 2) the Perception of Local Sports facilities that Can Be Linked to PE-SS, and 3) Recognising the Need for Regional Linkage

Criteria		Not at all	No	Yes	Absolutely yes	Total
1)	Elementary school	43 (14.7%)	146 (49.8%)	93 (31.7%)	11 (3.8%)	293 (100%)
	Middle/High school	8 (10.1%)	29 (36.7%)	36 (45.6%)	6 (7.6%)	79 (100%)
2)	Total	20 (5.4%)	89 (23.9%)	216 (58.1%)	47 (12.6%)	372 (100%)
3)	Total	50 (13.5%)		322 (86.5%)		372 (100%)

Source: Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (2017)

As shown in Table 8-6, to the survey about whether local elementary and middle school sports teachers know how to link PE-SS with local sports facilities and local sports associations, 60.7% of teachers answered 'No' (13.7% not at all, 47.0% no) and 39.3% of them answered 'Yes' (34.7% yes, 4.6% absolutely yes). To the survey about whether they know about local sports facilities (pools, sports complexes, etc.) to utilise regional linkage in PE-SS, 29.3% of teachers answered 'No' (5.4% not at all, 23.9% not at all) and 70.7% of them answered 'Yes' (58.1% yes, 12.6% absolutely yes). In addition, the result of a survey on the need for PE-SS and local connection confirmed that 86.5% answered 'needed' and 13.5% answered 'not needed'. This is because school sports teachers are also aware of the need to utilise local sports facilities, which can be improved by using them. Local sports clubs and local grassroots sports facilities installed nationwide are managed by the KSOC, regional sports association, and local Facilities Management Corporation under the MCST, which necessitates the cooperation with the

MCST for MofE to secure sports facilities. However, in reality, the lack of cooperation between the two institutions continues, and the lack of sports facilities for students continues.

Also, it has been pointed out to the MofE that the variety of school PE and SS programs it implements is lacking (Choi, 2010). Interviewees 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher), 6 (2th October 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 7 (28th September 2019, KSOC official) pointed out that there are limitations in the school curriculum and school PE programmes.

In middle school, they have two hours a week as part of the regular school hours for school sports clubs. However, it is not practically effective. There aren't many sports programmes to learn. They just hand out footballs on the playground and tell students to play football (Interviewee 5).

The school asks students to choose the sports they want. But it's not a situation for that to happen. They say that school sports clubs have been activated, but there are not various sports, and they are limited to some sports such as football, basketball and dodgeball. Only a few sports events are available for students. That's why it's not fun (Interviewee 6).

They want schools to actively reflect the opinions of students when deciding sports events for school sports clubs, but in fact, this is not easy. Students want rare sports events that appear in the media rather than the obvious sports they've been doing all the time, right? But there are none (Interviewee 7).

In this way, the interviewees pointed out that the subjects and programmes that students can select are not diverse. One of the most important things in implementing school sports club activities is the selection of events that are the subject of educational activities. Looking at the revised curriculum overview from 2012-14 (Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology Notice), the events and contents of school sports club activities should reflect the students' wishes and opinions to ensure the students' choice by opening various events. However, according to a survey from the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, in determining the events of actual school sports club activities, the most preferred was 'events that can be operated according to the actual situation of the school' (66.3%), followed by 'students' hope survey for events' (23.4%), which confirmed that the opinions of the students were not sufficiently reflected due to the practical limitations of the schools (Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2012; Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2017). Kim and Jeong (2016) pointed out that when looking at the events operated by school sports

club activities, male students mainly participated in events such as football and basketball, and female students in badminton, dodge ball, jumping rope, and walking, which showed the limitation in access to various events. In addition, it appears that the MCST should actively intervene in PE and SS and cooperate so that schools can open various events, but this is not being achieved (Zae and Son, 2018). Although there are various school sports clubs such as the School Sports Club, which consists of participation activities within regular curriculum sports, the Club Sports Club before and after school, the Saturday School Sports Club, and the Free Semester Sports Club are limited to opening events such as football, basketball, badminton, and dodge ball, and the connectivity between sports clubs is also lacking, not satisfying students' various choices (Kim and Jeong, 2016).

Therefore, the MofE proposed that students could access various events by utilising regional grassroots sports facilities through connection with the MCST, but it did not proceed due to inconvenient movement, excessive travel time, and safety issues. In addition, the block time system, which combines sports hours per week, allows swimming, inline skating, tennis, bowling, and skiing to use external sports facilities which also failed to be implemented due to difficulties in securing usage time and fees (Kwon, 2012; Jeong, 2020).

Finally, Park, Lee, and Cho (2015) pointed out that school teachers' low professionalism in PE and SS is acting as a stumbling block. Although it is absolutely necessary to increase the number of PE and SS teachers or hire and deploy professional instructors to schools to guide students who wish to participate in sports clubs, schools have difficulty in hiring professional sports instructors (Zae and Son, 2018). Interviewees 3 (20th September 2019, KISS policy researcher), 5 (1st October 2019, KISS policy researcher) and 7 (28th September 2019, KSOC official) argued that due to a lack of professional sports leaders, leaders suitable for events students want cannot be assigned, which can be solved through cooperation with regional sports associations and events associations under the MCST but is not being achieved.

The school cannot select the necessary events and hire good instructors, and sports instructors are unilaterally assigned to the events requested by the students, so the students lose interest and do not want to apply. Students want to learn from good instructors, but such instructors are not well assigned (Interviewee 3).

The problem with school sports clubs is, for example, that students want to learn badminton, but there are no leaders who can teach. So, the leaders say, Let's play table tennis instead of badminton. It becomes like this. If they can't teach, there are

various event associations and sports clubs in the region. There must be a lot of leaders there, and you just have to match them up and do it at the regional sports association. But the problem is that it doesn't work even though you know it could (Interviewee 5).

Students want to experience various sports events. By the way, are there no teachers who can actually teach them? There are no facilities. There's no professional leader. The purpose is very good, but it's not easy to practice it" (Interviewee 7).

Unlike professional sports instructors, sports instructors are employed by schools and are less professional due to being regular instructors with licenses (Kang, 2014). To make matters worse, the MCST gradually reduces support to sports instructors due to budget reduction, which has led to concerns over the deterioration of the quality of school sports clubs, and concerns are currently being realised (Park, 2016). Kim and Jeong (2016) also pointed out that it is absolutely necessary to hire and dispatch sports instructors or specialised instructors to schools to guide sports club participants, but it is difficult for schools to hire sports instructors directly. In conclusion, physical limitations (lack of sports facilities and organisation) and limitations in programs (providing limited physical activity) and professionalism (teachers' expertise) limit the active participation of students in physical activities. Active cooperation between the MofE and the MCST is needed to revitalise PE and SS.

## **8.5. Conclusion**

This chapter summarises the limitations of Korean sports governing bodies. In this chapter, the limitations of Korean governing bodies were categorised and shown to be: 1) the conflict related to the Korean Olympic Committee (NOC) separation, 2) the KSOC's preference for elite sports, 3) the lack of cooperation between government ministries, and 4) the fixation on nepotism.

First, in relation to the separation of the KSOC and the Korea NOC, the confrontation between the MCST and KSOC has been maintained for a long time. Although the MCST is of the position that the Korea NOC should be separated from the KSOC, the KSOC opposes the separation by claiming that it amplifies the anxiety and distrust of the national sports policy and promotes conflict and division among athletes. It also opposes separation, saying that it violates the IOC Charter by infringing on political and legal autonomy and that it is undemocratic to claim



separation without sufficient opinions from the athletes. However, if we look more deeply into the cause of the MCST's separation, various limitations were found in the situation in which the KSOC and the Korea NOC were integrated. First, as the central task of the KSOC is related to international competition, that is, the Olympics and Asian Games, it is true that disproportionate development is maintained because human, material, and financial resources are concentrated on elite athletes, especially national athletes. In addition, the NOCs in advanced sports countries maintain independence and autonomy from their governments because the budget from their governments is significantly lower or absent. However, in the case of the KSOC, 94% of the total budget is supported by the Korean government, so it can be called a quasi-governmental organisation which is then subject to a legal obligation to be evaluated with the Korean government's supervision. In a situation in which the KSOC is highly financially dependent on the Korean government, it seems problematic to emphasise the independence of the Korea NOC, to avoid management supervision from the government, and to attempt immunity for matters pointed out in administrative audits, etc. For these reasons, the conflict between the MCST and KSOC has continued for a long time.

Second, the MCST expected the KSOC to contribute to the virtuous cycle and balanced development between elite sports and grassroots sports through integration with the KCSA and the increase of grassroots sports policy projects by establishing systematic governance to create synergy between elite and grassroots sports projects. However, as the KSOC is still concentrating on elite sports, the grassroots sports area has been relatively neglected without linkage between them. First of all, the KSOC is holding various competitions by dividing them into competitions for elite sports and grassroots sports. Claims for the integration of elite-related competition and grassroots sports-related competition have been raised for a long time, but even after the integration of the KSOC and KCSA, they are still not being pursued. In addition, when comparing the number of competitions, in 2018, the number of competitions related to elite sports was 356 and the number of competitions related to grassroots sports was 67, showing a significant difference (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2020; Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021d). In response to this situation, the Sports Innovation Committee (2019a:b) expressed concern that the basic purpose of integration in which the KSOC fosters elite sports based on grassroots sports is difficult to achieve. In

addition to this, it can be seen that the policy projects supported by the KSOC are being operated separately. For example, established in 1993, the Dream Tree Sportsmen Nurturing Project was brought about with the aim of fostering the next-generation national team, which includes candidates to represent Korea, by discovering outstanding athletes and Olympic prospects in their early stages and offering them systematic support and continuous training and management (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2021b). However, in the athlete selection process, it can be confirmed that the performances and records of elite students' athletic competition are set as important reference points, excluding non-elite athletes. Six years after the two sports governing bodies were integrated, no significant change could be found.

Third, various limitations were found in PE and SS due to the lack of cooperation between the MCST and the MofE. Although the MofE implemented various sports policies such as school sports clubs, the weekend league, Saturday sports day, and one-student-one-sports to revitalise PE and SS, qualitative growth was not achieved due to a lack of facilities, program poverty, and a lack of sports leaders' expertise (Kim and Jeong, 2016). Although the MofE is making efforts to diversify the contents of sports courses and mandate school sports club activities by revising the curriculum to revitalise PE and SS, students are unable to participate in various events and the number of students participating is decreasing due to the lack of sports facilities. To improve the shortage of sports facilities, the use of local sports clubs and local living sports facilities could be considered as an alternative. These facilities are managed by the KSOC, a regional sports association, and regional Facilities Management Corporations, which are affiliated with the MCST. Also, the MofE is aware that close cooperation with the MCST is necessary, but there is no cooperation. In addition, the MofE has pointed out that the variety of PE and SS programs it implements is lacking. In particular, sports events opened in schools are limited and lack linkage between sports clubs, failing to meet students' diverse needs for choice. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that students cannot be guided to high-quality sports classes due to the low guidance to sports class by school teachers, which in turn has limitations in delivering interest and fun in sports activities. As such, limitations in terms of physical (sports facilities and equipment), programs (provide limited physical activity), and human resources (teachers' expertise) limit students' active participation in physical activities.

Finally, various problems were found in Korean sports governing bodies due to the fixation of school relations and regionalism. First, it was pointed out that when some regional sports associations hired employees, they hired them without reference to the applicant's skills and ability, but instead hired them based on school relations and regionalism, resulting in a shortage of professional manpower. The result of a comprehensive audit of the KSOC, regional sports associations, and the Gyeonggi organisation at the MCST in 2013 found that some sports associations have damaged fairness by privatising the organisation and confirmed that abnormal practices continue. For this reason, sports figures of the KSOC and local sports associations conducted a self-cleansing resolution competition to eradicate immoral acts and unfair acts (Jun, 2013). However, six years later, in 2019, the Sports Innovation Committee (2019b) pointed out that the KSOC has not yet fully renewed its practices and culture in its existing organisational operation. In addition to that, Sung (2020) criticised that among the athletes intertwined with school relations and regionalism, they continued to pardon wrongdoings, and the KSOC, regional sports associations, and member event organisations did not actively prepare practical alternatives to eradicate these deep-rooted acts of corruption. The main cause of problems such as corruption in Korean sports governing bodies seems attributable to the closed human networks based on kinship, school relations, and regionalism that are deeply rooted in Korean society, which leads to the privatisation of organisations (Ha and Shin, 2015; Kim, 2020).

Through Chapters 6, 7, and 8, the researcher reviewed the problems of Korean elite sports and grassroots sports, and the limitations of Korean Sports governing bodies. The Next Chapter as the key chapter of this study, will continue with policy proposals focusing on applicable problems by benchmarking successful policy projects and programs in the UK, Australia, and Norway to alleviate these problems.

## 9. Policy recommendations to South Korea from the UK, Australia, and Norway

### 9.1. Introduction

By analysing the Korean sports system in chapters 6, 7 and 8 so far, various problems could be found. Chapter 6 dealt with the problems in Korean elite sports; chapter 7 highlighted the problems of grassroots sports and chapter 8 pointed to the limitations of Korean sports governing bodies.

In this chapter, as the core of this study, this researcher will suggest alternatives to problems that can be improved upon in the Korean sports system by identifying and utilising sports policies of the three aforementioned countries (the UK, Australia and Norway). The beginning of all problems in the sports system is the relationship between elite and grassroots sports. It may seem that alternative policies or programmes may not be related to elite and grassroots sports at first glance; however, if the problems are solved with these alternatives, a major role in linking and balancing the development between elite and grassroots sports is expected in the future.

In addition, as it is difficult to solve every problem found through this study with just this study, this researcher will introduce policies, and possible alternatives to them, to improve the main problems in Korea with regards to the policies of the UK, Australia and Norway.

Prior to this, various abbreviations used in the previous chapter and this chapter are organized and presented as shown in Table 9-1 to help readers understand.

Table 9.1 Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Full Name	Abbreviation	Full Name
AASC	Active After-schools Community Program	ACE	Athlete Career and Education
AfPE	Association of PE Subjects	AIS	Australian Institute of Sport
AOC	Australian Olympic Committee	APC	Australian Paralympic Committee
ASC	Australian Sports Commission	ASDA	Australian Sport Drug Agency
ATSI	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander	AW&E	Athlete Wellbeing & Engagement
BAALPE	British Association of Advisors and Lecturers	CGA	Commonwealth Games Australia
CPD	Continuing Professional	CPSU	Child Protection in Sport Unit

	Development		
CSPs	County Sports Partnerships	DCMS	Department for Digital, culture, Media & Sport
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families	DfES	Department of Education and Skills
DofE	Duke of Edinburgh's Award	EIS	English Institute of Sport
GB	Great Britain	IASs	Australian Institutes and Academies of Sports
IICSA	Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse	IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOC	International Olympic Committee	KCSA	Korea council of sport for All
KISS	Korea Institute of Sport Science	KOC	Korean Olympic Committee
Korea NOC	Korea National Olympic Committee	KSOC	Korea Sport and Olympic committee
LEA	Local Education Authorities	LEAF	Life Skills for Elite Athletes Program
LGA	Local government Association	LP	Loughborough Partnership
MCST	Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism	MHRN	Mental Health Referral Network
MIF	Medal Incentive Funding	MofE	Ministry of Education
NFs	National Federations	NGBs	National Governing Bodies
NHRCK	National Human Right Commission of Korea	NIF	Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports
NOC	Norwegian Olympic Committee	NOSs	National Sporting Organisations
NSO	National Sport Organisation	OAP	Olympic Athlete Programme
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education	OLT	Olympiatoppen
ONOC	Oceania National Olympic Committee	PD	Professional Development
PDM	Partnership Development manager	PE	Physical Education
PEA/UK	Physical Education Association of the United Kingdom	PEP	Personal Excellence Program
PESSCL	Physical Education School Sports and Club Links	PL	Performance Lifestyle
PLT	Primary Link Teachers	PSA	Public Service Agreement
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority	SCL	School to Club Links
SCUK	Sports Coach UK	SD	Sport Development
SFD	Sport for Development	SIA	Sport Integrity Australia
SISCIP	Safeguarding Continuous Improvement Program	SS	School Sports
SSCo	School Sport Co-ordinator	SSOs	State Sporting Organisations
SSP	School Sport Partnerships	VIS	Victorian Institute of Sport
YST	Youth Sports Trust		

First, in order to improve the resocialisation of retired athletes in matters related to elite sports, this researcher introduced the UK's PL programme and Australia's ACE, PEP and AW&E

programmes and suggested alternatives, introduced the UK's CPSU and IICSA and Australia's SIA, and then proposed an applicable alternative to improve physical assault/sexual abuse issues in school sports. Second, as a problem related to grassroots sports in Korea, this researcher examined Norway's grassroots sports to expand the grassroots sports base and will suggest alternatives based on the government's role in revitalising it. This researcher introduced the UK's Duke of Edinburgh's Award and benchmarked it and will suggest complementary measures to improve the problem with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project with its limitations in the grassroots sports support project. Finally, among the limitations of sports instruments, to improve the conflicts of the Korean Olympic Committee (NOC) regarding separation of the MCST and the KSOC, this researcher will introduce examples of Australia's operation of separate institutions pursued by the Korean government and present alternatives. In addition, this to solve the lack of cooperation between the government ministries (the MCST and MofE) this researcher will introduce the UK's PESSCL programme to suggest improvement plans and present applicable alternatives. This chapter will briefly introduce the policy and analyse and make improvement plans applicable to these problems as follows. However, the full information of each policy/programme is presented at appendix 5 to 10.

## **9.2. Policy Recommendations for the Problems in Korean Elite Sports**

### **9.2.1. The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes**

The resocialisation of retired athletes, one of the problems in Korean elite sports, has emerged as an important social issue in the Korean sports world since 2000. However, as the Korean elite sports system has focused on policies aimed at improving the performance of elite athletes and winning competitions until now, elite athletes' education rights and post-retirement lives have stayed out of the public's interest. Since 2018, the KOC has been conducting a career support project for retiring athletes, but it was found that few athletes (13.4%) were aware of this (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2020). In addition, according to the 2019 KOC survey, only 29.8% of these athletes worked in sports-related areas after

retirement, and 41.9% of retired athletes were unemployed, indicating a serious limit to the resocialisation of retired Korean athletes (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2020). Therefore, this researcher will take a closer look at the UK's Performance Lifestyle (PL) programme, which has long been directly intervening, and is supported and operated by the government for the career, job, education, and individual development of elite athletes in addition to Australia's Athlete Wellbeing & Engagement (AW&E) programme, and I will then propose a programme applicable for the resocialisation of retired Korean athletes.

#### 9.2.1.1. Performance Lifestyle (PL) Programme

Worldwide, interest in career development and job transition issues for elite athletes has increased over the years. Sports organisations in several countries have developed programmes to address these problems (De Bosscher et al., 2015). In 1999, UK Sport was licensed by the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and operated 'Athlete Career Education (ACE) UK', a programme to help the career, job, education, and individual development of British elite athletes based on the Athlete Career and Education (ACE) programme (Ashfield et al., 2017), in which British elite athletes experienced a relatively high level of education (UK Sport, 2001). In 2004, the ACE UK programme was replaced by the 'Performance Lifestyle (PL) Programme', which has provided support services for elite athletes through the English Institute of Sport (EIS) since 2009 (De Bosscher et al., 2009; UK Sport, 2013). The PL programme identifies the current status of individual athletes and provides appropriate services so that they can lead successful lives.

Emerging from the former ACE UK Programme in 2004, the British PL programme service was broadened to address the needs of athletes beyond the main focus of vocational and educational advice. This programme envelops three main areas: (1) Lifestyle Support, (2) Careers and Employment Advice and (3) Education Guidance (English Institute of Sport (EIS), 2009; British Olympic Association, 2014; EIS, 2013).

There are key organisations involved in developing the British PL programme, such as UK Sport, national sport institutes including the EIS, academic institutions in charge of training elite athletes, elite training centres, national coaching institutions, national Olympic committees, NGBs, DCMS and elite athletes' representative bodies, in addition to others. The

UK's sport structure allows for athletes to have a complete support system (Henry, 2010). Since 2009, the EIS has been delivering the programme's service, meaning UK Sport funds the NGBs. In May 2010, the IOC signed an agreement with Adeco and announced that the British Olympic Committee would implement the Athlete Career Programme provided to Olympic committees worldwide (Wilkinson, 2010; UK Sport, 2013).

The effectiveness of the PL programme was proven through the testimony of coaches, athletes and practitioners who experienced it, occupying an important part for them and positively contributing to the athletes' performance. In addition, the PL programme manages athletes responsibly and was created to improve and affect the elite sports system via practitioners who contribute to building and fostering a system that produces results (English Institute of Sport, 2021).

#### 9.2.1.2. Athlete Career and Education (ACE) Program, the Personal Excellence Program (PEP) and Athlete Wellbeing and Engagement (AW&E)

Australia has recognised the need for a programme for career development and job transition for elite athletes and introduced the Life Skills for Elite Athletes Program (LEAP) in 1989 which later integrated with the Athlete Career and Education (ACE) Program by the Victorian Institute of Sport (VIS) in Ausfraha, Victoria State in 1990. Through this, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), which is in charge of elite sports at the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), adopted the ACE Program as a national programme in 1995 and was operated through all Australian Institutes and Academies of Sports (IASs). The ACE Program's main goal is providing services which are consistent nationwide and which are configured to aid elite athletes in their vocational, educational and personal goals (Australian Institute of Sport, 2009). ACE advisors' roles are assisting athletes in more effectively combining their aspirations in sport and vocation while not compromising on their objectives of their sports and helping athletes with the development of their education plans as well as career plans which comprise all aspects of their lives (Stronach, 2012).

The AIS provides a free ACE Online system that manages study, play, work, and social participation activities to elite athletes selected from all over the country and sets a step-by-step goal for 'My life, My image, My time, My money, My transition, My work, My study' to



support various consultations. In addition, the ACE Program provides various scholarships and training benefits to selected athletes, observes the training information of young youth athletes of local sports academies in Australia weekly through the 'Visualcoaching® Pro' online system, and exchanges important schedules, necessary consultations and consulting contents daily or weekly through email and smartphone. These systems helped more than 78% of elite athletes who participated in the ACE Program in 2011 to greatly improve their skills, and more than 90% of the athletes received help in extending their lives, as reported by Australian information statistics (W. Kang and Kim, 2013). As such, for 20 years, the ACE Program has been of great help and change to elite athletes. However, the ACE Program was re-branded in October 2014 as the Personal Excellence Program (PEP) and was adopted by every state, becoming part of a national strategy being driven by the AIS. Being built on the original ACE Program, this new programme strengthened the career and development support of Australian athletes. This programme helps athletes in creating and maintaining dual careers in sport and life through improving their professionalism, accountability, resilience, integrity and responsibility capabilities. Also, myAISplaybook, an athlete-only virtual community available online in which athletes conducting their journey in sport can communicate with and gain knowledge from one another across every sport and which was developed to be part of the PEP for providing elite athletes with support and guidance, became a major component (ASC, 2015).

However, in 2018, the Australian government announced a new national policy programme called the 'Sports 2030 Plan'. At the same time as it changed the ASC policy programme to Sport Australia, Sport Australia revealed seven new strategic priorities, one of which involved the reform of the PEP with further changes. The name changed to Athlete Wellbeing and Engagement (AW&E), who's current focus is leading and supporting the sporting industry within Australia in realizing that a successful elite culture for athletes includes athletes being able to find a proper balance between their wellbeing, commitment to activities aside from competition and training and elite sport's requirements (AIS, 2018).

Elite athletes tend to accept a more holistic approach when it comes to their careers and lives, and as such, the AIS's AW&E initiatives continue providing a number of new key programmes. Since the AW&E's branch launch in June 2018, many initiatives have been developed which

aim at giving the NSOs the necessary support and capability for improving the personal development and wellbeing of athletes and coaches. The AW&E managers receive support for their role via a national curriculum for providing professional development that involves a Certificate IV in Career and Development and bestow a contact point that is known and independent, something that is very important for athletes. Direct support for athletes has been enhanced by the national expansion of these services which has also led to improved collaboration across the elite sporting system in Australia (ASC, 2020). The AIS has also developed AW&E Frameworks by working with funded NSOs.

The AIS delivers several community engagements programmes that provide opportunities for elite athletes to learn and develop new technologies. The AIS Lifeline Community Custodians programme and the AIS Share a Yarn Initiative are a few of the available community engagement programmes. The AIS launched a partnership with the Black Dog Institute: the AIS Mental Fitness Program, in July 2020 which gives both current and former elite athletes a chance to encourage psychology strategies with school-based communities (ASC, 2021). The AIS and Lifeline Australia have a partnership that will aid in delivering this impactful community engagement programme, as athletes will step up and help increase suicide prevention awareness while encouraging anyone needing help to ask for help by reaching out and many of these athletes have first-hand experience of mental illness (ibid, 2021).

The AIS AW&E launched a community engagement initiative called Share a Yarn in May 2020 whose goal is giving Australian Elite Athletes worthwhile opportunities for connecting and building relationships with the Torres Strait Islander (ATSI) and Aboriginal communities as well as to gain more insight of the differences in their cultures, histories, people and lands. This initiative intends to supply a platform on which athletes can share this knowledge and advocate from inside the sporting community in addition to the Australian community at large.

In addition, ANZAC Day, Clean Up Australia Day, NAIDOC Week and National Volunteers Week were developed as community events for NSOs and two were instituted for assisting in system capability. A critical incident framework was created for the first time and its implementation is happening across NSOs, which are funded and show high performance, and the NIN.

In March 2019, the Mental Health Referral Network (MHRN) was launched, giving athletes and coaches who are funded access to mental health practitioners and AIS-endorsed

psychologists across Australia, with the programme even extending to psychiatrists and neuropsychologists. The MHRN framework uses a whole-of-organisation approach; this includes technology, business and elite sport-specific situation. As such, Australia has been implementing many policies for the resocialisation of elite athletes since 1990 and has been trying to find policies suitable for athletes by making changes within the programme and trying various methods. Studying the policies that have been carried out for about 30 years from the ACE Program to the AW&E through PEP, I would like to propose a policy that can be applied to Korea.

#### 9.2.1.3. Recommendation for the resocialisation of retired athletes in Korea

So far, I have studied the PL programmes in the UK, and the ACE Programme, PEP, and AW&E in Australia, two countries which have systematically and actively promoted national-level policy intervention to help individual development such as career development, education, and job transition for elite athletes. The policy programmes of these two countries aim for the same purpose, but as a result of a detailed check, it was found that the detailed policies have insignificant differences. Among the programmes in the UK and Australia, an alternative applicable to the resocialisation of Korean retired athletes was derived and suggested as follows. First, in the case of the British PL programme, they identify all aspects of individual athletes at the point when elite athletes are still active as athletes, classify them into three categories: Aspiring Full-time Athlete, Full-time Athlete and Transition Athlete, and provide customised services for each athlete by classifying them into Lifestyle Support, Careers and Employment Advice and Education Guidance. On the other hand, Australia's ACE Programme provides an ACE Online system to elite athletes and supports counselling by setting step-by-step goals for 'My life, My image, My time, My money, My transition, My work, and My study'. In addition, as it was changed to PEP in 2014, it creates an online athlete-only virtual community called myAISplaybook to provide a place for communication between all events, which acts as a space with the advantage of sharing the experiences and ideas of athletes and learning from one another. After that, the AW&E was newly promoted with improvement from the previous policy programme to emphasise the importance of well-being and engagement in 2018. The AW&E provides appropriate services to elite athletes with Mental Health, Product & Professionalism, Engagement, Career & Education and Personal

Development. As such, it was confirmed that the Korean system needs to manage and support elite athletes from an early point in their lives, not after their retirements. All elite athletes are registered with each sports association under the KSOC, so each association must first understand all aspects, including the current situation of athletes, and then provide services that help them with education and work experience of interest for individual development. This will be of great help to them in the process of preparing for resocialisation after retirement. In addition, athletes can learn from one another by having the opportunity to communicate with the same or different events through online communities such as myAISplaybook.

Second, it can be seen that the UK PL programme develops and advances this programme in cooperation with sports organisations including government agencies. In the case of Korea, as mentioned above, although the KSOC has been running 'the retired athletes' job business programme' since 2018 to help with the resocialisation of elite athletes, there is a limit to receiving sufficient support from other government agencies and sports institutions as specific project details are pointed out to be unclear without smooth cooperation with institutions other than the KSOC, leaving retired athletes with difficulties in real life at a serious level. Therefore, for the development of the resocialisation of elite athletes, cooperation with Korea Sports Promotion Foundation, Ministry of Education, E-Career Support Centre, etc., rather than managing athletes through the KSOC's own programme, is desperately needed.

Third, Australia restarted the AW&E with community engagement and mental health as the core tasks in 2018. Community engagement helps elite athletes build bonds with the community outside of training and competition by participating in a variety of programmes and events in the community and serves as an opportunity to learn self-development and skills through various experiences. On the other hand, it can be a chance for community members to increase their interest in sports through various activities with elite athletes. In addition, the Lifeline Community Custodians program provides a mentally helpful place for local residents to share athletes' personal stories. The Share a Yarn program gives elite athletes worthwhile opportunities to develop relationships with local communities and learn about their local history, culture and people. Participants share what they learn, thereby

learning collaboration, respect and honest communication, building trust and promoting responsibility. Various other events are also planned to continuously offer opportunities for communicating with local residents. Korean elite athletes have very few opportunities to communicate with local residents. There is no programme that is implemented as a national policy like the AW&E. If there's an event planned for a specific region, elite athletes formally participate without giving meaning to the communication with local residents, bond formation or helping them in most cases. Therefore, it is necessary to plan programmes, where elite athletes can participate, which are needed to learn self-development, technology, education and communication with the general public through linkage with the local community along with local governments, local sports associations and public sports clubs.

Fourth, the Mental Health Referral Network (MHRN) is assisting elite athletes and other eligible individuals within Australia's elite sports system who have mental health or wellbeing concerns. For elite athletes, coaches or support staff members who have the pressures and complexity of life in an elite sports environment, the MHRN seeks to help them to improve their well-being and mentally overcome difficulties through consultation with psychologists, psychiatrists, neuro-psychiatrists and mental health practitioners who can advise them regarding their mental health. Various incidents and accidents occurred due to mental stress in the Korean elite sports environment. In particular, due to the unique culture of the sports club or the specificity of the entrance examination system, concerns about entering higher schools, fear of punishment due to low performance, assault and sexual violence by seniors to juniors in sports clubs occurred (Kang, 2009; Chung, 2013). Some athletes could not stand it and even committed suicide. In fact, there was a suicide case of athlete Sook-Hyeon Choi in 2020. Although such various incidents and accidents have occurred, they have not been eradicated, and for this reason, elite athletes often experience psychological pressure or complexity. Therefore, policy programmes to help elite athletes' mental health by professional consulting and giving advice are urgently needed.

#### 9.2.2. Physical Assault/Sexual Abuse Issues

Korea has shown the image of a sports powerhouse by achieving great results in world competitions such as the Olympics, Asian Games, and World Cup. However, behind Korea's

elite sports, problems such as sports violence, sexual assault/abuse, and crude treatment have recently come to the surface through news and media, like shadows that are hidden by light, and two of the most serious problems in elite sports are physical assault and sexual abuse (KIm, 2019). As a result of this researcher's analysis, the first problem is the deification of leaders (coaches, directors), which means that student-athletes have absolutely obeyed their directors or coaches with violence being tolerated and cruel treatment being justified both of which are concealed due to the sports system that fosters "athletes" solely for medals depending on performance supremacy (Park, 2021). The second problem is the soft punishment of perpetrators. Even when perpetrators committed physical assault or sexual abuse, they were not punished by the Reward and Punishment Committee of a sports institution, and there are cases in which the punishment ends simply with a warning. Still, the main criticism is that paternalism is prevalent in the sports world. Therefore, in this section, the researcher examines the role of institutions and coping with the physical assault and sexual abuse problems in the UK and Australia, and then proposes applicable alternatives to solve the physical assault and sexual abuse problems in Korea.

#### 9.2.2.1. The actions for resolving physical assault/sexual abuse issues in the UK

In 2001, the Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU), an organisation dedicated to the prevention of child abuse and sexual assault/abuse, was established and began responding to children's rights in earnest (Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU), 2021). As part of the NSPCC, the CPSU is funded by Sport Wales, Sport Northern Ireland, Sport England, and UK Sport. The CPSU works together with the National Governing Bodies (NGBs), UK Sports Councils and County Sports Partnerships (CSPs) in addition to other organisations so that the possibility of child abuse during sporting activities can be minimised (Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU), 2021; London Borough of Redbridge, 2021). Providing excellent advice and support around safeguarding children is what the CSPU does.

The CSPU provides a standard for other sports organisations to work towards and is a framework which applies (with some variations) to the local, regional and national clubs in the UK (England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland). Implementation takes place through each sport's NGB as well as CSPs with support from the CPSU (Lucy Faithfull Foundation (LFF),

2021). Basically, to protect the young people and children in the club, the club needs: a policy for safeguarding, a code of conduct, a preventative arrangement, a procedure and systems for reporting abuse, and a monitoring system, and the CSPU provides it.

Another governing agency in UK is the Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA), established by the Home Secretary, Theresa May, in July 2014. This was established to examine how the country's institutions handled their duty of care to protect children from sexual abuse (BBC News, 2020; Independent Inquiry Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA), 2021; Home Office, 2021). The IICSA has three guiding principles: be inclusive, be comprehensive and be thorough. As such, the IICSA is broken up into three Core Projects: The Research Project, the Truth Project and the Public Hearings Project.

The IICSA is provided with information gathered from the Truth Project which is rich in child sexual abuse insights. With the participants' consent, the information gathered is used by the IICSA in various ways, including for data analysis and ongoing research being conducted by the IICSA's Research Team. This allows for the building of a base of evidence around child sexual abuse/assault as well as the failures of institutions to protect children from becoming victims. This is a crucial element in helping the IICSA create recommendations with which to prevent child sexual abuse/assault from occurring in the future and with which responses to child sexual abuse/assault can be improved (Independent Inquiry Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA), 2021).

As such, in the UK, human rights violations have occurred secretly in sports for a long time, and it was confirmed that most of them involved children and adolescent athletes. The British government took this seriously, and accordingly, established the Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU) and the Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA) in 2001 and 2015, respectively, and continues its efforts to protect against human rights violations such as child violence and sexual abuse.

#### 9.2.2.2. The actions for resolving physical assault/sexual abuse issues in Australia

Australia has an agency that administers to physical violence and sexual assault/abuse for children's sports environments. This is the Sport Integrity Australia (SIA) agency, which is one

of the executive agencies of the Australian Government, having commenced its operation on 1 July 2020 (Sport Integrity Australia, 2021). The Parliament of Australia established the SIS based upon the recommendations put forward in the Report of the Review of Australia's Sports Integrity Arrangements which was completed by the Department of Health (Department of Health, 2018).

The ASC led the development of the National Safeguarding Children in Sport Strategy in 2018 as a response to Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse's recommendation. However, when the SIA first commenced it was given the responsibility for safeguarding children (Clearinghouse for Sport, 2021). Being a new organisation, the SIA combines the purposes of the National Integrity of Sport Unit of the Department of Health, the Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority and Sport Australia's nationally focused integrity functions. The SIA is thus a mainstay of the Australian government's comprehensive sport integrity strategy: Safeguarding the Integrity of Sport (SIA, 2021b).

The role of the SIA is to give assistance and advice for countering the use of banned methods and substances in sport, the abuse of children and others in sporting environments; manipulation taking place in sporting competitions; and the failure in a sporting environment to protect sporting organisations' members and others from bullying, discrimination, intimidation or harassment. Sporting organisations, in addition to other stakeholders, will gain from being able to work with a single nationally coordinated organisation that is capable of addressing all sports integrity issues. Thus, guidance on matters of integrity to sports which don't have developed integrity capabilities will be offered by the SIA (SIA, 2021a). Taking this all into consideration, its programme recognises the valuable safeguarding work which has already been conducted by the Commonwealth Government and the state and territory governments, in addition to NSOs, State Sporting Organisations (SSOs) and local clubs and associations. Instead of replacing these foundations, its goal is to aid sports in complementing and building upon them.

#### 9.2.2.3. Recommendation for the problem of physical assault/sexual abuse in Korea

So far, we have looked at how the UK and Australia deal with violence (physical assault) and sexual abuse/assault within the elite sports system and how to improve it. The UK has



established and operated institutions (the CPSU and IICSA) funded by the government, reducing assault and sexual abuse. In particular, the UK's policies related to sports human rights focus on preventive practices rather than reactive aspects after the outbreak of human rights violations. In Australia, the ASC, a sports organisation, has established policies and is responding. In addition, it was established by the SIA in 2020 to share information with NSOs and SSOs across the country and to advise to solve problems. As a result of examining them, some suggestions were found.

First, the UK's CPSU is a public institution that is funded by sports organisations and government organisations and works together with NGBs, UK Sports Councils and County Sports Partnerships as well as other organisations and endeavours to minimise the risk of child abuse/assault nationwide. The IICSA also collaborates with various local agencies such as County Councils and the police. Australia's ASC, as the primary national sports administration and advisory agency in Australia, provided the Child Safe Policy to all sports organisations across the country, and the SIA also works with NSOs and SSOs. On the contrary, incidents of violence and sexual abuse/assault that continued for a long time in the sports world have recently come to the surface in Korea. In 2020, the seriousness of the Sook-Hyeon Choi incident was confirmed, and the Sports Ethics Centre was launched in August 2020. Of course, it is a public institution funded by the MCST, but as an independent, unified institution, it does not cooperate with other sports organisations, regional sports associations, clubs, etc., and it provides counselling when individual athletes file reports which results in low efficiency. For the Sports Ethics Centre to increase its work efficiency, it could work more efficiently and minimise violence and sexual abuse/assault by cooperating with the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), event associations, regional sports associations and sports clubs across the country.

Second, the CPSU provides NGBs with sports safety standards, including correct policies, guidelines and procedures to protect children from violence and sexual abuse/assault in addition to a manual of safety and human rights guides that must be observed in each case, and the NGBs support the local clubs with this. In the case of Korea, the KSOC created a manual for handling sports human rights protection in 2019 and distributed it to sports organisations, but the effect has so far been insufficient. The reasons are the lack of

stakeholders' interest in and understanding of the manual and passive response and limited use of the manual due to the lack of continuous monitoring and evaluation although the manuals were delivered to regional sports associations, event associations, and sports clubs at the KSOC. Therefore, a higher-level institution, that is the KSOC, needs to continuously inspect and confirm regional sports associations, event associations and sports clubs and raise the awareness of the manuals to local authorities to give athletes and young participants confidence in protection and safety.

Third, the IICSA uses three parts of the inquiry such as the Truth Project, the Research Project and the Public Hearing Project to hear the experiences of victimised children and advise them appropriately. In addition, it can collect data on in-depth abuse through them and publish a research report every year by analysing it. This report would play a big role in creating an environment where children can enjoy sports. With the new policy program, the SISCIP, the SIA allows a collaborative approach between NSOs and SSOs and shares strategies or methods to prevent and cope with child sexual abuse to prevent problems. In addition, this program is also capable of collecting data, which allows the effect for further improvement. On the other hand, the National Human Right Commission of Korea (NHRCK) published a report on seven cases of human rights violations in Korea in 2019 and 2020. Data collection and analysis on all these reports were sufficient and in-depth to the extent that violence/sexual abuse in athletes and student athletes were included. However, there was no report on human rights violations before and after except for 2019 and 2020. Table 9-1 shows a report on human rights violations in the sports community published by the NHRCK from 2007 to the present.

Table 9. 2 Human rights violations in the sports community from 2007 to 2021

Year	Report related to human rights violations (including violations and sexual abuse/assault)
2007	Human Rights Situation Survey in Student Athletes: Focusing on Elementary Schools
2009	Survey on the Human Rights Situation of Athletes: Focusing on the Learning Rights, Violence, and Sexual abuse of Middle and High School Student Athletes
2010	2010 NHRCK Survey on the Human Rights Violations of Athletes: Focusing on University Student Athletes
2011-2018	None
2019	1) Result Announcement of a Complete Survey on the Current State of Human Rights of Elementary, Middle and High School Student Athletes 2) Debate on the Survey Result of Student Athletes' Dormitory

	3) The Current Status of Human Rights of Student Athletes: A Complete Survey on Human Rights and a Discussion Forum to Present the Results of Case Analysis on (Sexual) violence in the Sports Field 4) Human Rights Stopped in Front of the Dormitory: Debate on the Survey Result of Student Athletes' Dormitory
2020	1) Case Study of Sexual Abuse and Violence in Sports and Remedies 2) Living as Professional Athletes in the Workplace: Result Report on Human Rights Survey of the Professional Team Athletes and Roundtable Debate on How to Protect Human Rights 3) Human Rights Situation of the School Sports Team Leader and the Role of Human Rights Defenders
2021	Survey on the Human Rights Situation of Professional Female Athletes

Source: National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2021)

As shown in Table 9-1, it can be confirmed that there is no data from 2011 to 2018. Of course, as violence and sexual abuse/assault against athletes in 2019 started pouring out for all to see, the Korean government recognised the seriousness of this problem and started an investigation. However, as of 2021, the number of reports on human rights violations related to athletes has decreased to only a single case, and many sports experts are concerned that there will be a return to a situation in which no previous investigation has been conducted. As a result of checking the response of the UK and Australian governments, the MCST, MoF and National Human Right Commission of Korea, etc. need continuous investigation and data collection every year, not only when an incident or an accident occurs, as it reduces the risk of violence and sexual abuse/assault of young athletes by its analysis and expects to protect them. This is expected to play a significant role in creating an environment in which children or adolescents can be interested in sports and enjoy sports happily.

### 9.3. Policy Recommendations for the Problems in Korean Grassroots Sports

#### 9.3.1. Problems with Expanding the Grassroots Sports Base

Korea achieved rapid economic development, improved the living conditions of its people, and increased leisure time. As a result, the public became aware of the need for grassroots sports as a means of leisure activities to improve their quality of life and their physical, mental and social health by utilising their leisure time. To this end, the Korean government promotes

a variety of grassroots sports policies, but various problems have been found in the process of making changes to grassroots sports.

As a result of this researcher's analysis, the first problem was the lack of sports facilities. As a second problem, a serious bias in the available sports events was found, and the final problem is the low participation of adolescents in sports. Due to these problems and limitations, the effect of the Korean government's efforts is insufficient. Accordingly, this researcher will look at the case of grassroots sports in Norway, a country with the highest participation rate in sports among countries around the world and propose alternatives to vitalise and expand grassroots sports in Korea.

#### 9.3.1.1. Norway

The Global Wellness Institute published the 2019 'Move to be Well: The Global Economy of Physical Activity' report which showed that Norway ranked third with 83.9%, after Australia (84.1%) and Taiwan (83.9%), in the 2018 Global Rankings for Recreational Physical Activity by Participation. In the 2021 Grandest Sports Nation survey, Norway is the country with the second highest participation rate in grassroots sports even when countries around the world are all being affected by COVID-19 (Halsall, 2020; Greatest Sporting Nation, 2021). Figure 9.1 shows the participation rate in grassroots sports by age from 1991 to 2015, as surveyed by Norsk Monitor [adapted from Breivik (2013) and Hellevik (2015)]<sup>2</sup>.

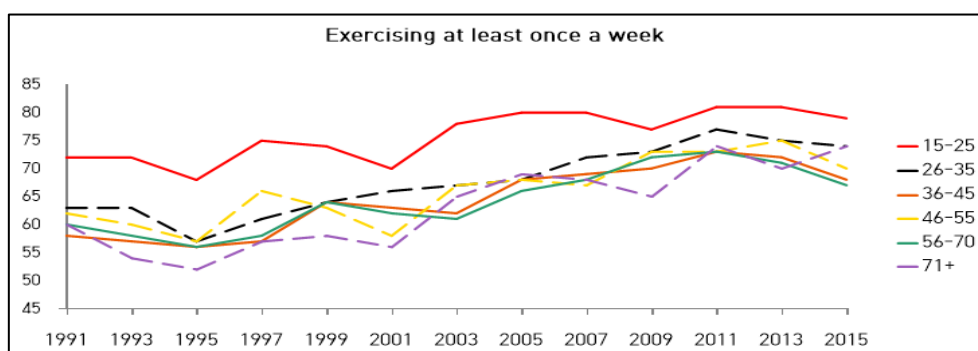


Figure 9.1 Participation rate in grassroots sports by age from 1991 to 2015 (%)  
Source: Norsk Monitor

<sup>2</sup> Norsk Monitor is a large survey that maps Norwegians' values, attitudes and behaviour. The survey has been conducted every other year since 1985 and is based on a nationally representative sample of approximately 4,000 people from the population. This study used the Norsk Monitor data from the chapter written by Seippel and Skille (2018). And they brought the data from the research of Breivik (2013) and Hellevik (2015).

As shown in Figure 9.1, the participation rate is seen to generally increase approaching 2015, and in particular, adolescents and adults aged 15-25 remain close to 80%. Furthermore, the number of elderly people aged 71+ gradually increased to about 75%.

In this research, three decisive factors that indicate Norwegians participate in sports regardless of gender and age were discovered, which were: 1) increased lifestyle sports, 2) family participation and 3) stronger cooperation between schools and sports clubs. First, lifestyle sports, a decisive factor that influenced sports participation, came sharply to prominence in the 2000s. Norwegians actively participate in physically challenging or often adventurous outdoor sports such as skiing, skating, mountain and ice climbing, rafting, kayaking, horseback riding, mountain biking and snowmobiling. In addition, grassroots sports such as jogging, walking, swimming and biking are easily accessed on a daily basis and can also be called lifestyle sports. The reasons for the growing popularity and preference of lifestyle sports are that they are either non-competitive or less competitive, inherently more recreational, flexible, comfortable, available for individual or small group activity as opposed to traditional team sports or competitive sports, and sometimes, fit and adventurous leading to the increase in participants (Van Krieken, 1998; Green et al., 2015).

Lifestyle sports increased the participation rate in all age groups. Especially, lifestyle sports played a major role in the resuming participation among the elderly who had given up sports. When Roberts and Brodie (1992) first used the term lifestyle sport, with 'wide sporting repertoires' as its core, they said that whatever the reason for giving up participation in a particular sport, it does not require much sports experience to participate in some other sports, and participation is easy and comfortable. For this reason, the participation rate of the elderly is increasing. Lifestyle sports influenced not only the sports resumption of the elderly but also women's participation in sports. The increasing centrality of lifestyle sports nationwide, less competitiveness and non-organisation have been the driving force behind increasing women's participation (Coalter, 2013).

One of the reasons why Norwegian participation in lifestyle sports has increased is the government's support of sports facilities according to the request of its citizens. As the majority of Norway's state subsidies for sport go toward financing the construction of new facilities or toward the maintenance and/or renovation of older facilities, it is crucial to

respect Norwegians' use of sports facilities. Figure 9.2 presents the most-used facilities in ranking order.

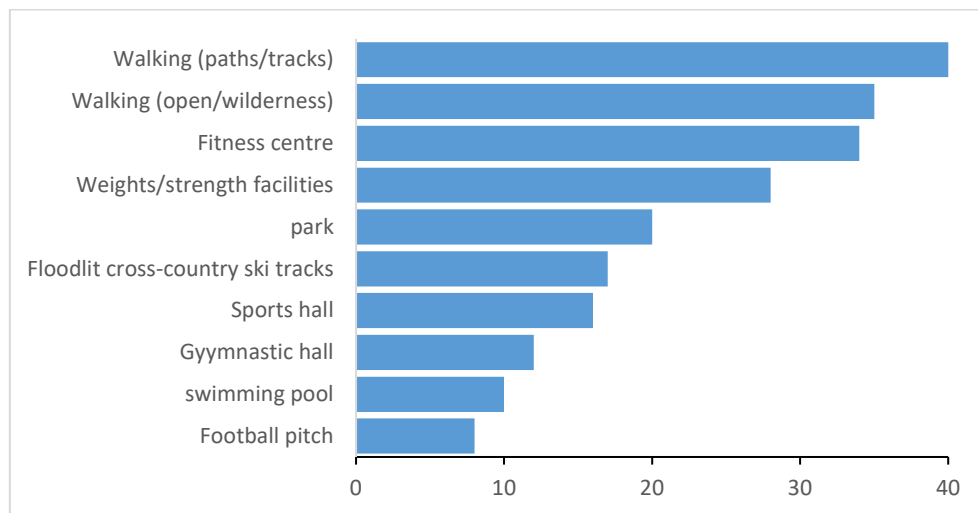


Figure 9.2 Percentage of the adult population using types of facilities twice or more a week (age 15-96)

Source: Norsk Monitor

The pervasiveness of various types of activities is indicated in the types of facilities used. As shown in Figure 9.2, the two tramping tracks and fields (in the wilderness) which are most often used are for hiking, walking or tracking and outdoor life activities such as lifestyle sports.

According to a 2016 report by the Oslo Municipal Council, the current construction situation was evaluated as being very good and the maintenance and upgrading of existing facilities will have more focus. Using the form of an inter-municipal construction plan, cooperation should be considered with other municipalities. In addition, it can be seen that more than 150 sports facilities were registered for construction in 2017 with most being related to outdoor sports (e.g., hiking trails, ski trails, jump hills, etc.), that is, lifestyle sports. As the demand of Norwegian citizens is high, the government is also providing facilities accordingly, which is considered to maintain a high participation rate in sports.

Second, another very important variable for Norway to maintain a high level of sports participation is 'family sport culture', defined as a family culture with a strong affinity for sports (Strandbu et al., 2020), and its connection to the participation of youth in sports organised by clubs. It is far more likely that, as with various leisure activities, those who continue participating throughout adulthood had typically been introduced during their

childhood, during which they became committed, and their involvement in sport later in life, as with leisure activities, will greatly depend on their interests and skills which they carry with them from their earlier life stages (Birchwood et al., 2008; Wheeler and Green, 2019; Johansen and Green, 2019).

In particular, those who were raised by parents with an affinity for sports had an increased likelihood to become involved in sports (Dagkas and Lisette, 2016; Downward et al., 2014). As such, parents greatly influence their children in regards to sports-related lifestyles in numerous ways, particularly by: (1) being role models, (2) introducing sport to their children, (3) encouraging their children to participate in sport, (4) providing their children with transportation and equipment and (5) by just being interested in sport, which can be manifested in family activities including hiking and by conversing about sport during family time (Smoll et al., 2011; Stefansen et al., 2018; Knight, 2019; Wheeler and Green, 2019).

Finally, linkages between school and sports clubs increased sports participation among adolescents. In recent years, the Norwegian sports for youth and adolescents have been reinforced by strengthening cooperation between schools (specifically elementary) and sports clubs (Toftegaard Støckel et al., 2010). The close relationships among parents, schools and sports clubs, as well as the interdependencies generated by them, are likely to provide a foundation for children and youth for sports participation, not just as physical competencies and physical/sporting capital, but also as social and cultural capital, essentially giving every building block, for their on-going participation in sport.

'Joy of Sport for All: Sport Policy Document 2011-2015' published by the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF) in 2011 lists the goals for physical activities at school; Norwegian sport will ensure that plans for facilities for schools and local environments include the possibility of conducting a variety of physical activities and advocate for the natural areas to be opened for the sustainable use of various sport and outdoor activities (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), 2011). As such, Norway sports are playing a major role in providing opportunities for adolescents to experience a variety of sports activities by linking schools, communities and sports clubs.

### 9.3.1.2. Recommendation for the Problems with Expanding the Grassroots Sports Base

So far, by looking at grassroots sports in Norway, we have identified the main factors that have motivated Norwegians to participate in sports. Norway's high participation in sports, found by this researcher, was caused by the increase in lifestyle sports which everyone can easily access and participate in at any time, a family sports culture in which parents participate in, talk about and enjoy sports with their children and the link between schools and sports clubs. Based on this, an alternative for Koreans to participate more actively in grassroots sports was derived and presented as follows. First, in the case of Korea, sports facilities are still expanding mainly focused on popular sports, and it has been confirmed that the demand of the people is not greatly reflected due to the lack of expansion of sports and programmes that all citizens can participate in. In 2019, national public sports facilities in Korea were installed nationwide as soccer fields (1,040), athletics fields (252) and gyms (1,139) (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2021). However, looking at the 2020 National Grassroots Sports Survey, lifestyle sports such as walking and hiking are at the top, indicating that sports facilities-related surveys have not been conducted in sports events involving the majority of people (Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST), 2020). Figure 9.3 shows the 2020 national grassroots sports survey announced by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism in 2020 showing the sports encompassing grassroots sports.

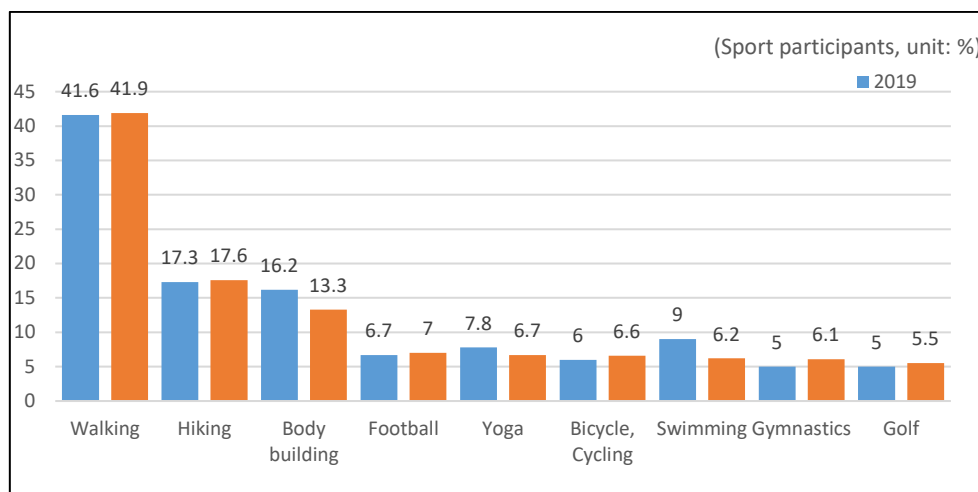


Figure 9.3 2020 participating grassroots sports events  
Source: Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (2020)

As shown in Figure 9.3, in 2020 people mostly participated in grassroots sports such as walking and hiking, and in the case of football, it had the fourth largest number of participants as it



has the most sports facilities. In addition, the Korean government recognises swimming as the most important sport, and in particular, since 2014, compulsory education has been conducted under the name of 'survival swimming' for the purpose of strengthening safety education. However, the 2019 survey showed that only 57% of students took classes and the programme was not being carried out properly due to a lack of swimming pools, instructors and manpower. Also, in the 2019 national public sports facilities survey, the number of swimming pools in the country was indicated as being about 7.59 million, which is about 1/4 that of soccer fields, thus raising the question of whether it is a compulsory sport provided to students by the government (Ministry of Culture sport and Tourism (MCST), 2019). It can be seen that the Korean government does not appear to be providing sports facilities to meet the needs of the people and that lifestyle sports facilities and locations are not properly investigated or managed. In addition, as the elderly population increases in Korea, the elderly's medical expenses, loneliness, and number who commit suicide due to loneliness and financial difficulties are becoming serious issues. The suicide rate of the elderly (below 74 years of age) was 81.8 per 100,000 (5-6 times higher than that of Japan with 17.9 and the US with 14.5), and the suicide rate of the elderly (above 74 years of age) was 160 per 100,000, the highest in the OECD (National Statistical Office in Korea, 2017). Considering the current situation in which 41.8% of the elderly (over 70 years of age) do not participate in sports activities at all, it is necessary to establish a policy to induce their participation in grassroots sports so that they can enjoy health and happiness in grassroots sports activities. Accordingly, the Korean government and governing bodies such as the MCST, KSOC, KISS, sports facility management and regional government should not build popular sports events and indoor sports facilities without much consideration, as is the case now, but instead needs to think deeply about providing facilities for lifestyle sports with many consumers as shown in the survey. The reason Norwegian men and women of all ages can participate in sports in a healthy way is due to the active acceptance of and improvement in lifestyle sports.

Second, Norway has a family sports culture in which parents participate in, talk about and enjoy sports with their children. On the other hand, if we look at the case of Korea, it is difficult to find parents and children playing sports together, and the sports participation rate of adolescents is at the lowest level according to the OECD survey results. Most parents in Korea prefer their children to study rather than play sports because of the expectation that playing

sports will reduce the amount of time available for adolescents to study due to the entrance exam-oriented living environment and cause fatigue, which will interfere with studying.

According to the 2017 National Grassroots Sports Participation Survey, 30% of adolescents do not play sports at all. Adolescents' perception surrounding sports facilities was found to exceed 90%, but the reason they don't use sports facilities often are: 'no time available' at the highest of 47%, 'expensive sports facilities fee' at 10.8%, 'non-professional sports facilities' at 10.3%, 'lack of information' at 10.7%, and 'distance' at 10.1% (Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST), 2017). For this reason, school sports clubs and leagues have been operating since 2008, contributing to the expansion of student sports participation. However, many students do not participate in sports activities at all, and problems such as demand for participation in various school sports club events, limitations in league operation throughout the year and excessive competition-oriented school sports club competitions appeared. Despite operating school sports clubs and leagues, 31.7% of male students and 37.1% of female students are not interested in or do not participate in sports activities (Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST), 2018). As the subjective happiness and life satisfaction of Korean adolescents (age 15-24) surveyed by the OECD in 2017 was found to be the lowest in the world, their mental and physical health problems are shown to be serious.

To improve this, many things need to be fixed and changes are needed. According to data from the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (2018), lifestyle habits are formed in infancy and settled in adolescents, so it is argued that the foundation for lifelong sports participation from adolescents to adults should be laid during adolescence. In addition, grassroots sports for youth should secure publicity and universality with their introduction. In particular, the burden of parenting should be reduced through systematic support from the state so that parents can participate in sports with young people.

Norway's family sports culture also emphasises this. In order to increase the life satisfaction of children and adolescents, it is especially important for them to spend time with parents playing and talking about sports. It will also be an important catalyst for increasing sports participation among adolescents. At the same time, if there are programmes where

adolescents can play sports with their parents and a family sports culture in which they can share sports with their parents, I think that Korean adolescents can have a healthier life.

Finally, the linkage between schools and sports clubs increased the participation rate of adolescents in sports. Looking at the sports policy document published by the NIF (2011), they consider the physical activity of children and adolescents as important and are planning to provide opportunities to play more diverse sports in connection with sports clubs. In addition, a study by Toftefaard Stockel et al. (2010) explained that the linkage between schools and sports clubs increased adolescents' participation in sports and played a very important role.

However, as a result of this researcher's examination of various national documents and previous studies, no actual numerical data could be found, and more in-depth data could not be confirmed due to language problems. However, as a result of this researcher's examination of the participation of children and adolescents in grassroots sports through the aforementioned lifestyle sports and family sports culture, it can be inferred that adolescents' sports culture will lead to sports that can be encountered in after-school life or in sports clubs.

### 9.3.2. Problems with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: A Lack of Connection between Measurement and Exercise

The Korea Sports Promotion Foundation promoted the National Fitness 100 Policy Project to offer fitness measurement and sports prescriptions to people between 13 to 65 years old to provide integrated medical and nutrition services as a sports welfare project (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2013a). The background of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project can be explained in three aspects. First, it is a pre-emptive policy against increasing social overhead costs such as medical expenses in a situation where an aging society is predicted by extending life expectancy (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2013b). Second, it is to satisfy the public's demand for regular fitness management. And third, the government tried to increase the public's participation in grassroots sports and raise the level of fitness through the expansion of the fitness promotion project and budget expansion (Kim, 2019).

However, there is scepticism about the usefulness of National Fitness 100 Policy Project. Kim

(2019) mentioned that National Fitness 100 Policy Project is a project that reflects the needs of the people, contributing to the motivation for participation in grassroots sports, but the contribution to continuous fitness management through grassroots sports is low and that certification centres, programme diversity and linkage with grassroots sports are insufficient. In addition to the problems found in previous studies, the problems that need improvement, which this researcher found based on the various policy experts interviewed by this researcher and policy documents, were first, a lack of budget, second, the low participation rate in customised program classes, and lastly, a lack of facilities. In order to improve them, I would like to benchmark the UK's Duke of Edinburgh's Award to suggest alternatives.

#### 9.3.2.1. The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE)

DofE is the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, which consists of three stages of bronze, silver and gold based on age and performance evaluation of the programme and divides all adolescent participants aged 14 to 24 into four areas: voluntary service, skill, physical recreation and adventurous journey, providing programmes to set and promote their personal goals (The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE), 2012). This programme is operated by the 'DofE' charitable institution and has been conducted with the purpose of pursuing the mental health and emotional well-being of adolescent participants and improving their physical health, fitness and participation in philanthropy and local community activities (Van Baren et al., 2015; The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021c). Although the DofE programme differs in the age range and programme of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project in Korea, it has the same purpose in that it is a system for improving the mental and physical health of the people.

The result of attention in this study is the effect of the DofE programme on the physical changes of the participants. The physical recreation area of the DofE programme is essentially participation in sports activities, which should be a pleasant experience regardless of physical ability and contribute to having a healthy body and mental strength. Sports activities are essential for individual well-being and play a role in forming beneficial lifestyles from a long-term perspective and they can develop a sense of continuous achievement and satisfaction by completing challenges. Of course, it is true that there is a difference between the DofE

programme and the National Fitness 100 Policy Project in their overall aspect, but in the field of physical recreation section of the DofE programme, it is not difficult to see that it has the same purpose as the National Fitness 100 Policy Project. For example, it helps participants to have a healthy body and mind by participating in sports activities and promotes steady participation with pleasure, achievement and satisfaction through participation in sports activities. In addition, when looking at the participation rate by age, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's participants are concentrated in their 40s and 60s, which is expected to effectively raise the participation rate of adolescents by benchmarking the DofE programme, and I would like to propose policies for the limitations found by this researcher (Jeon et al., 2015).

#### 9.3.2.2. Recommendations for the problems with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project: a lack of connection between measurement and exercise

The budget shortage problem, the first limitation of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, is a problem in the operation of the fitness certification centre and the fitness promotion class, leading to difficulties in operating space, classroom operation and manpower supply. Looking at the 2020 DofE financial statements, the total budget for the 2020 DofE programme (including government support, corporate sponsorship, charity fundraising, investment funds, etc.) was approximately £17.6 million (approximately £17 million in 2019). It is confirmed that the amount raised has increased by approximately £5 million (approximately £4.7 million in 2019). This can be seen as a number reflecting the increase in the number of accredited organisations and participants (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2020).

Meanwhile, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, unlike the DofE programme, is operated only with the government's budget. Table 9.2 is the current status of annual support for the National Fitness 100 Policy Project.

Table 9.3 Status of annual support for the National Fitness 100 Policy Project

(unit: mil. pound)					
Criteria	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Support amount	3.5	4.2	4.4	5	5.7

Source: Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (2020)

As shown in Table 9.2, when the National Fitness 100 Policy Project for adolescents and adults aged 14 to 65 is compared with the DofE programme, currently being conducted for adolescents and young people aged 14 to 25, its annual budget is about one-third as large, showing a relatively large difference. Therefore, as suggested by previous studies, an increase in the budget of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project seems urgently needed. The National Fitness 100 Policy Project is a government policy project, and the necessary budget for the project must be secured by the government. Therefore, discussions with the MCST and the Korea Sports Promotion Foundation should begin to solve its current budget problem. In addition, as can be seen from the DofE's profit structure, budget supply and demand through various methods are needed like the DofE programme with more active donation activities, in other words, fundraising through websites, securing subsidies through partnerships with other institutions and organisations and subsidising registration and tuition fees can be suggested as alternatives, and efforts are needed to gradually solve the problem of the lack of project operating expenses.

Second, the limitation of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project is the low participation rate of its customised programme classes. The National Fitness 100 Policy Project has set up a process in which participants in the Fitness Certification Centre complete fitness measurements and attend the fitness promotion classes after receiving customised programmes from sports prescribers. However, it has been pointed out as a limitation because the number of class participants is significantly lower compared to the number of people who received fitness measurements.

Therefore, first, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's fitness measurement and fitness promotion classes are conducted in one place, while those of the DofE programme are conducted in various places such as schools, universities, local institutions, sports clubs and government institutions. If they are conducted in such a variety of places, not only will the accessibility of the people improve, but the participation rate will also improve. Second, the creation of online recording notes and the presence of award leaders and assessors can be used as an alternative applicable to the National Fitness 100 Policy Project. In the DofE programme, participants record the changing process on an online record notebook at the same time they start the programme, and all these records are reviewed by award leaders

and assessors. In other words, it can be understood as the concept of being managed, and if the National Fitness 100 Policy Project participants also prepare a facilitator who can use the record notes to lead them to completion, it can lead to a high participation rate in the National Fitness 100 Policy Project with stronger motivation and drive.

Lastly, the limitation of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project discovered by this researcher was the lack of facilities. As of 2021, 10 years after the start of the project, 75 Fitness Certification Centres were installed across the country, which was insufficient compared to the government's plan. In the UK DofE programme, the total number of institutions accredited for the operation was 3,781, including schools, universities, sports clubs, companies and associations, as of 2021 (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021a). As planned at the beginning of implementation, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project requires efforts to expand the Fitness Certification Centre and fitness promotion classes nationwide to promote health by fitness measurements and making sports a part of daily life for all citizens. To this end, first, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project proposes to work with the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee to utilise 169 public sports clubs nationwide. According to the "2019 Public Sports Club Performance Evaluation", 47.1% (25) of the 53 public sports clubs in 2019 failed to achieve their annual target number of members, and nine of them secured less than 50% of their target (Korean Sport & Olympic Committee, 2019a). If the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's participants can use the facilities of public sports clubs, the number of members can be secured as much in the case of public sports clubs, and in the case of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project, it can be expected to form a virtuous cycle of linking participants to grassroots sports. Second, cooperation with the Ministry of Education (MofE) is advantageous because students can complete fitness measurements and sports prescriptions in one place at school. According to the MofE, there were 11,657 elementary, middle and high schools nationwide (Ministry of Education (MofE), 2019). Of course, it is difficult to proceed with the National Fitness 100 Policy Project in all schools, but gradual efforts under long-term plans seem necessary. Third, it is believed that the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's facility problem can be solved by establishing a cooperative system with the Facility Management Corporation to utilise sports facilities nationwide in addition to consulting with local governments, counties and other cooperative organisations. As the National Fitness 100 Policy Project is a policy project promoted by the government, it is

expected that the problem of facilities can be largely resolved if the government prepares with a will and measures for facility expansion.

#### **9.4. Policy recommendations for limitations of Korean sports governing bodies**

9.4.1. Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea Olympic Committee (NOC) and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC): The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) and the KSOC

The South Korea NOC intensified conflict with the KSOC over the issue of dispatching athletes to the Bangkok Asian competition in 1966, and it eventually merged with the KSOC in 1968. However, for a long time, various sports experts, including the MCST, have argued that the South Korea NOC should be separated from the KSOC and have been pushing for it; however, it was cancelled due to the KSOC's opposition. The reason why the MCST wants the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC is that, first, the KSOC is a representative organisation of domestic sports organisations and should not pursue only the Olympics and elite sports; however, it has pursued Olympic supremacy and elite sports priority based on its merge with the South Korea NOC, the nature of its affiliated organisation (Park, 2015). Due to this, it was found that the problem of unbalanced growth with grassroots sports was continued. Second, as the KSOC is a public institution that relies on state subsidies for most of its budget, it is obliged to receive management and supervision from the MCST, which, however, has been rejected based on the independence of the South Korea NOC as a shield (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019b). Due to these issues, the MCST continues to push for the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC, but the KSOC opposes it due to reasons such as the violation of the IOC Charter, undemocratic recommendations and prematurity. Therefore, this chapter examines the functions, goals and roles of the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) and the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), the sports-governance system that the Korean government has long cherished and which is suitable and benchmarked for separate systems with the KSOC and the South Korea NOC. Therefore, this researcher would like to introduce this system to the MCST and the KSOC.



#### 9.4.1.1. Australian Olympic Committee (AOC)

The National Olympic Committee in Australia is the Australian Olympic Committee which is responsible for Australia's developing, promoting and protecting of the Olympic Movement. Being a non-government and not-for-profit organisation in Australia, it is committed to the development of youth and sport within the country. It also states that it is their responsibility to choose, send and fund all Australian teams which participate in the Olympic Games (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2021). The AOC formed a more direct relationship with the National Federations (NFs) of Sports, improved the structure to conform to the Olympic Charter, and tried to become more independent from the Australian government in terms of financial support (Blood, 2018). In addition, the AOC established its goals, roles and missions based on the Olympic Charter established by the IOC, and the AOC's association articles were approved by the IOC.

The AOC conducts Olympic sports in accordance with the Olympic Charter and regulations, and promotes, raises awareness and encourages all individuals in Australia to participate in sports, thereby developing grassroots sports and promoting elite sports. In addition, the AOC took measures against discrimination and violence, eradicated not only doping but also all forms of competition manipulation and corruption and adopted and implemented the World Anti-Doping Code. It also exercised the exclusive power of the Australian teams participating in all Olympics and worked on the selection and dispatch of team members. These tasks may be performed in cooperation with government agencies, but activities that violate the Olympic Charter must not be performed. When applying for hosting the Olympic Games, the AOC exercised exclusive power to select the host city, and finally, the AOC maintained its autonomy and resisted political, legal, religious and economic pressures that could prevent it from complying with the Olympic Charter. As such, the AOC is independently committed to the development of Australian sports, especially the growth of the Olympic team, without interference from the Australian government. Furthermore, it is also the responsibility of the AOC to provide funds to the Australian Olympic team.

According to the AOC's 2017 annual report, it was announced that the AOC raised funds through commercial partnerships, fundraising, IOC Solidarity and profit distribution of the

AOF. Looking at it closely, first, it received £33.7 million in cash, products and services from the AOC's commercial partners, Alibaba Group and Intel, which were the IOC's Worldwide Olympic Partner Programme (TOP), and the Australian Olympic team sponsor family for 2017/2018 partners, 8 suppliers and 3 licenses. Second, the AOC, in cooperation with the State Olympic Councils, raised a profit of around £7 million during each Olympiad. This profit was used to cover travel expenses for the Australian teams. Third, as the IOC Solidarity fund, the AOC received £2.8 million, which was used for specific programmes such as coach training, athlete scholarships, community education programmes and other subsidies which were provided for the IOC, Organising Committees of the Olympic Games and Oceania National Olympic Committees for administration, Olympic team support and sports programmes. Finally, the AOF allocated approximately £12.6 million to the AOC. This resulted in a total profit of £56.1 million. As such, the AOC has remarkably high financial independence by raising funds through various methods (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2017).

The funds secured in this way are used for the Australian national teams and are largely divided into three parts. First, the AOC uses funds for the Medal Incentive Funding (MIF) programme, which provides incentives in the form of bonuses to potential Summer and Winter Olympic medallists (ibid). Second, Olympic Solidarity is a special financial fund supported by the IOC which provides technical and financial support for sports development as a programme tailored to the needs and priorities of specific sports federations. The Olympic Solidarity directly provided this support to the AOC through its Continental Association, the Oceania National Olympic Committees (ONOC). Finally, it is the National Federation funding provided by the AOC. Among the elite sports supported by the ASC/AIS, the AOC provides an additional fund for sports that receive financial support of less than £54,577 for one year.

In addition to these, the AOC also recognises the assistance given by the State and Territory Institutes and Academies of Sport to various NFs and athletes, allowing them to prepare for the Olympic Games. Furthermore, the AOC recognises the Queensland Government and the NSW Government's direct contribution in partnering with the AOC in providing Olympic school programmes in their States. There are separate programmes and funding guidelines for sports which are listed on the programmes for the 2018 and 2022 Olympic Winter Games

and for which £5,017,967 had already and would continue to be budgeted from 1 January 2017 to 31 December 2020. As such, it can be seen that the AOC is offering support in various ways to form a successful Olympic team.

#### 9.4.1.2. Australian Sport Commission (ASC)

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) is a sports management agency under the Australian government, leading a wide range of Australian sports, including promoting cooperation among sports organisations, encouraging people to participate in sports, expanding the financial base and supporting the elite sports system (ASC, 2021). The 'Sport 2030 Plan' announced by the Australian central government in 2018 was a policy programme to make Australia the world's most active sports country and encourage more Australians to be physically active. As one of the main agendas of the Sport 2030 Plan, the national sports organisation, the ASC, has been newly changed to Sport Australia, which is a fresh and friendly name for promoting smoother relations with Australian communities (Cameron, 2018; Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018). Sport Australia consists of the AIS and Sportaus, and the AIS leads the Elite Sports System which helps Australian elite athletes succeed in international competitions. Sportaus is in charge of the general parts of Australian sports and promotes Australians' participation in sports by working with the sports industry and the wider community from grassroots sports to the pinnacle of elite international competitions (ASC, 2021).

Sportaus' work is first delivered to partners throughout the sport, such as NSOs, the AIS, the AOC, the APC, the CGA, the Office for Sport and other Australian Government agencies, State and territory departments, institutes and academies of sport, business and other sectors, and realises their visions using their support and expertise. Second, Sportaus continues to develop its leadership within the sector with a general perspective and understanding of the challenges and trends that will affect the operations of the sports sector and the systems at home and abroad. Third, Sportaus advocates the value of sports across the Australian government and wider communities. Fourth, Sportaus works with partners to improve the capabilities and competencies of sports organisations and maximise the participation of Australians. Fifth, Sportaus provides, translates and shares analysis and insights for partners

to make improved decisions across the sectors. Sixth, Sportaus interacts directly with Australians to raise awareness of the value of physical activity as part of their daily lives. Finally, Sportaus, in collaboration with its partners, encourages the inclusion of physical activities and physical abilities in the educational environment so that all Australians promote the value of physical activities from an early age (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018; 2020).

The Australian government (federal, state and local) invests more than \$1.3 billion annually in the sports and active recreation sectors. This increases participation from the community in physical activity, such as sport and active recreation, which is seen as a main goal in helping to achieve social policy objectives at the national, state and local levels in addition to public health (Roeger et al., 2021). Among them, the ASC received funding from the Australian federal government to support elite and grassroots sports as shown in Table 9.3.

Table 9.4 2018-20 ACS financial statement (unit: million pounds)

	Total Income	Governm ent funding	Funding from others	Elite sports	Sporting school	Grassroots sports (Participati on)	Others
2020	353.6	322.4	31.2	143.9	40.1	17.2	152.4
2019	418.7	388.5	30.2	140.1	40.2	17.1	221.3
2018	402.1	374.3	27.8	131	41	20.3	208.8

source: ACS (2018; 2019; 2020)

As shown in Table 9.3, it was confirmed that more than 90% of the ACS's total revenue is supported by the government, and about 10% is secured from the accommodation, facility hire, retail, cafe and children. On the other hand, the fund the ASC receives from the government is generally distributed to elite sports, school sports and grassroots sports, and elite sports are supported through the AIS, which supports high-ranking athletes, sports events, teams' programmes, athletes' pathways and well-being, camps, etc., and, in 2015, launched the Sports Schools program<sup>3</sup>, providing investment each year for encouraging students to participate in sports. Subsidies for grassroots sports are used for local sports, women leaders in sports programmes, clearinghouses, grassroots sports for the year, physical

<sup>3</sup> Sporting Schools is an initiative of the Australian Government designed to help schools to increase the participation of children in sport and to link them with various opportunities in grassroots sports. This programme began in 2015, and has since partnered with more than 30 NSOs (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2019).

activity guidelines, etc. (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018; 2019; 2020). As such, the ASC manages all aspects of sports programmes and policies, including grassroots sports, school sports and elite sports in Australia, and strives to encourage more people to participate in sports. Through these efforts, 89% of adults [over age 15] engaged in sports and other various physical activities, and 54% of women and 69% of men engaged in sport-related activities in 2020. 68% (of the 71% of children who had engaged in organised after-school activities) engaged in sport-related activities (May et al., 2021).

#### 9.4.1.3. Recommendations for the NOC conflicts related to separation: The MCST and KSOC

So far, the research has looked at Australian sports organisations, the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) and the Australian Sports Commission (ASC). These two institutions are operated separately, and although they support different fields, they are cooperating for the development of sports in Australia. This researcher considered Australia's sports system to be a system which the Korean government may wish to follow, and thus would like to introduce it to the Korean government and the KSOC officials. Therefore, this researcher proposes the following. First, although the KSOC is in opposition, claiming that separating from the South Korea NOC will kill elite sports (Jang, 2020), looking at the AOC and the AIS under the ASC, it seems that elite sports can grow and succeed under this structure. When the KSOC and the South Korea NOC are separated, the KSOC can focus on the development of elite sports and grassroots sports and can nurture and support elite athletes with potential for growth. On the other hand, similar to the role of the AOC, the NOC provides programmes and financial support for athletes selected as part of the Korean Olympic teams, which will allow athletes to show better performances in competitions (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2021).

Because the KSOC is fully responsible for complex tasks for human, material and financial resources with a concentration on elite athletes, especially the Korean team's athletes, and is also solely responsible for the Korean team's performance, being a separate operation will ease its burden (Korean Sport Innovation Committee, 2019b). For example, if separated, the KSOC will manage elite athletes across the country, and the NOC will be able to faithfully fulfil its respective role by managing the Korean team's athletes who have entered Jincheon Athlete Village (the Korean team's training headquarters).

Second, when the KSOC and the South Korea NOC are separated, grassroots sports can receive more financial support than before the separation, thus grassroots sports can naturally develop. It could also change to a structure in which grassroots sports can also generate elite athletes. Because the KSOC is currently managing all areas such as grassroots sports, elite sports and Korean teams especially in international competitions such as the Olympics and Asian Games, it has neglected grassroots sports. In addition, the process of discovering promising athletes in grassroots sports, nurturing them into elite athletes, and making them into Korean teams takes a long time, so it is not easy to achieve. Due to this, the unbalanced growth of grassroots sports and elite sports is still maintained, and creating Korean teams out of grassroots sports, the KSOC's goal, has not been realised. Therefore, separation is expected to make this possible.

Third, the most serious dispute between the KSOC and the MCST over the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC is the issue of independence and financial independence of the KSOC. In Australia, for example, the AOC is an organisation independent of the government and has financial independence. And the ASC is a public institution with more than 90% of its support coming from the Australian government. On the other hand, the KSOC currently receives more than 90% of its total annual assets from the government just like the ASC. For this reason, even if the KSOC includes the South Korea NOC, it is a public institution with difficulty in achieving independence and financial independence. And the KSOC's claim that the MCST's supervision of the KSOC is against the IOC association articles is misleading (Shon, 2017; Lim, 2019). When the South Korea NOC becomes independent, the government's support for Korean teams will be used for elite sports and grassroots sports development funds, allowing a higher investment amount. Conversely, the finances used for Korean team's athletes will be supported by the South Korea NOC through fundraising just like the AOC (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2017). In addition, the South Korea NOC will have improved authority to control Olympic marketing and increase licensing profit.

Of course, the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC does not mean that they would not cooperate with each other. One example is the National Federation Funding among the AOC's financial aid programmes. Through this, among the NFs of sports (elite sports events) supported by the ASC/AIS, the AOC will provide an additional fund for sports

organisations that receive less than £554,577 in financial support for a year. Accordingly, the supported fund in 2017 was £252,150 (ibid). As such, the roles of the two institutions are different, but the direction for the development of Australian sports is the same, and they are cooperating with each other as long as they do not violate the IOC association articles. As such, the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC does not mean that elite sports will die, but it is expected to serve as an opportunity for further growth and development in connection with each other. In fact, these problems have been appearing for a long time, which many sports experts, including sports policy researchers and the MCST officials, are aware of; however, they have not been able to separate the two institutions very quickly, and the KSOC officials are opposed to the separation. Nevertheless, according to the investigation conducted by this researcher, it appears that the separation of the KSOC and the South Korea NOC is necessary.

#### 9.4.2. Lack of Cooperation between Government Ministries: Non-cooperation between the MCST and Ministry of Education

Beginning a long time ago, Korea's Ministry of Education (MofE) tried various programmes to revitalize PE and school sports (SS). For example, various sports programmes such as school sports clubs, after-school sports clubs, Saturday school sports clubs and free semester system sports clubs have been promoted. However, sports events (soccer, basketball, dodgeball) that students could participate in in most schools were limited and the number of facilities and professional leaders was insufficient. The linkage between schools and sports clubs was also insufficient, so the students' desire for various choices was not satisfied (Kim and Jeong, 2016). As such, the problems that cannot be solved in schools can be solved by the ME through cooperation with the MCST. Several experts argue that it is necessary to improve this, but it is not possible to present a suitable alternative. Therefore, this researcher confirmed the limitations that appeared as non-cooperation between the MofE and the MCST, that is, problems related to PE and SS, insufficient school sports facilities, diversity in school sports, school sports programmes and sports leaders, and would like to describe policy proposals focusing on the limitations that can be improved by examining and benchmarking the Physical Education School Sports and Club Links (PESSCL) policy, which was first implemented in the

UK in October 2002.

#### 9.4.2.1. Physical Education School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL)

In the UK, policies to revitalise PE were implemented starting in the early 2000s. PESSCL was the first sports policy programme conducted in collaboration with the Department of Education and Skills (DfES) and the Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sports (DCMS) with the goal of changing PE and SS in the UK (Department for Education and Skills (DfES), 2004). Prior to the implementation of this policy, the UK's PE had aggravated difficulties due to the government's indifference, such as a decrease in curriculum time, materials and human support for the subject. In 2001, to solve this issue, Sue Campbell, the CEO of the Youth Sports Trust, gave a presentation to the then UK Prime Minister Tony Blair and the ministers of the DfES and DCMS, as well as other ministers and policy officials, to get support for the development of PE and SS. As a result, in 2002, the UK government provided an additional £459 million. With an additional allocation of £686 million, a total of £1 billion or more in government subsidies was invested in building new school sports facilities across the UK and repairing previous facilities (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2003). In this way, a significant amount of subsidies was invested in PE and SS which played a decisive role in the policy, which suffered from the UK government's indifference and lack of financial investment for decades.

The basic strategy of PESSCL, which was initiated by this, was not to develop a new system but to form structural relationships around schools, sports and local communities and to make them cooperate with one another. In other words, first, new PE infrastructures were prepared around schools and maintained by continuously reinvesting in them. It also created a national school hub structure to copy local best practices and to provide equal access to PE and SS to all children and youth across the UK. Based on this, PESSCL focused on increasing the percentage of children and youth aged 5-16 participating in sports and increasing PE and sports opportunities. Although the PESSCL policy was broad in general, it reflected the interests and agendas of the government and numerous doers and stakeholders involved in the implementation of this strategy and thus was promoted by the cooperation of various government institutions. PESSCL was implemented in earnest by establishing and



strengthening linkages between schools and local sports clubs under the National Governing Body of Sport (NGB), led by cooperation between the DfES and DCMS (ibid). As a result, the DfES and DCMS jointly took responsibility for the PESSCL policy, and Matthew Conway, the YST CEO, was jointly appointed. The PESSCL Policy Project Board consisted of the DfES, the DCMS, NGBs, professional PE associations, head teachers, the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) and Sport England (Phillpots and Grix, 2014).

Conway suggested that both ministries understand the overall picture of the PESSCL policy and then focus on their strategies by categorising specific departments that can contribute to their development. The PESSCL policy was divided into nine detailed programmes, and the programmes were interconnected. The nine detailed programmes were Sports Colleges, School Sport Partnerships (SSP), School to Club Links (SCL), the Gifted and Talented Programme, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) PE and School Sport Investigation, Step into Sport, Swimming, Sporting Playgrounds and Professional Development (PD) (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2003).

The Sports College and School Sports Partnership (SSP) represent two major structural elements of the strategy that provide the foundation upon which the national PE and SS infrastructure are built. SSPs are a family of schools and a group of secondary schools and elementary schools formed around the Sports College. With the Sports College as a website, its Partnership Development Manager (PDM) is responsible for the strategic development of partnerships and cooperates with School Sport Co-ordinators (SSCo) in secondary schools and links with teachers in elementary or special schools to develop PE and SS in the school district (Department for Education and Skills (DfES), 2004). A typical alliance consists of 4-8 secondary schools in one Sports College, with each secondary school having about five elementary or special schools connected to it (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002; Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2011).

The other elements are essentially programmes that serve to deliver policy strategies and to

help get closer to the PSA target.<sup>4</sup> QCA PE and SS Investigation are led by the Qualifications and Curriculum Agency with the main objective of disseminating and exemplifying high-quality practices and contributing to the achievement of high-quality results for PSA targets. The Professional Development (PD) programme includes a service programme managed by the YST and supported by the Association of PE Subjects (AfPE), which formed as a result of the merger of the British Association of Advisors and Lecturers (BAALPE) and the Physical Education Association of the United Kingdom (PEA/UK) (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002; Phillpots, 2007; Hooseman, 2014).

The SCL programme is a policy programme implemented to strengthen linkages between SS partnerships, NGBs and local sports clubs, with an emphasis on increasing the ratio of children and youth advancing from schools to high-quality sports clubs. Various in-school coaching sessions, after-school junior clubs, local sports clubs, festivals and competitions were implemented as methods for this. The Gifted and Talented programme was implemented to find and support more competent sports athletes and aimed to identify and develop the potential sports talents of athletes through the verification process at multiple sports institutions. As an example, the Multi-Skills Academies were established as part of an out-of-school activity programme for talented students aged 9-12, who were managed and supported by Sports Coach UK (scUK) and the YST (Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2004; 2005; Phillpots, 2007; Macdougall, 2008).

Step in Sport is a programme funded by the DCMS and DCSF which encourages children aged 14-19 and youth to learn sports leadership and participate in volunteer work in all environments, including schools, Local Education Authorities (LEA), County Sports Partnerships, Sports Government Institutions and sports clubs. Swimming is one of the detailed policy programmes of PESSCL with the goal of supporting all children learning to

---

<sup>4</sup> The Public Service Agreement (PSA) was a national goal for public services set by the government to ensure that policy priorities were being met. PSA targets detailed a government department's "high-level aims, priority objectives and key outcome-based performance targets" (Grix and Phillpots, 2011: 16). The DfES/DCMS' PSA target is to increase the ratio of UK children and youth enjoying at least 2 hours of high-quality PE and SS in and out of curriculum every week from 25% in 2002 to 75% in 2006 and further to 85% in 2008 (Department for Children, School and Families, 2008). However, the 2008 target was achieved one year earlier, and in 2006/07, 86% of children and youth aged 5-16 enjoyed at least two hours of PE and SS (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2008).

swim. Swimming and water safety has been designated as the UK national PE curriculum since 1994 and has provided practical guidelines and advice to schools and local authorities, such as how to increase the participation rate of swimming classes and how to provide effective swimming classes by publishing the "Swimming Charter" in 2003. Sporting Playgrounds is a policy programme that encourages PE and sports activities in elementary school children and invests in playgrounds to improve children's school attendance and behaviours (Jung, 2014; Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2007; Parker, 2006; Hooseman, 2014; Swim England, 2021).

Beginning in the early 2000s, the UK government's investment in school facilities and local sports facilities played an important role in the success of the PESSCL policy. Looking at the 2002 Joint DCMS/Strategy Unit Report's 'Game Plan', it was found that after school education, youth's interest in sports gradually decreased which led to a sharp decline in the participation rate in sports. To this end, the UK government decided that it was necessary to establish a linkage between schools and local clubs and urgent to increase the availability of sports facilities, so it implemented various policy programmes and provided new funds (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002). Looking at Figure 9.4, it can be seen that the number of sports facilities installed on school grounds has increased, and these facilities accounted for 73% of new public sports facilities opened in 2003 and 78% in 2004 (Audit Commission, 2006).

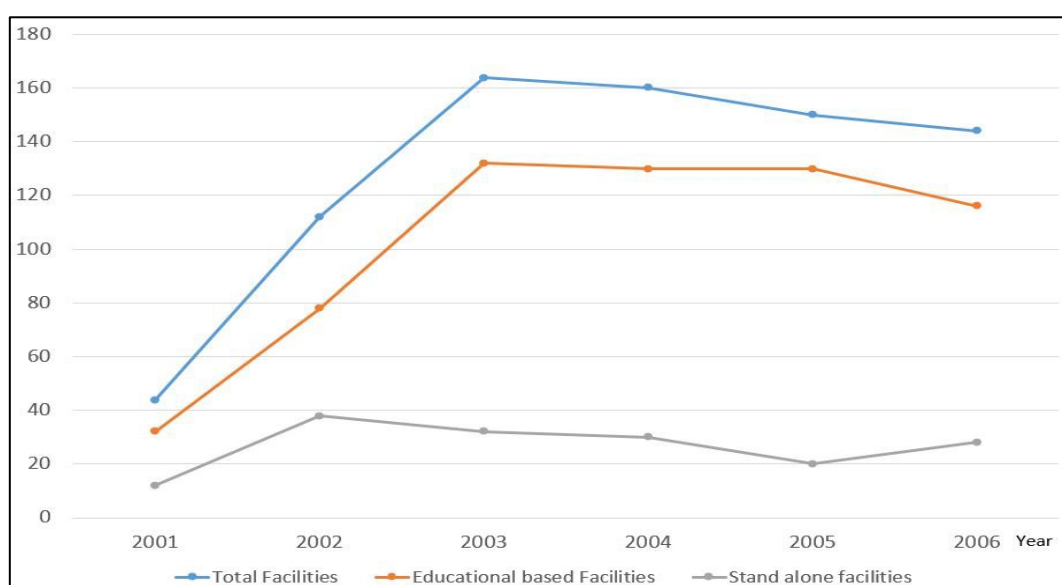


Figure 9.4. The number of new sport and recreation facilities  
Source: Audit Commission (2006)

In addition, from 2001 to 2007, about 4,000 sports facilities were built or repaired in the local communities, and a total of £1 billion was supported for this purpose (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2008). As such, the UK government continuously invested new capital in sports facilities through various policy plans and recommended the construction of schools and local communities or the use of existing sports facilities. The best policy success in the 2000s was achieved by children age 5-16 and youth who were PSA targets for the DfES and DCMS and increased their participation in PE and SS for at least two hours every week. The goal was to increase the number of participants from 62% at the time of 2003/04 to 85% in 2008, but this goal was exceeded at 86% in 2007. Table 9.4 summarises a survey of PE and SS in the UK from 2003/04 to 2007/08.

Table 9.5 Survey on PE and SS in the UK from 2003/04 to 2007/08

	03/04	04/05	05/06	06/07	07/08
Participation in high-quality PESS (2 hours)	62%	69%	80%	86%	90%
Curriculum time spent on PE (mins)	103	107	111	115	118
Participation in intra-school competition	22%	25%	71%	58%	66%
Participation in inter-school competition	33%	35%	37%	35%	41%
Provision of sports and activities (n)	14.5	15	16	17	17.5
Number of clubs linked to each school (n)	5	5	6	7	7.6
Pupil participation in clubs (%)	19%	22%	27%	29%	32%

Sources: Department for Children, School, and Families (2007; 2009)

As presented in Table 9.4, this increase supports the government's claim that the main impact of PESSCL has expanded participation in PE, SS and after-school sports activities (Department for Children Schools and Families, 2007; 2009; Jung, 2014).

The Ofsted and Loughborough Partnership (LP)'s evaluations of PE and SS were all positive regarding partnership management, teacher and student benefits and school-club linkage. Above all, the benefits of the SSP raised awareness of the value of PE subjects (Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2006; 2009). Also, according to school staff, it was reported that the influence of PESSCL had a positive effect on students' social and personal competency, i.e., behaviour change, achievement, attendance, attitude and self-esteem (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2004; 2008). In addition, each school reported that the SSP motivated children and youth to participate in PE and SS and helped

contribute to their personal development and well-being (Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2006). Of course, not all schools provided programmes suitable for all students' needs and abilities, but these positive results can be seen as a promising sign of raising the level of young students and improving the quality of education. Professional development and training opportunities for teachers had a positive effect on educational quality improvement, and extensive Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities promoted cooperative learning among teachers (Armour and Makopoulou, 2008). In addition, the number of qualified active coaches, leaders and employees increased high-quality education in PE and SS (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2009).

The SSP allowed subject leaders to influence the teaching of fellow teachers, especially the quality of education in elementary schools, which made faster progress due to significant support from the SSCo (Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2004; 2006). Also, Primary Link Teachers (PLT) had a significant impact on the improvement of confidence, knowledge and skills of other elementary school teachers (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2005).

#### 9.4.2.2. Recommendation of the lack of cooperation between government ministries: Non-cooperation between the MCST and the Ministry of Education

So far, this research has looked at the UK's PESSCL policy programme. As a result, it can be seen that PESSCL was promoted through close linkage with various institutions such as NGBs and OFSTED based on cooperation between the DfEF and DCMS and it also achieved great results in changing PE and SS; students were also interested in sports as it is playing a major role in providing participation opportunities. Based on this, alternatives that can be applied to the problem of a lack of linkage between Korean institutions were suggested as follows.

First, in the UK, Sue Campbell met with ministers of the DfES and DCMS to request financial support, and she eventually persuaded UK Prime Minister Tony Blair and other ministers to receive PE and SS development funds. In particular, she played an important role in successfully implementing the PESSCL policy with aggressive investment in school facilities and local sports facilities by government ministries. For example, they planned to rebuild or improve all secondary and high schools in the UK over a long period of 10-15 years, they

increased the number of sports facilities on school sites and about 4,000 sports facilities were built or repaired in the local community from 2001 to 2007 (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2008). In addition, the UK government continued to increase the facilities and recommended the use of sports facilities in schools and local communities. On the other hand, in Korea, about 30,185 public PE facilities were installed nationwide as of 2019. The Korea PE Association and the Facility Management Corporation, institutions under the MCST, manage these PE facilities, which are mostly used by adults (Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST), 2021). If the MofE cooperates with the MCST, 30,185 facilities will be fully available. In addition to this, more aggressive investment through the linkage between the two government ministries is required. Accessibility is essential for students to use public PE facilities, but public sports facilities which are currently built may have limitations in utilisation because they were not built-in consideration of this. Therefore, as we are aware of the need to prepare PE infrastructure around schools, the investment seems urgent, and in addition, it is necessary to develop practical facilities for more than 10 years, not just over a short period of time, considering various possibilities such as long-term investment as was done in the UK.

Second, PESSCL provided more diverse sports events to increase the percentage of students participating in sports and to increase opportunities for PE and SS (14.5% in 2003/04 to 17.5% in 2007/08) and increased the number of students participating in sports from 19% to 32% as well by linking with clubs and schools where they can learn these sports events (5 clubs in 2003/04 to 7.6 in 2007/08) (Department for Children Schools and Families, 2007; 2009). It was reported that the linkage between schools and clubs could provide a high-quality curriculum and extracurricular activities for children and youth (Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2004; 2005). In addition, as the detailed policy programme of PESSCL, a support system was formed so that all young students could learn to swim. Since 1994, Swimming and Water Safety has been designated as a national PE curriculum, and in 2003, the "Swimming Charter" was released to provide practical guidelines and advice to schools and local authorities, such as how to increase swimming class participation and how to provide effective swimming classes to allow all young students to learn swimming (Swim England, 2021; Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2007). On the other hand, in the case of Korea, various sports clubs are operated where students can participate, but if they connect public and private sports

facilities installed in the area, they can provide the opportunity to participate in more sports events and could raise the participation rate. In addition, MofE in Korea also introduced survival swimming education for the purpose of 'reinforcing safety education' after the Sewol ferry disaster in 2014. Although swimming education for elementary school students has been made compulsory since 2018, the 2020 survey indicated that only 57% of students participated in the class. It was found that the class time is only ten hours per year according to the 'Survival Swimming Education Operation Manual' set by the MofE, and the manpower and infrastructure are insufficient, which aroused many complaints that the progress was not carried out according to the manual (Jo, 2019b; 2019a). Accordingly, it seems important for the MofE, Korea Natation Association and Korea Swimming Federation to work together to set up a clearer manual by referring to the articles of association "Swimming Charter" set by the UK, and it is necessary to improve it by referring to advice such as the class process.

Finally, it is necessary to provide teachers and leaders with training opportunities to develop their expertise, as the PESSCL programme provides them to teachers and leaders, and to improve the educational level of PE and SS for Korean students by promoting cooperative learning among teachers as the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programme of PESSCL. In addition, increasing the number of qualified and active coaches, leaders and staff is an important factor. Also, as in PESSCL's SSP programme, allowing subject leaders to interact with fellow teachers' lessons not only improves the quality of education but also increases teachers' confidence and influences the advancement of knowledge and skills. Furthermore, providing sports experts or coaches belonging to clubs by improving linkage with clubs can provide children and youth with opportunities to participate in high-quality and diverse sports events.

## **9.5. Conclusion**

So far, this study has introduced the policies of the UK, Australia and Norway and suggested alternatives applicable to problems in the Korean sports system.

First, among the problems shown in Korean elite sports, this researcher introduced the UK's PL programme and Australia's ACE, PEP and AW&E programmes and suggested alternatives

to improve the resocialisation of retired athletes. As an alternative, the Korean elite system needs to understand all aspects of athletes, i.e., education, fields of interest, etc., at the time they are working as athletes, not after their retirement, and it is necessary to prepare a process which makes it easier for them to prepare for resocialisation after retirement by recording this information. Also, by using online communities such as myAISplybook, it seems that athletes need a space in which they can communicate with various athletes and share information and learn from one another. Second, a service that can overcome these difficulties should be provided to athletes who are experiencing difficulties in reality through an improved career project programme for retired athletes. Third, there is a need for a place where they can communicate with the general public, develop self-development and technology, and receive necessary education by promoting programmes that can be linked to the local community. Finally, it seems desperately necessary to build a professional counselling system to deal with mental problems with experts to help athletes' mental health.

Second, this thesis introduced the UK's CPSU and IICSA and Australia's SIA to improve upon the issues of physical assault and sexual abuse/assault, which are serious human rights violations of student-athletes, and then suggested applicable alternatives. As an alternative, first, a Sports Ethics Centre is needed. In cooperation with various sports institutions, the Sports Ethics Centre has to work efficiently and immediately upon receiving athletes' reports. Second, it is necessary to provide a clear manual to deal with physical assault and sexual abuse/assault and ensure the protection and stability of athletes and sports participants through continuous inspection and check by the top instruments. Third, the Korean government and the NOC can reduce cases of physical assault and sexual abuse/assault of athletes by conducting continuous investigations and data collection every year and analysing them, which have the effect of protecting them.

Third, this study introduced the Norwegian grassroots sports system to expand the grassroots sports base in Korean grassroots sports and suggested alternatives that could be used for improvement. As an alternative, first, it is necessary to provide sports events and indoor sports facilities with the highest demand based on the survey on grassroots sports participation of Koreans. In Norway, by continuing to support lifestyle sports in high demand, the participation of seniors and women who had moved away from sports activities also



increased, which played a role in increasing the participation of Norwegians. Second, family sports culture is also something that the Korean government needs to work on. In Norway, when children and youths participate in sports, the family's life becomes based on sports life, such as spending time together, talking about sports and sharing common interests by steadily developing and providing programmes to participate in sports. Therefore, the Korean government also needs to actively develop programmes for families to participate in sports together.

To do so, first, the National Fitness 100 Policy Project seems desperate to increase the government's budget to overcome the insufficient budget, which is why this researcher suggests various budget revenue structures, namely, funding activities, partnerships and the cost burden of tuition as alternatives. Second, it is necessary to expand the programme to schools, universities, local institutions, sports clubs, government institutions, etc., and a systematic system, i.e., participants' use of records and assistant assignment to lead participants are expected to increase participation rates due to increased motivation and momentum. Lastly, it is necessary to utilise various local public sports clubs that can provide customised programmes to participants who can receive physical fitness measurements. To this end, they can use public sports clubs in cooperation with the NOC, and for students, it is expected that they will have the advantage of receiving physical fitness and exercise prescriptions at schools.

Fourth, among the limitations of sports instruments, to improve the conflicts of the Korean Olympic Committee (NOC) regarding separation of the MCST and the KSOC, this researcher introduced examples of Australia's operation of separate institutions pursued by the Korean government and present alternatives. In addition, this researcher introduced the UK's PESSCL programme to suggest improvement plans for lack of cooperation between government ministries: non-cooperation between the MCST and the MofE.

Fifth, among the limitations of sports instruments, to improve the conflicts of the Korean Olympic Committee (NOC) regarding separation of the MCST and the KSOC, this researcher introduced examples of Australia's operation of separate institutions pursued by the Korean government and present alternatives. First, if the KSOC and the NOC are separated, the KSOC will be able to focus on elite sports and grassroots sports development, and the NOC will focus

on programmes and financial support for athletes selected for national teams. This can relieve the KSOC's responsibility of the burdens of human, material and financial resources for the national teams. Second, more financial support will be available for domestic grassroots sports, which will have a positive effect on the balanced growth of grassroots sports and elite sports which the government wants. Third, when the NOC becomes independent, the subsidies used by the Korean government for the national teams will be used as development funds for elite and grassroots sports, enabling higher legislative support, while the NOC will support national teams through fundraising, i.e., Olympic marketing control, licensing revenue and partnership. Separation is not a relationship without cooperation, but it will serve as an opportunity for further growth and development in connection with different roles without violation of the IOC's Incorporation Articles.

Finally, this research introduced the UK's PESSCL programme to suggest improvement plans to solve the lack of cooperation between the government ministries of the MCST and the MofE and presented applicable alternatives. First, through cooperation between MCST and MofE, 30,185 facilities managed by the NOC and the Facility Management Corporation, which are institutions under the MCST, can be utilised, and when developing facilities, it is necessary to develop practical facilities with more than 10 years of time, not a short period of time. Second, it is necessary to link with public sports facilities and private sports facilities in the region to provide opportunities for students to participate in more diverse sports events. In addition, it is also important to improve manpower and infrastructure, but it is necessary to set up a clearer manual and refer to the advice on the course of the class to increase the participation rate of survival swimming mandated by the MofE. Finally, it is important to promote cooperative learning among teachers so that students improve their educational level of PE and SS. It is also important to increase the number of qualified and active coaches, leaders and staff. In addition, the quality of education can be improved by fellow teachers sharing their classes with one another, which can improve teachers' confidence, knowledge and skills. And through connection with sports clubs, sports experts and coaches, it will become possible to provide high-quality sports to children and youths and give them the opportunity to participate in various sports events.

The alternatives proposed in this study are judged to be able to bring about various changes

in sports with a socio-cultural-political-economic context. In particular, retired elite athletes can adapt to a new environment through the resocialisation process and build social bonds with the general public through activities such as being coaches and teachers in leisure sports, and it is expected to affect their economic development by providing an opportunity for general sports people to gain more interest in sports.

Second, efforts to eradicate violence and sexual violence, which have emerged as a problem in elite sports, are an opportunity to lower the mental pain of athletes, which is expected to be an alternative to concentrate on sports. It also helps to eradicate suicide and violence among athletes, which has been a social and political problem.

Third, the expansion of sports facilities and the development of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project are expected to be an opportunity for ordinary people to test their physical strength and to easily access sports through connections with sports facilities, and such a system will play a socially positive role such as creating community culture and teamwork as many people enjoy sports. In addition, it is judged that the increase in the number of people visiting sports facilities will have a great impact on the sports industry, and it is also judged that they can play a great role in economic growth by purchasing sportswear, sneakers and other various equipment for sports.

Fourth, the separation of the Korea Sports Council and the Korea Olympic Committee can reduce core mechanisms of excessive elite sports-oriented and Olympic performance-oriented policies and projects of the Korea Sports Council and fulfil its responsibilities as a public organisation under the government (implementing values such as transparency, rationality and publicity) with the autonomy and independence of the National Olympic Committee (NOC). In addition, the Korea Sports Council's intensive support for Korean elite sports and leisure sports is an opportunity to promote people's participation in sports, which increases contact with people and strengthens social networks, which has the effect of enhancing their physical and mental health as well as social cohesion.

Finally, the connection between school sports and sports clubs can help students recover their health and physical strength, enable sports activities anytime, anywhere and have a great influence on community development through the participation of related ministries, regional governments, regional universities and regional sports professionals. In this way,

improving the problems of the Korean sports system can have a positive effect on the Korean sports community and bring about the effect of development.

## **10. Conclusion**

The purpose of this thesis is to identify the problems of elite sports, grassroots sports and Korean sports governing bodies in Korea and to propose policies that can help the sports system in Korea through system analysis of the UK, Australia and Norway, which are advanced sports countries. This inductive qualitative research uses various qualitative methods for a case study from an interpretation perspective, which was able to elucidate the problems of Korean sports system and highlight the policies/programmes from the UK, Australia and Norway that could be applied to the Korean sports system. From using thematic analysis, this chapter concludes the key findings of this research, the research limitations and future research.

### **10.1. Key Research Findings**

When answering the research question: “What are the key problems of Korean sport systems?”, looking at the themes that have been raised from interview responses, for the problems of Korean elite sports, the were found to be challenges with the win-at-all costs mentality, the resocialisation of retired athletes and the problems of school athletic sports. And the main themes of the problems of grassroots sports are problems with expanding the grassroots sports base and limitations of grassroots sports support projects. Lastly, the limitation of Korean sport governing bodies has three main themes: 1) Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea NOC and the KSOC: the MCST and the KSOC, 2) the KSOC, which prefers elite sports, neglecting nurturing grassroots sports and 3) the deficiency of cooperation between government ministries: no cooperation between the MCST and MoF.

Additionally, as it has been determined that solving every problem found through this study in this study is difficult, this researcher has chosen to recommend policies and their potential alternatives to improve Korea’s main problems regarding policies from the UK, Australia and Norway.

To answer the research question 2: “what are the governing bodies’ roles for elite athletes, sporting programmes and participation in the UK, Australia and Norway?”, this study

examined the policies and programmes implemented in the UK, Australia and Norway that can be applied to improve problems found in elite sports, grassroots sports, and sports institutions in the Korean sports system. This was discovered by examining government documents and previous studies and is presented in table 10.1.

Table 10. 1 Answers for the Research Question 2

Problems in Korea	Policy and programme in UK, Australia and Norway	Details
The resocialisation of retired athletes	UK: Performance Lifestyle (PL) programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Programme to help elite athletes in the UK develop their career/education and personal development</li> <li>- Provide customised services by identifying the current status of each athlete</li> <li>- Lifestyle Support (ex: time management, budget and finance, legal advisory services, etc.)</li> <li>- Career and Employment advice (ex: flexible employment and planning for a second career after sport, etc.)</li> <li>- Education Guidance (ex: course works and study programme etc.)</li> </ul>
	Australia: Athlete Career and Education(ACE), Personal Excellence Programme(PEP) and Athlete Wellbeing & Engagement(AW&E) programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Programme on career development and career transition for elite athletes</li> <li>- Support athletes' educational, professional and personal goals</li> <li>- Provide an online system to set step-by-step goals for 'My life, My image, My time, My money, My transition, My work, My study' and support various consultations</li> <li>- Observe weekly through the "Visual Coaching®Pro" online system and exchange schedules and consulting details through emails and smartphones</li> <li>- Provide an online community through myAISplaybook</li> <li>- Consult with an expert about mental difficulties</li> </ul>
Physical Assault/Sexual Abuse issues	UK: Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU) and The Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse(IICSA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Prevention of child abuse and sexual assault/abuse</li> <li>- Work with UK sports councils, NGBs and County Sports Partnerships</li> <li>- Provide a standard to the local, regional and national clubs</li> <li>- Investigating of physical assault/ sexual abuse</li> </ul>
	Australia: Sport Integrity Australia (SIA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Provide assistance and advice for countering of physical assault/sexual abuse</li> <li>- Create a safe and friendly Australian sports environment for children and youths</li> <li>- Cooperate with Commonwealth gov., stat and territory gov., NSOs, SSOs and local clubs</li> </ul>
Problems with expanding the grassroots sports base	Norway: Lifestyle sports, Family sport culture, Linking school and sports club	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Lifestyle Sports <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Support outdoor sports (physically demanding and often adventurous) (skiing, climbing, mountain biking, etc.)</li> <li>- Support Life sports support (walking, swimming, bicycle riding, etc.)</li> </ul> </li> <li>2) Family sports culture</li> <li>3) Linking schools and sports clubs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- linking schools, local communities and sports clubs</li> </ul> </li> </ol>
Problems with the national fitness 100 policy project	UK: The Duke of Edinburgh's Award	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Help youth participants' mental health, physical health</li> <li>- Promote a sense of pleasure, achievement and satisfaction through participation in sports activities</li> <li>- Budget supply through government and various fundraising activities</li> <li>- Cooperation with schools, colleges, sports clubs, companies, associations, etc.</li> </ul>
Conflicts related	Australia: AOC and	1) AOC

to the potential separation of the Korea NOC and the KSOC: the MCST and the KSOC	ASC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- A non-funded institution independent of the Australian government</li> <li>- Budget supply through commercial partners, IOC subsidies, licensing and fundraising</li> <li>- funding Australian teams to the Olympic Games</li> <li>- Provide the Medal Incentive Funding programme</li> <li>- Provided by the AOC for elite sports events that receive financial support of less than £54,577</li> </ul> <p>2) ASC</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- under the Australian government, it is in charge of elite sports and grassroots sports</li> <li>- AIS, an institution under ASC, manages elite sports</li> <li>- Cooperates with partners to improve sports organisations and maximises the participation of Australian citizens</li> </ul>
Lack of cooperation between government ministries	UK: Physical Education School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- collaborate between the DfES and the DCMS with the goal of transforming PE and SS</li> <li>- built new school sports facilities, and repaired old facilities</li> <li>- Focuses on increasing the participation rate of children and increasing PE and SS opportunities</li> </ul>

Although each country's culture, politics and economy are different, for the development of Korean sports, even in consideration of these factors, it is necessary to recognise and study the policies and programmes of various developed sports countries which stakeholders have not encountered. In response, the paper aims to help develop Korea's sports system by introducing policies and programmes which have been implemented in advanced sports countries such as the UK, Australia and Norway and suggesting improvements to the Korean sports system's problems.

To answer research question 3: "How will South Korea learn from the sports systems of the UK, Australia and Norway?", the policies and programmes of the UK, Australia and Norway were applied to the problems in the Korean sports system and improvements to these problems were suggested as follows.

### **The recommendations for the problems of Korean elite sports**

First are the alternatives with which to improve the problems in the resocialisation of retired athletes.

- 1) Identifying aspects of the athletes and providing services that help improve interest in education and work experience for individual development;
- 2) Cooperating with other NGBs and sports organisations to manage athletes rather than managing athletes only through the KSOC's own programme; and
- 3) Establishing a professional counselling system in which experts can help deal with mental problems to help athletes' mental health.

Second are the alternatives to improve physical assets and sexual abuse problems among the human rights violations of student-athletes.

- 1) Improving the Sports Ethics Centre in cooperation with various sports institutions to work efficiently and immediately upon receiving athletes' reports;
- 2) Providing a clear manual for dealing with physical assault and sexual abuse and ensuring the protection and stability of athletes through a system of continuous inspections and checking using the highest-level instruments; and
- 3) Conducting continuous investigation and data collection every year and analysing this data, which is helpful in reducing physical assault and sexual abuse/assault in athletes.

### **The recommendation for the problems of Korean grassroots sports**

First are the alternatives to expand the grassroots sports base.

- 1) Expanding the base through understanding the people's participation demand;
- 2) Developing programmes which families can participate in together to build family sports culture; and
- 3) Linking schools and sports clubs to improve opportunities for students to access sports.

Second are the alternatives to improve the National Fitness 100 Policy Project's problems regarding its limitations of the grassroots sports support project.

- 1) Despairing to increase the government's budget to overcome its insufficient budget;
  - 2) Expanding the programmes to schools, local institutions, sports clubs, government institutions, etc.; and
- Providing a systematic system, i.e., participants' record usage and assistant assignments for leading participants.

### **The recommendation for the limitation of Korean sport governing bodies**

First is the alternatives to improve Conflicts related to the potential separation of the Korea NOC and the KSOC: the MCST and the KSOC.

- 1) KSOC: focusing on the development of elite and grassroots sports;  
NOC: focusing on development of national teams' training programmes as well as financial support for their athletes;
- 2) KSOC: obtaining financial support for grassroots to balance the growth of grassroots and elite sports; and
- 3) KSOC: increasing subsidies for both elite and grassroots sports;  
NOC: being able to help national teams through fundraising, i.e., Olympic marketing control, licensing revenue and partnership.

Second are the alternatives for improving the lack of cooperation between government ministries: non-cooperation between the MCST and the MofE.



- 1) Cooperation between the MCST and MofE which will enable utilisation of 30,185 facilities managed by the KSOC and the Facility Management Corporation, institutions under the MCST;
- 2) Linking with public sports facilities and private sports facilities in the region which provide opportunities for students to participate in a wider variety of sports events;
- 3) Setting up a clearer manual and referring to the advice on the class's course to increase the participation rate of survival swimming mandated by the MofE; and
- 4) Promoting cooperative learning among teachers, increasing the number of qualified and active coaches, leaders and staff, and providing high-quality and diverse sports events to students via sports experts and coaches through connection with sports clubs.

## **10.2. Limitations**

This study has the following limitations. The first is the limitation that only Korean experts, 14 in total, were interviewed. These experts have either a close relationship with the Korean sports system, have worked for a Korean sports institution, or have consistently studied Korean sports policies and systems. Through these, problems with the Korean sports system were discovered. The UK, Australia and Norway were benchmarked for this study, but their policies were discovered solely using data such as sports-related government documents, previous studies, and news. If sports policy stakeholders in each country had been interviewed, it would have been possible to collect more in-depth and more diverse and core data such as new policy data and future policy plans that were not found in this study.

Second, it was possible to discover various problems in the Korean system, namely elite sports, grassroots sports, and sports institutions through interviewing the 14 Korean experts. This paper suggested alternatives by benchmarking policies in the UK, Australia and Norway for the problems that were found to be applicable and received the most attention. However, with this study alone, it was recognised that there was a limit to transfer by benchmarking policies to improve all these problems.

A final limitation lies in the choice of country. For this thesis, the UK, Australia and Norway were selected for policy analysis. For this paper, the policies were analysed after selecting the UK, Australia and Norway. Of course, there is a reason for selecting these countries, but it is also necessary to look at sports policies of other developed sports countries such as the US, Germany and Denmark to transfer their policies to Korea. This is because, among the policies of each country, there may be policies suitable to improve the various Korean problems.

### **10.3. Recommendations for Future Research**

First, this paper proposes a policy for six core problems among the various problems found in the Korean elite system. However, this does not mean that the other problems found are not non-core, and of course, they are problems that need to be improved. Therefore, it is necessary to make policy proposals to improve the problems that were not covered in this study, i.e., challenges with the win-at-all costs mentality, deficiency of the right to learn and camp as the culprit of school sports in elite sports, problems with the public sports clubs in grassroots sports and the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee's preference for elite sports in sports institutions in the next study.

Second, in this study, the UK, Australia and Norway were selected for policy analysis, and applicable policies were proposed to the Korean government and the KSOC as an improvement plan. However, in the next study, it is necessary to present alternatives to solve problems by examining, analysing and proposing more diverse policies from the many sports developed countries.

## References

*2020 Tokyo Olympic*. (2021) [TV] Seoul, South Korea: KBS.

*2020 Tokyo Olympics*. (2021) [TV] Seoul, South Korea: SBS.

African Development Bank Group. (2018) *The Republic of Korea*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th February 2020] <https://afdbannualmeeting.com/2018/en/page/republic-korea>

Ahn, M. (2016) *My Nostalgic House: Current Status of Athletic Dormitory and Life of Student Athlete. Diagnostic report of the National Audit Policy for 2016*. Education, Culture, Sports, and Tourism Committee of National Assembly.

Ahn, M. (2002a) 'Realities and Problems of Korean Culture Sports: From watching sports to playing sports.' *Korea Social Research Center*, 4 pp. 96-125.

Ahn, M. (2002b) 'Studying the Connected Level between School Sports and Community Sports.' *korean Journal of Physical Education*, 41(1) pp. 73-86.

Ahn, Y. (2018) "'The public SC and local governments are interested in changing the paradigm of Korean sports'." *Donga Ilbo*, [Online] 30th October. [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.donga.com/news/Sports/article/all/20181030/92643082/1>

AIS. (2018) *Athlete wellbeing and engagement*. Canberra, Australia: AIS. [Online] [Accessed on 20th October 2021] [https://www.ausport.gov.au/ais/athlete\\_wellbeing](https://www.ausport.gov.au/ais/athlete_wellbeing)

AIS. (2021a) *Share a Yarn*. Canberra, Australia: AIS. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <https://www.ais.gov.au/share-a-yarn>

AIS. (2021b) *Mental Health Referral Network*. Canberra, Australia: AIS. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <https://www.ais.gov.au/mhrn>

Aitken, C. (2017) 'Does elite sporting success influence public participation in sport and exercise?' *Western Alliance*, [Online] 24 May. [Accessed on 23 August 2018] <https://www.westernalliance.org.au/2017/05/does-elite-sporting-success-influence-public-participation-in-sport-and-exercise>

Alexander, K., Stafford, A. and Lewis, R. (2011) *The experiences of children participating in organised sport in the UK: main report*. National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC).

Altheide, D. and Schneider, C. (2013) 'Process of qualitative document analysis.' In Altheide, D. and Schneider, C. (eds.) *Qualitative media analysis*. 2nd ed., London: Sage,

Alvarez, E. and Sintas, J. (2002) 'Contingency table: A two-way bridge between qualitative and quantitative methods.' *Field Methods*, 14(3) pp. 270-287.

Andersen, S. and Ronglan, L. (2015) 'Historical paths and policy change: institutional entrepreneurship in Nordic elite sport systems.' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(2) pp. 197-216.

Andersen, S. S. and Ronglan, L. T. (2012) *Nordic elite sport: Same ambitions, different tracks*. Copenhagen Business School Press DK.

Arfini, L. (2020) "'Sports has played a massive part in my life", Mr Abid Raja, Norway's Minister of Culture & Equality.' *ENGSO youth*, [Online] 5th May. [Accessed on 1st December 2021] <https://www.youth-sport.net/post/sports-has-played-a-massive-part-in-my-life-mr-abid-raja-norway-s-minister-of-culture-equality>

Armour, K. M. and Makopoulou, K. (2008) *Evaluation of the national PE and school sport professional development programme: Interim report 38 months*. Loughborough: Loughborough University.

Asare, B. and Studlar, D. (2009) 'Lesson-drawing and public policy: secondhand smoking restrictions in Scotland and England.' *Policy Studies*, 2009(3) pp. 365-382.

ASC. (2015) *Annual report 2014-2015*. Canberra, Australia: ASC.

ASC. (2018) *Annual report 2017-2018*. Canberra, Australia: ASC.

ASC. (2019) *Annual report 2018-2019*. Canberra, Australia: ASC.

ASC. (2020) *Annual report 2019-20*. Canberra: ASC.

ASC. (2021) *Annual report 2020-2021*. Canberra: ASC.

Ashfield, A., Harrison, J. and Giles, S. (2017) 'Performance Lifestyle in Olympic and Paralympic sport: Where positive psychology informs practice.' In Brady, A. and Grenville-Cleave, B. (eds.) *Positive Psychology in sport and physical activity: An introduction*. London: Routledge, pp. 204-218.

Audit Commission. (2006) *Public sports and recreation services*. London: Audit Commission.

Augestad, P. and Bergsgard, N. A. (2008) 'Norway.' In Hollihan, B. and Green, M. (eds.) *Comparative Elite Sport Development: systems, structures and public policy*. London: Elsevier, pp. 195-217.

Augestad, P., Bergsgard, N. A. and Hansen, A. Ø. (2006) 'The Institutionalization of an Elite Sport Organization in Norway: The Case of "Olympiatoppen".' *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 23(3) pp. 293-313.

Australian Institute of Sport. (2009) *AIS Athlete Career and Education*. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] [http://www.ausport.gov.au/ais/scholarships/ais\\_athlete\\_career\\_and\\_education](http://www.ausport.gov.au/ais/scholarships/ais_athlete_career_and_education)

Australian Institute of Sport (AIS). (1999) *AEC manual*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Sports Commission.

Australian Institute of Sport (AIS). (2014) *Sporting schools*. AIS.

Australian Institute of Sport (AIS). (2019) *Athlete wellbeing & engagement framework: Diving Australia*. Canberra, Australia: AIS.

Australian Labour Party. (1980) *Sport and recreation discussion paper*. Australian Labour Party.

Australian Olympic Committee. (2009) *Australian Olympic Committee's (AOC's) response to the Crawford Report*. Sydney.

Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). (2009) *Australian Olympic Committee's (AOC's) response to the Crawford Report*. Sydney: Australian Olympic Committee (AOC).

Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). (2017) *Annual report 2017*. AOC.

Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). (2021) *Who we are*. Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). [Online] [Accessed on 20th October 2021] <https://www.olympics.com.au/the-aoc/who-we-are/>

Australian Sport Commission. (2014) *Annual report 2013-2014*. Canberra, Australia: ASC.

Australian Sport Commission (ASC). (2011) *Annual report 2010-11*. ASC.

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1986) *Strategic plan 1986/08-1988-89*. Australian Government Publishing Service.

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1990) *Strategic plan: January 1990 to 31 December 1993*. Australian Government Publishing Service.

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1992) *Annual report 1991-1992*. Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1994a) *Olympic athlete program: Making great Australians*. Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1994b) *Annual report 1993-1994*. Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (1996) *Annual report 1995-96*. Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2012) *Australia's winning edge*. Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2017) *ASC annual report 2017*. Canberra: Australian Sports Commission.

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2018) *Annual report 2017-2018*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2019) *Annual report 2018-2019*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

Bache, I. and Taylor, A. (2003) 'The politics of policy resistance: Reconstructing higher education in Kosovo.' *Journal of Public Policy*, 23(3) pp. 279-300.

Baek, S. (2003) 'Chunan elementary school football team dormitory burned, 8th death.' *Yunhap News*, [Online] 27th March. [Accessed on 2nd June 2021]  
<https://www.yna.co.kr/view/PYH20030327000400999?section=photo/index>

Baek, S. (2003) Yunhap News Agency. *Chunan Elementary School Football team accommodation fire, 8 deaths*. [Accessed on October 2nd 2020]  
<https://www.yna.co.kr/view/IIS20050420068000999?catr=P&page=3>

Bajpai, P. (2019) *Emerging markets: Analyzing South Korea's GDP*. Investopedia. [Online] [Accessed on 10th January 2020] <https://www.investopedia.com/articles/investing/091115/emerging-markets-analyzing-south-koreas-gdp.asp>

Baxter, P. and Jack, S. (2008) 'Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers.' *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4) pp. 544-559.

Bazeley, P. and Jackson, K. (2019) *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. 3rd ed., Los Angeles: SAGE.

BBC. (2021) 'Tokyo Olympics: Team GB match London 2012 with 65 medals won as Kenny and Price take gold.' *BBC*, [Online] 8th August. [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.bbc.com/sport/olympics/58125822>

BBC news. (2011) 'Q&A: Building schools for the future.' *BBC news*, [Online] 14th June. [Accessed on 1st of October] <https://www.bbc.com/news/education-10682980>

BBC News. (2020) 'IICSA: Child abuse inquiry hears from 648th and final witness.' *BBC News*, [Online] 11th December. [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-55280991>

BBC sport. (2012) 'UK Sport appoints Simon Timson as performance director.' *BBC*, [Online] 16th October. [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.bbc.com/sport/olympics/19961078>

BBC Sport. (2016a) *Rio Olympics 2016: Team GB beat China to finish second in medal table*. [Online] [Accessed on 5th July 2019] <https://www.bbc.co.uk/sport/olympics/37085511>

BBC Sport. (2016b) *Sport England to invest £88m in grassroots sport, with cycling biggest winner*. [Online] [Accessed on 9th July 2019] <https://www.bbc.co.uk/sport/olympics/38338636>

Bennett, C. J. (1991) 'Review Article: What Is Policy Convergence and What Causes It?' *British Journal of Political Science*, 21(2) pp. 215-233.

Benson, D. and Jordan, A. (2012) 'Policy transfer research: Still evolving, not yet through?' *Political Studies Review*, 10 pp. 333-338.

Benton, T. (2014) *Philosophical Foundations of the Three Sociologies*. London: Routledge.

Bergsgard, N. and Norberg, J. (2010) 'Sports policy and politics – the Scandinavian way.' *Sport in Society*, 13(4) pp. 567-582.

Bergsgard, N. A. (2005) *The powerplay in sport policy and politics. Changes and stability in the sport policy model (Idrettspolitikkenes maktspill. Endring og stabilitet i den idrettspolitiske styringsmodellen)*. PhD. University of Oslo.

Bergsgard, N. A. and Tangen, J. O. (2011) 'Norway.' In Nicholson, M., Høy, R. and Houlihan, B. (eds.) *Participation in Sport: International Policy Perspectives*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge,

Bevir, M. (2006) 'Political Studies as Narrative and Science, 1880-2000.' *Political Studies*, 54(3) pp. 583-606.

Bevir, M. and Rhodes, R. A. W. (2006) *Governance Stories*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Birchwood, D., Roberts, K. and Pollock, G. (2008) 'Explaining differences in sport participation rates among young adults: Evidence from the South Caucasus.' *European Physical Education Review*, 14(3) pp. 283-300.

Blaikie, N. (2000) *Designing social research: The logic of anticipation*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Blaikie, N. (2009) *Designing social research: the logic of anticipation*. 2nd ed., Cambridge: Polity.

Blaikie, N. W. H. (2009) *Designing social research: the logic of anticipation*. 2nd ed., Cambridge: Polity.

Blanchard, S. (2019) 'The world's laziest teenagers: Only 6% of children in South Korea are active for an hour a day – while teens in the US are the fourth MOST active and the UK ranks 29th.' *Mail Online*, [Online] 21st November. [Accessed on 1st December 2021] <https://www.dailymail.co.uk/health/article-7711713/The-worlds-laziest-teenagers-7-children-South-Korea-active-hour-day.html>

Blood, G. (2018) 'The Relationship between the Australian Olympic Committee and the Australian Sports Commission.' *Sporting Traditions*, 35(1) pp. 55-77.

Bloomfield, J. (2003) *Australias' sporting success: the inside story*. Sydney: UNSW Press.

Bloyce, D. and Smith, A. (2009) *Sport policy and development: An introduction*. London: Routledge.

Bosscher, V. (2008) *The global sporting arms race: an international comparative study on sport policy factors leading to international sporting success*. Northam;Aachen; Meyer & Meyer.

Bourdieu, P. (1990) *The logic of practice*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Box, D. (2015) 'Abuse commission disappointed at govt failure to support compo.' *The Australian*, [Online] 25th March. [Accessed on 26th October 2021] <https://www.theaustralian.com.au/national-affairs/in-depth/royal-commission/abuse-commission-disappointed-at-govt-failure-to-support-compo/news-story/456b527d9879c71fd41a17747230d092>

Brackenridge, C. and Rhind, D. (2014) 'Child Protection in Sport: Reflections on thirty years of science and activism.' *Social Sciences*, 3 pp. 326-340.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using thematic analysis in psychology.' *Qualitative Research analysis in psychology*, 3(2) pp. 77-101.

Breivik, G. (2003) *Moderniseringsprosesser i idretten [Modernization processes in sport]*. Oslo.



Breivik, G. (2013) *Jakten på et bedre liv: fysisk aktivitet i den norske befolkning 1985-2011*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Breivik, G. and Vaagbø, O. (1998) *Development in physical activity among Norwegians in the period from 1985–1997*. Oslo.

Britain For Events. (2019) *Great Britain at the Olympics*. [Online] [Accessed on 5th July 2019] <https://www.britainforevents.co.uk/great-britain-at-the-olympics/>

British Council. (2013) *Sport in the UK*. [Online] [Accessed on 5th July 2019] <https://esol.britishcouncil.org/content/learners/uk-life/life-uk-test/sport-uk>

British Olympic Association. (2014) *BOA services*. British Olympic Association. [Online] [Accessed <http://www.teamgb.com/boa-services>

Britton, B. (2018a) 'The secret behind Norway's Winter Olympic success.' *CNN*, [Online] 24th February. [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <https://www.wptv.com/sports/olympics/the-secret-behind-norways-winter-olympic-success>

Britton, B. (2018b) 'The Secret behind Norway's Winter Olympic success.' *CNN*, [Online] 25th February. [Accessed on 17th July 2019] <https://edition-m.cnn.com/2018/02/24/sport/norway-winter-olympic-success-intl/index.html?r=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.google.com%2F>

Brockett, C. (2017) 'Australia: Evolution and Motivators of National Sport Policy.' In Scheerder, J., Willem, A. and Claes, E. (eds.) *Sport Policy Systems and Sport Federations: Acorss-National Perspective*. London: Palgrave Macmillan,

Brookes, S. and Wiggan, J. (2009) 'Reflecting the public value of sport. A game of two halves? Public Management Review ' *Public management review*, 11(4) pp. 401-420.

Browne, R. (2014) 'Sex abuse victim lashes out at church elders at royal commission.' *The Sydney Morning Herald*, [Online] 17th October. [Accessed on 26th October 2021] <https://www.smh.com.au/national/sex-abuse-victim-lashes-out-at-church-elders-at-royal-commission-20141017-117nc0.html>

Browne, R. (2015) 'Royal commission: Knox Grammar teachers though paedophile was just 'showing off;.' *The Sydney Morning Herald*, [Online] 25th February. [Accessed on 26th October 2021] <https://www.smh.com.au/national/nsw/royal-commission-knox-grammar-teachers-thought-paedophile-was-just-showing-off-20150225-13o3cb.html>

Bryman, A. (1988) *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*. London: Routledge.

Bryman, A. (2016) *Social research methods*. Fifth ed., New York;Oxford;: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and Burgess, R. (1999) *Qualitative research*. 2nd ed., London: Sage.

Buggel, E. (1986) 'Mass-sport activities and top-class athletics: Unity or contradiction?' In Redmond, G. (ed.) *Olympic Scientific Congress 1984*. Vol. 7. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, pp. 43-49.

Bulmer, S. and Padgett, S. (2004) 'Policy transfer in the European Union: An institutionalist perspective.' *British Journal of Political Science*, 35(1) pp. 103-126.

Bulmer, S., Dolowitz, D., Humphreys, P. and Padgett, S. (2007) *Policy transfer in European union governance*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Cairney, P. (2013) 'Standing on the shoulders of giants: How do we combine the insights of multiple theories in public policy studies?' *Policy Studies Journal*, 41(2) pp. 1-21.

Cairney, P. (2019) *Understanding public policy: theories and issues*. Vol. 2. New York;Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire;: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Cairney, P. and Weible, C. (2015) 'Comparing and contrasting Peter Hall's paradigms and ideas with the advocacy coalition framework' in M. Howlett and J. Jogan (eds.) *Policy Paradigms in Theory and Practice*. Basingstoke: Palgrave.

Cairney, P. and Weible, C. (2017) 'The new policy sciences: Combining the cognitive science of choice, multiple theories of context, and basic and applied analysis.' *Policy Sciences*, 50(4) pp. 619-627.

Camden Council. (2021) *Take part in the Duke of Edinburgh's Award*. [Online] [Accessed on 5th October 2021] <https://www.camden.gov.uk/take-part-in-the-duke-of-edinburgh-s-award>

Cameron, N. (2018) 'How Sport Australia plans to build out a new national sporting agenda.' *IDG Communications*, [Online] [Accessed <https://www.cmo.com.au/article/644638/how-sport-australia-plans-build-new-national-sporting-agenda/>]

Campbell, H., Johnson, R. and Larson, E. (2004) 'Prices, davices, people, or rules: the relative effectiveness of policy instruments in water conservation.' *Review of Policy Research*, 21(5) pp. 637-662.

Canberra Times. (1994) *AOC meet \$72m games bill says coates*. Canberra: Canberra Times. [Online] [Accessed on 20th October 2021]

Central Intelligence Agency. (2019) *The World Factbook*. [Online] [Accessed on 17 April 2019] <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/uk.html>

Central Intelligence Agency. (2020a) *The World Factbook - Norway*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/no.html>

Central Intelligence Agency. (2020b) *The World Factbook: South Korea*. [Online] [Accessed on 1st January 2020] <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ks.html>

Chae, J. and Kim, H. (2000) 'Research on the Structural Improvement of Korean Sports.' *Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 39(3) pp. 217-230.

Chang, J. (2015) 'Direction of the Legislative Improvement of the Integrated Sport Body.' *Journal of Sport Entertainment and Law*, 18(4) pp. 11-27.

Chang, Y. (2015) 'Constitutional contemplation on fiscal management of united Korean Sports Organization in the point of Life sports Welfare Policy.' *World Constitutional Law Review*, 21(3) pp. 71-92.

Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU). (2021) *Develop and improve standards*. Child Protection in Sport Unit. [Online] [Accessed on 25th October 2021] <https://thecpsu.org.uk/help-advice/develop-and-improve-standards-and-framework/>

Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU). (2021) *About us*. CPSU. [Online] [Accessed on 25th October 2021] <https://thecpsu.org.uk/about-us/>

Child Protection Research Centre. (2011) *The experiences of children participating in organised sport in the UK*. Edinburgh: The University of Edinburgh/NSPCC.

Cho, J. (2020) 'Problems and Improvements of the Living SOC.' *Korea Public Land Law Association Public Land Law Rivew*, 90 pp. 173-198.

Cho, Y. (2008) 'Broadcasting Major League Baseball as a Governmental Instrument in South Korea.' *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 32(3) pp. 240-254.

Choi, E. (2010) *Humanities Physical Education and Hanaro Class*. Seoul: Rainbow books.

Choi, J., Lee, J., Kim, H., Juen, D. and Kim, S. (2013) 'The effects of sports club participation in school physical education classes.' *Journal of Korea contents association*, 13(11) pp. 913-923.

Choi, M. and Kim, D. (2017) 'Implementation of social responsibility and ethics of sports media journalism.' *The Journal of the Korean Society for the Philosophy of Sport, Dance, & Martial Arts*, 25(1) pp. 101-118.

Choi, Y. (2019) 'Discussion about realizing 100 years of health through lifestyle sports... Held a discussion on the development of the National Health 100 project.' *Jungang Ilbo*, [Online] 6th December. [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <https://news.joins.com/article/23650625>

Chung, S. (2014) *Development plan through integration of sports organizations*. Master's degree. Korea University.

Chung, W. (2013) 'Verification of Casual Model among Stress Factors and Coping and Student Athletes.' *Journal of Sport and Leisure Studies*, 53(1) pp. 519-534.

Chung, W. (2016) *An Analysis of the Conflict in the South Korean Sports Administrative Organizations Consolidation Process: Focusing on the Integration process of the Korean Olympic Committee and the Korea Council of Sport for All*. Master's degree. Hankuk University of Foreign Studies.

CIA World Factbook. (2019) *Australia*. CIA World Factbook. [Online] [Accessed <https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/countries/australia/>]

Clark, W. and Majone, G. (1985) 'The Critical Appraisal of Scientific Inquiries with Policy Implications.' *Science, Technology & Human Values*, 10(3) pp. 6-19.

Clearinghouse for Sport. (2021) *Child Safe Sport*. Clearinghouse for Sport. [Online] [Accessed [https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/australian-sport-publication-archive/australian-sports-commission/asc\\_programs/asc\\_programs\\_-\\_child\\_safe\\_sport](https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/australian-sport-publication-archive/australian-sports-commission/asc_programs/asc_programs_-_child_safe_sport)]

Coalter, F. (2013) 'Game plan and the spirit level: The class ceiling and the limits of sports policy?' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(1) pp. 3-19.

Coalter, F., Long, J. and Duffield, B. (1988) *Recreational welfare. The rationale for public leisure policy*. Aldershot: Gower.

Cobham Report. (1973) *Second Report of the Select Committee of the House of Lords on Sport and Leisure (select Committee Report)*. London: HMSO.

Coghlan, J. F. and Webb, I. M. (1990) *Sport and British politics since 1960*. London: Falmer Press.

Collins, M. (2010) 'From 'sport for good' to 'sport for sport's sake' - not a good move for sports development in England?' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 2(3) pp. 367-379.

Commonwealth of Australia. (1999) *Shaping Up: A review of Commonwealth Involvement in Sport and Recreation in Australia (Sport 2000 Task Force)*. Canberra.

Commonwealth of Australia. (2010) *Australian Sport: The Pathway to Success*. Canberra, Australia.

Council of Europe. (1976) *European Charter for Sport: Sport for All*. Strasbourg: Author.

Craig, C. L. and Bauman, A. E. (2014) 'The impact of the Vancouver Winter Olympics on population level physical activity and sport participation among Canadian children and adolescents: Population based study.' *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 11(1) p. 107.

Creswell, J. W. and Poth, C. N. (2018) *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches*. International student; Fourth; ed., Los Angeles: SAGE.

Cutmore, C. and Ziegler, M. (2015) 'UK Sport to receive 29 per cent funding increase in Autumn Statement shock in boost for Olympic and Paralympic stars.' *Daily Mail*, [Online] 25 November 2015. [Accessed on 20 November 2018] <https://www.dailymail.co.uk/sport/sportsnews/article-3333545/George-Osborne-announces-UK-Sport-receive-29-cent-increase-funding-Autumn-Statement-shock.html>

dagbladet. (2006) *Truer med å slutte [Threatening to quit]*. [Online] [Accessed on 7th December 2021] <http://www.dagbladet.no/sport/2006/03/11/460387.html>

Dagkas, S. and Lisette, B. (2016) *Families, young people, physical activity and health: Critical perspectives*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.

Dagley, G. (2004) *The athlete career education program(ACE): The usefulness of ACE services and counselor training*. PhD degree. Victoria University.

Daly, J., Kellehear, A. and Gliksman, M. (1997) *the public health researcher: A methodological approaches*. Melbourne, Australia: Oxford University Press.

DCMS. (2008) *Playing to win: A new era for sport*. London: DCMS.

DCMS and Huddleston, N. (2021) 'Government funds biggest ever overseas Team GB.' *DCMS*, [Online] 22nd July. [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/government-funds-biggest-ever-overseas-team-gb>

DCMS, MP, N. H., MP, T. R. H. O. D. C. and MP, T. R. H. B. J. (2021) 'Prime Minister announced £232 million investment to support GB and Northern Ireland athletes path to Paris 2024 Olympic and Paralympic Games.' *DCMS*, [Online] 15th August. [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/prime-minister-announced-232-million-investment-to-support-gb-and-northern-ireland-athletes-path-to-paris-2024-olympic-and-paralympic-games>

De Bosscher, V., Shibli, S., Westerbeek, H. and Van Bottenburg, M. (2015) *Successful elite sport policies: An international comparison of the Sports Policy factors leading to International Sporting Success (SPLISS 2.0) in 15 nations*. Aachen, Germany: Meyer & Meyer Sports (K) Ltd.

De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., Van Bottenburg, M., Shibli, S. and Bingham, J. (2009) 'Explaining international sporting success: An internal comparison of elite sport systems and policies in six countries.' *Sport Management Review*, 12 pp. 113-136.

Dennis, M. and Grix, J. (2012) *Sport under communism: Behind the East German 'Miracle'*. Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (2017) *The sage handbook of qualitative research*. 5th ed., London: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2018) *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. 4th ed., Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Department for Children School and Families. (2008) *School sport survey: 2007/08*. London: Department for Children, School and Families.

Department for Children Schools and Families. (2007) *2006/07 School sport survey*. London: Department for Children, Schools and Families.

Department for Children Schools and Families. (2009) *PE and sport survey 2008/09*. London: Department for Children, Schools and Families. (RR168)

Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2000) *A sporting future for all*. London: DCMS.

Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2002) *Game Plan: a strategy for delivering Government's sport and physical activity objectives*. London: Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS).

Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2008) *Playing to win: A new era for sport*. London: DCMS.

Department for culture media and sport (DCMS). (2008) *Before, during and after: making the most of the London 2012 Games* Department for culture, media and sport (DCMS).

Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2012) *Creating a sporting habit for life: A new youth sport strategy*. Department for Culture, Media & Sport.

Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2004) *Bring communities together through sport and culture*. London: DCMS.

Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2018) *Sporting Future: Second annual report*. Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS).

Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) and Crouch, T. (2015) *Sporting Future - A New Strategy for an Active Nation*. London.

Department for Education, Barran, B. M. and Williamson, H. G. (2021) 3.4 million pound to expand The Duke of Edinburgh's Award in schools. (13th June): Department for Education.

Department for Education and Skills (DfES). (2004) *The impact of school sport partnerships: The result of the 2003/04 PE, School Sport and Club Links Survey*. London: DfES Publications.

Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS). (2003) *Learning through PE and sport: A guide to the physical education, school sport and club link strategy*. London: Department for Education and Skills.

Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and (DCMS), D. f. C. M. a. S. (2003) *Learning through PE and sport: A guide to the physical education, school sport and club link strategy*. London: Department for Education and Skills.

Department of Health. (2018) *Report of the review of Australia's sports integrity arrangements*. Department of Health.

Department of Physical Education and Youth. (1992) *Ten years of Physical Education and Youth Administration*. Physical Education Ministry Planning and Management Office.

Department of Tourism and Recreation. (1976) *Report of the Australian sports institute study group*. Department of Tourism and Recreation.

Det Kongelige Kulturdepartementet [The Royal Ministry of Culture]. (2012) *Den Norske Idrettsmodellen. Melding til Stortinget [The Norwegian sports model. message to parliament]*. Det Kongelige Kulturdepartementet [The Royal Ministry of Culture].

Deutsche Sportjugend. (2012) *DOSB / Fachkonferenz Sport & Schule 2011 „Quo vadis, Sportverein und Ganztagschule?“*. Deutsche Sportjugend.

DfES. (2004) *The impact of school sport partnerships: The result of the 2003/04 PE, School Sport and Club Links Survey*. London: DfES Publications.

Digital, C., Media and Sport Committee. (2017) *Changing lives: the social impact of participation in culture and sport*. Digital, Culture, Media and Sport Committee, House of Commons.

Digital Culture, M. a. S. C. (2021) *Sport in our communities*. Digital, Culture, Media and Sport Committee, House of Commons.

- Dodds, A. (2018) *Comparative public policy*. Second ed., Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dolowitz, D. and Marsh, D. (1996) 'Who learns what from whom: A review of the policy transfer literature.' *Political Studies*, pp. 343-357.
- Dolowitz, D. and Marsh, D. (1998) 'Policy transfer: A framework for comparative analysis.' In Minogue, M., Polidano, C. and Hulme, D. (eds.) *Beyond the New Public Management: Changing Ideas and Practices in Governance*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar,
- Dolowitz, D. and Marsh, D. (2000) 'Learning from abroad: The role of policy transfer in contemporary policy-making.' *Governance*, 13(1) pp. 5-23.
- Dolowitz, D. P., Hulme, R., Nellis, M. and O'Neill, F. (2000) *Policy transfer and British social policy: learning from the USA?* Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Downward, P., Hallmann, K. and Pawlowski, T. (2014) 'Assessing parental impact on the sports participation of children: A socio-economic analysis of the UK.' *European Journal of Sport Science*, 14(1) pp. 84-90.
- Dunlop, C. A. (2009) 'Policy transfer as learning: capturing variation in what decision-makers learn from epistemic communities.' *Policy Studies*, 30(3), 2009/06/01, pp. 289-311.
- Edwards, M., Howard, C. and Miller, R. (2020) *Social policy, public policy: From problem to practice*. London: Routledge.
- Eime, R. M., Sawyer, N., Harvey, J. T., Casey, M. M., Westerbeek, H. and Payne, W. R. (2015) 'Integrating public health and sport management: Sport participation trends 2001–2010.' *Sport Management Review*, 18(2) pp. 207-217.
- EIS. (2013) *EIS competency framework Performance Lifestyle Extract* London: EIS.
- Eisenhardt, K. (1991) 'Better stories and better constructs: The case for Rigor and comparative logic.' *Academy of Management Review*, 16(3) pp. 620-627.
- English Institute of Sport. (2021) *Performance lifestyle mentoring*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.eis2win.co.uk/service/performance-lifestyle/>
- English Institute of Sport (EIS). (2009) *Performance lifestyle: Athletic career development programme* EIS: London, UK.
- European commission. (2014) *Special Eurobarometer 412*,



*Sport and PA*. Brussels: Directorate-General for Education and Culture.

European Union Committee. (2011) *16th Report of Session 2010-11: Grassroots Sport and the European Union*. London.

Eurostrategies. (2011) *Study on the funding of grassroots sports in the EU: with a focus on the internal market aspects concerning legislative frameworks and systems of financing*. London, UK.

Evans, M. (2009) 'Policy transfer in critical perspective.' *Policy Studies*, 30(3) pp. 243-268.

Evans, M. (2017) *Policy transfer in global perspective*. New York: Routledge.

Evans, M. and Davies, J. (1999) 'Understanding policy transfer: A multi-level, multi-disciplinary perspective.' *Public Administration*, 77(2) pp. 361-385.

Evans, M. and Davies, J. (2002) 'Understanding policy transfer: A multi-level, multi-disciplinary perspective.' *Public Administration*, 77(2) pp. 361-385.

Farrey, T. (2019) 'Does Norway have the answer to excess in youth sports?' *The New York Times*, [Online] 28th April. [Accessed on 12th November 2021]  
<https://www.nytimes.com/2019/04/28/sports/norway-youth-sports-model.html>

Fasting, K., Brackenridge, C. and Sundgot-Borgen, J. (2004) 'Prevalence of sexual harassment among Norwegian female elite athletes in relation to sport type.' *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 39(4) pp. 373-386.

Feddersen, A., Jacobsen, S. and Maennig, W. (2009) 'Sports Heroes and Mass Sports Participation—the (Double) Paradox of the 'German Tennis Boom'.' *Hamburg Contemporary Economic Discussions*, (29)

Fielding, N. (2006) 'Fieldwork and policework.' In Hobbs, D. and Wright, R. (eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Field Work*. London: Sage,

FitzGibbon, L. (2016) 'What Australia and other countries pay to Olympic medal winners.' *Fox Sports*, [Online] 2nd August. [Accessed on 21st October 2021]  
<https://www.foxsports.com.au/olympics/what-australian-and-other-countries-pay-to-olympic-medal-winners/news-story/fdc88c3a27729dbbc85fb0b357787cd6>

Flitcroft, C. (2015) 'Vision for sporting future outlined by the government.' *British Mountaineering Council*, [Online] 17th December. [Accessed on 29th October 2019]  
<https://www.thebmc.co.uk/government-publish-sporting-future-sports-strategy>

Flyvbjerg, B. (2001) *Making Social Science Matter: Why Social Inquiry Fails and How it Can Succeed Again*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fontana, A. and Frey, J. (2005) 'The interview.' In Densin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed., London: Sage,

Fossey, E., Harvey, C., McDermott, F. and Davidson, L. (2002) 'Understanding and evaluating qualitative research.' *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 36 pp. 717-732.

Geoscience Australia. (2021) *Australia's size compared*. Geoscience Australia. [Online] [Accessed

Germano, S., Ahmed, M. and Lewis, L. (2021) 'Tokyo Olympics Daily: Karsten Warholm wins greatest ever men's 400m hurdles.' *Financial Times*, [Online] 3rd August. [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://www.ft.com/content/244e4ddd-a539-4690-9aea-7dbd001cf7d7>

Girginov, V. (2017) 'UK: England—National Governing Bodies of Sport and Government Agencies.' In *Sport Policy Systems and Sport Federations*. Springer, pp. 283-302.

Goffe, R., Brun, L. and Damiand, G. (2011) 'Tiled top-down combinatorial pyramids for large images representation.' *International Journal of Imaging Systems and Technology*, 21(1) pp. 28-36.

Goksoyr, M. and Hanstad, D. V. (2012) 'Elite sport development in Norway - a radical transformation.' In Andersen, S. S. and Ronglan, L. T. (eds.) *Nordic Elite Sport: Same ambitions - different tracks*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget, pp. 17-42.

Gordon, H. (1994) *Australia and the Olympic games*. Brisbane: University of Queensland Press.

Gordonstoun. (2021) *Our impact*. [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://gordonstoun.org.uk/our-impact>

Government of Canada. (2022) 'Canada and the G7'. [Online] [Accessed on 2nd July 2022] [https://www.international.gc.ca/world-monde/international\\_relations-relations\\_internationales/g7/index.aspx?lang=eng](https://www.international.gc.ca/world-monde/international_relations-relations_internationales/g7/index.aspx?lang=eng)

Government Printer. (1958) *THE OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE ORGANIZING COMMITTEE FOR THE GAMES XVI OLYMPIAD MELBOURNE 1956*. Melbourne: Government Printer. [Online] [Accessed on 20th October 2021] <https://digital.la84.org/digital/collection/p17103coll8/id/16473/rec/23>

Grassroots Sports Promotion Act 2015. (13251) South Korea: National Assembly of South Korea.

Gratton, C. and Henry, I. (2001) *Sport in the city*. London: Routledge.

Gratton, C. and Jones, I. (2014) *Research methods for sports studies*. 3rd ed., London: Routledge.

Greatest Sporting Nation. (2021) *Per Capita Cup 2021*. Greatest Sporting Nation. [Online] [Accessed on 30th October 2021] <https://greatestsportingnation.com/per-capita-cup-2021/results>

Green. (2003) *An analysis of elite sport policy change in three sports in Canada and the United Kingdom* PhD degree. Loughborough University.

Green and Collins, S. (2008) 'Policy, Politics and Path Dependency: Sport Development in Australia and Finland.' *Sport Management Review*, 11(3) pp. 225-251.

Green, K., Sigurjónsson, T. and Skille, E. A. s. (2018) *Sport in Scandinavia and the Nordic countries*. London: Routledge.

Green, K., Thurston, M., Vaage, O. and Roberts, K. (2015) '[We're on the right track, baby], we were born this way!' Exploring sports participation in Norway.' *Sport, Education and Society*, 20(3) pp. 285-303.

Green, M. (2003) *An analysis of elite sport policy change in three sports in Canada and the United Kingdom* PhD degree. Loughborough University.

Green, M. (2004) 'Changing policy priorities for sport in England: the emergence of elite sport development as a key policy concern.' *Leisure studies*, 23(4) pp. 365-385.

Green, M. (2007) 'Olympic glory or grassroots development?: Sport policy priorities in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, 1960 - 2006.' *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 24(7) pp. 921-953.

Green, M. and Oakley, B. (2001) 'Elite sport development systems and playing to win: uniformity and diversity in international approaches.' *Leisure studies*, 20(4) pp. 247-267.

Green, M. and Houlihan, B. (2005) *Elite sport development: policy learning and political priorities*. London: Routledge.

Green, M. and Collins, S. (2008) 'Policy, Politics and Path Dependency: Sport Development in Australia and Finland.' *Sport Management Review*, 11(3) pp. 225-251.

Grix, J. (2010) *The foundations of research*. Second ed., Basingstoke, Hampshire, England; New York, New York;: Palgrave Macmillan.

Grix, J. (2019) *The foundations of research*. Third ed., London, UK: Red Globe Press.

Grix, J. and Phillpots, L. (2011) 'Revisiting the 'Governance Narrative'.' *Public Policy and Administration*, 26(1) pp. 3-19.

Grix, J. and Carmichael, F. (2012) 'Why do governments invest in elite sport? A polemic.' *International journal of sport policy and politics*, 4(1) pp. 73-90.

Grix, J., Brannagan, P. M., Wood, H. and Wynne, C. (2017) 'State strategies for leveraging sports mega-events: unpacking the concept of 'legacy'.' *International journal of sport policy and politics*, 9(2) pp. 203-218.

Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y. (1998) 'Competing Paradigms in Qualitative research.' In Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y. (eds.) *The landscape of Qqualitative research: theories and issues*. London: Sage,

Ha, D. (2010) 'Policy Transfer and Spread: the Case of Manifesto Movement in Japan.' *The Korea Association for Policy Studies*, 19(2) pp. 245-273.

Ha, M. and Shin, H. (2015) 'Towards an Improving Sport Organizational Efficiency through the Social Network Analysis : Focusing on the Korean Olympic Committee.' *Korean Journal of Sports Science*, 24(2) pp. 649-661.

Ha, N. and Lim, Y. (2001) 'Sport, Power and Society (I): Developmental Aspects of the Sports Movement in Korea, 1945-1992.' *The Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 40(4) pp. 61-73.

Ha, N. and Mangan, J. A. (2002) 'Ideology, Politics, Power: Korean Sport - Transformation, 1945-92.' *International journal of the history of sport*, 19(2-3) pp. 213-242.

Hahn, K. (1936) 'Education and peace: The foundations of modern society.' *The Inverness Courier*, pp. 1-4.

Hakim, C. (2000) *Research design: Successful design for social and economic research*. London & New York: Routledge.

Halsall, A. (2020) 'We reveal the World's sportiest countries: Which nation will take first place?' *Myprotein*, [Online] 6th November. [Accessed on 30th October 2021]  
<https://www.mypotein.co.in/blog/motivation/we-reveal-the-worlds-sportiest-countries-which-nation-will-take-first-place/>

Hanstad, D. V. (2002) *The victory is ours: but who has the credit?: a book about the Norwegian sports adventure (Seier'n er vår: men hvem har æren?: en bok om det norske idrettseventyret)*. Oslo: Schibsted.

Hanstad, D. V. and Skille, E. Å. (2010) 'Does Elite Sport Develop Mass Sport?: A Norwegian Case Study.' 1, pp. 51-68. [Online] [Accessed

Hay, C. (2002) *Political Analysis*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hayoz, C., Klostermann, C., Schmid, J., Schlesinger, T. and Nagel, S. (2019) 'Intergenerational transfer of a sports-related lifestyle within the family.' *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 54(2) pp. 182-198.

Hellevik, O. (2015) 'Hva Betyr Respondentbortfallet i intervjuundersøkelser.' *Tidsskrift for samfunnsforskning* 56(2) pp. 211-231.

Henry, I. (1993) *The Politics of leisure policy*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Henry, I. (2001) *The politics of leisure policy*. 2nd ed., New York: Palgrave.

Henry, I. (2010) *Elite athletes and higher education: Lifestyle, balance and the management of sporting and educational performance*. Brussels, Belgium: International Olympic Committee, University Relation Olympic Studies Centre.

Henry, I. and Bramham, P. (1993) 'Leisure policy in Britain.' In Bramham, P., Henry, I., Mommaas, J. and van der Poel, H. (eds.) *Leisure policies in Europe*. Wallingford: CAB International,

Heo, H., Kim, T. and Kim, K. (2015) 'The Continuation and Generalization Policy on the Outcome of the School Sports Activation Project.' *Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 54(5) pp. 141-151.

Her Majesty's Treasury. (2016) *Corporate contributions to grassroots sports: response to the consultation*. London.

Hiatt, J. F. (1986) 'Spirituality, medicine, and healing.' *Southern medical journal*, 79(6) pp. 736-743.

Hoare, D. (1996) *The Australian National Talent Search Programme*. Coaching Focus.

Hogan, A. and Stylianou, M. (2016) 'School-based sports development and the role of NSOs as 'boundary spanners': benefits, disbenefits and unintended consequences of the Sporting Schools policy initiative.' *Sport, Education and Society*, 23(4) pp. 367-380.

Holzinger, K. and Knill, C. (2005) 'Causes and conditions of cross-national policy convergence.' *Journal of European Public Policy*, 12(5) pp. 775-796.

Home Office. (2021) *Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse investigation reports*. Home Office. [Online] [Accessed on 2nd November] <https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/independent-inquiry-into-child-sexual-abuse-investigation-reports>

Hong, J., Choi, C. and Cho, Y. (2010) 'Social Network Analysis for the Heads of Local Government : focused on the winners in the local government election.' *The Korean Journal of Local Government Studies*, 16(1) pp. 225-258.

Hong, S. (2018) 'The Integration Process of Korea Sports Organizations and Policy Agenda.' *Journal of Sport and Leisure Studies*, 71 pp. 125-139.

Hooseman, A. (2014) 'PESSCL (Physical Education School Sports and Club Links) strategy.' 7th October.

Houlihan, B. (1991) *The Government and Politics of Sport*. London: Routledge.

Houlihan, B. (1997) *Sport, policy and politics: A comparative analysis*. London: Routledge.

Houlihan, B. (2000) 'Sporting excellence, schools and sports development: The politics of crowded policy spaces.' *European Physical Education Review*, 6(2) pp. 171-193.

Houlihan, B. and White, A. (2003) *The politics of sports development: development of sport or development through sport?* : Routledge.

Houlihan, B. and Green, M. (2008) *Comparative elite sport development: systems, structures and public policy*. London;Amsterdam;: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Houlihan, B. and Lindsey, I. (2012) *Sport policy in Britain*. Routledge.

Houlihan, B., Tan, T.-C. and Green, M. (2010) 'Policy transfer and learning from the west: Elite basketball development in the People's Republic of China.' *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 34(1) pp. 4-28.

Howarth, R. and Sanstad, A. (1995) 'Discount rates and energy efficiency.' *Contemporary Economic Policy*, 13(3) pp. 101-109.

Hoye, R. and Nicholson, M. (2009) 'Social Capital And Sport Policies In Australia: Policy transfer in action.' *Public Management Review*, 11(4) pp. 441-460.

Huh, J., Kim, E. and Ko, H. (2020) 'Research on the human rights violation of semi-professional athletes in the workplace ' *Korean Journal of Sport Science*, 31(4) pp. 728-744.

Iacobucci, D. and Churchill, G. A. (2018) *Marketing research: methodological foundations*. 12th ed., Scotts Valley, California, US: CreateSpace Publishing.

Ibsen, B. and Seippel, O. (2010) 'Voluntary organized sport in Denmark and Norway.' *Sport in Society*, 13(4) pp. 593-608.

Im, Y. (1998) *50 years history of Republic of Korea II: from Yushin government to the birth of people's government* Seoul: Deulnuk.

Independent Inquiry Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA). (2021) *About us*. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <https://www.iicsa.org.uk/about-us>

Ingle, S. (2021) 'Team GB chief hails 'greatest achievement in British Olympic history'.' *The Guardian*, [Online] 8th August. [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.theguardian.com/sport/2021/aug/08/team-gb-chief-hails-greatest-achievement-in-olympic-history>

International Monetary Fund. (2018) *5. Report for Selected Countries and Subjects*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th June 2019] <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2018/02/weodata/weorept.aspx?pr.x=48&pr.y=10&sy=2018&ey=2018&scsm=1&ssd=1&sort=country&ds=.&br=1&c=914%2C946%2C137%2C962%2C911%2C122%2C912%2C913%2C124%2C921%2C943%2C963%2C918%2C138%2C142%2C964%2C182%2C960%2C423%2C935%2C968%2C128%2C922%2C135%2C942%2C939%2C936%2C961%2C172%2C132%2C915%2C184%2C134%2C174%2C144%2C146%2C944%2C176%2C178%2C136%2C926%2C916%2C112%2C967%2C941&s=NGDPD&grp=0&a=#download>

International Olympic Committee (IOC). (2017) *Olympic Charter*. Lausanne, Switzerland: International Olympic Committee.

International Sport and Culture Association. (2012) *What does Good Governance mean to Grassroots Sport?* Copenhagen, Denmark.

Investopedia. (2019) *Top 20 Economies in the World*. New York City: Investopedia. [Online] [Accessed on 29th June 2019] <https://www.investopedia.com/insights/worlds-top-economies/>

IOC. (2021) *Olympic Solidarity*. IOC. [Online] [Accessed on 21st October 2021] <https://olympics.com/ioc/olympic-solidarity>

James, O. and Lodge, M. (2003) *The Limitations of 'Policy Transfer' and 'Lesson Drawing' for Public Policy Research*. Vol. 1, pp. 179-193. London, England: SAGE Publications.

Jang, H. (2019) 'The Sports Council's "Pardoned Candle" to push for the separation of the Korean Olympic Committee of the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism.' *Yunhap News*, [Online] 25th January. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] <https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20190125102800007>

Jang, H. (2020) 'Local sports association 'welcome' the amendment to the law containing the basis for supporting operating expenses.' *Yunhap News*, [Online] 5th July. [Accessed <https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20201120131200007>]

Jefferys, K. (2012) *Sport and Politics in Modern Britain: The Road to 2012*. Basingstoke, Hampshire, England; New York, New York;: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jenkins-Smith, H., Nohrstedt, D., Weible, C. and Ingold, K. (2018) 'The advocacy coalition framework: An overview of the research program', in C. Weible and P. Sabatier (eds.) *Theories of the Policy Process*. London: Routledge. pp. 145-182.

Jeon, J. and Yoon, Y. (2012) 'Evaluation of policies to promote school sports club development projects using IPA techniques.' *Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 51(2) pp. 215-225.

Jeon, W. and Lim, S. (2017) 'Settling local governance for advanced Korea Sports Club System.' *Korean Journal of Sociology of Sport*, 30(1) pp. 149-173.

Jeon, W., Lim, S. and Lee, W. (2015) 'The problem and future challenges of "national Fitness Award 100".' *The Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 54(3) pp. 113-126.

Jeong, J. (2020) 'Despite the activation of school sports clubs, the enrollment rate for more than 17 hours has decreased significantly.' *News1*, [Online] 11th October. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] <https://www.news1.kr/articles/?4082992>

Jeong, Y. (2012) 'Olympic coverage, beyond triumphalism.' *Hankyere Ilbo*, [Online] 31st July. [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <https://m.hani.co.kr/arti/society/media/545103.html>

Jessop, B. (1997) 'Capitalism and its future: remarks on regulation, government and governance.' *Review of International Political Economy*, 4(3) pp. 561-581.

Jo, M. (2006) *A Direction of Grassroots sports policy for the Promotion of Leisure Welfare for the Elderly in Korea*. PhD. Kyunghee University.

Jo, S. (2021) 'Jeonbuk sports club caught studying and exercising together.' *Jeonbuk Joongang shinmun*, [Online] 11th May. [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <http://www.jjn.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=825663>

Jo, Y. (2019a) 'Struggling elementary school 'survival swimming'.' *Donga Ilbo*, [Online] 29th April. [Accessed on 4th November 2021] <https://www.donga.com/news/article/all/20190429/95292283/1>

Jo, Y. (2019b) 'Learn to swim in 10 hours? From mandatory survival swimming education to 'private education'....' *Donga Ilbo*, [Online] 28th April. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] <https://www.donga.com/news/Society/article/all/20190428/95289158/1>



Johansen, P. F. and Green, K. (2019) 'It's alpha omega for succeeding and thriving': Parents, children and sporting cultivation in Norway ' *Sport, Education and Society*, 24(4) pp. 427-440.

Jolly, R. (2013) *Sports funding: federal balancing act*. Parliament of Australia Department of Parliamentary Services

Hunt, J. (2020) 'We reveal the World's sportiest Countries: Which nation will take first place?' My protein, [Online] 2nd July. [Accessed on 2nd July 2022]  
<https://au.myprotein.com/blog/motivation/we-reveal-the-worlds-sportiest-countries-which-nation-will-take-first-place/>

Joo, J. (2008) 'Research on sexual harassment experiences of athletes and alternatives.' *The Korean Association of Sports Law*, 11(3) pp. 219-245.

Joongang Ilbo. (1990a) 'Physical education that becomes the subject of the people (Editorial).' *Joongang Ilbo*, [Online] 1st February. [Accessed on 5th December 2021]  
<https://www.joongang.co.kr/article/2433101#home>

Joongang Ilbo. (1990b) 'Promote the formation of a national club.' *Joongang Ilbo*, [Online] 1st February. [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.joongang.co.kr/article/2433101#home>

Jun, M. (2013) '"Let's get back a fair and transparent sports world" Sports Council Midnight Resolution Competition.' *Yunhap news*, [Online] 9th August. [Accessed on 10th November 2021]  
<https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20130809128700007>

Jung, H. (2014) *The social construction of pedagogic discourse in policy for physical education and school sport*. Ph.D.

Jung, H., Pope, S. and David, K. (2015) 'Policy for Physical education and school sport in England, 2003-2010: vested interests and dominant discourses.' *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 21(5) pp. 501-516.

Jung, J. (2016) 'Sad Gold medal for Olympic hero...Why?' *KBS*, [Online] 16th April. [Accessed on 3rd June 2021] <https://news.kbs.co.kr/news/view.do?ncd=3264989>

Jung, Y. (2012) 'Olympic reporting, beyond victory ideology.' *Hankyoreh Media Company*, [Online] 31st July. [Accessed on 14th April 2021] <http://m.hani.co.kr/arti/society/media/545103.html>

Kabir, S. M. S. (2016) *Basic guidelines for research: an interdisciplinary approach for all disciplines*. Chittagong: Mohammad Javed Rahim Book Zone Publication.

Kang, J. (2006) *Korean code*. Seoul: Character and Thought.

Kang, J. W. and Kim, Y. R. (2013) 'A Study on Policy Direction for Elite Athletes` Career Support in Korea through the Australian Athlete Career and Education Program Review.' *Korean Society for the Study of Physical Education*, 18(1) pp. 263-284.

Kang, K. (2009) 'The study on Sports Stress and Burnout among Adolescent Athletes.' *Journal of Sports Culture and Science*, 16 pp. 77-88.

Kang, Y. (2014) 'Elementary school physical education classes are also supervised by 'dedicated teachers': Selection of incumbent teachers and improvement of class... Reinforcement of relatively neglected physical education classes.' *Korean Policy Briefing*, [Online] 18th April. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] <https://www.korea.kr/news/reporterView.do?newsId=148775471>

Keat, R. and Sam, M. (2013) 'Regional implementation of New Zealand sport policy: New instrument, new challenges.' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(1) pp. 39-54.

Keeling, M. and Bellefleur, O. (2016) "*Principlism*" and frameworks in public health ethics. National Collaborating Centre for Healthy Public Policy.

Kim, D. (2020) '100 days since the launch of the Sports Ethics Center, the future direction.' *Korean Policy Briefing*, [Online] 13th November. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] <https://www.korea.kr/news/contributePolicyView.do?newsId=148879892>

Kim, D. (2021) 'expecting "South Korea win gold medals in men's football, women's golf and ect at the Tokyo Olympics."' *Yenhap news*, [Online] 20th April. [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20210420019700007>

Kim, D. (2003) *The Change Process and Direction of Korean Sports Policy*. PhD. Korea National Sport University.

Kim, D. (1998) *Priorities for financial investments in promoting elite sports in Korea*. PhD. Seoul National University.

KIm, D. (2019) *Structural context and future tasks of sports violence*. Master's degree. Yeungnam University.

Kim, E. (2015) 'A Study for the Standardization of the Combined Sports Council's Article.' *Journal of Sports and Entertainment Law*, 18(4) pp. 29-51.

KIm, H. (2010) *A Study of Government Policy in Sports and Administration of Budget after the Games of 24th Olympiad Seoul 1988*. PhD. SungShin Women's University.

Kim, H. (2016) 'the launch of the integrated sports organization and national sports welfare tasks.' *the Korean Journal of Physical Education, National Sports Promotion Seminar* pp. 17-33.

Kim, H. (2016) 'Establishment of KSOC and national physical education welfare tasks.' *National Sports Promotion Seminar*, pp. 17-33.

Kim, H. (2017) '[Academic soccer diagnosis ①] "Abolition of dormitories for children? "It's safer in school.".' *Sports-G*, [Online] 29th November. [Accessed on 4th June 2021] <https://www.sports-g.com/2017/11/29/%ED%95%99%EC%9B%90%EC%B6%95%EA%B5%AC-%EC%A7%84%EB%8B%A8%E2%91%A0-%EC%95%84%EC%9D%B4%EB%93%A4-%EC%9C%84%ED%95%B4-%ED%95%A9%EC%88%99%EC%86%8C-%ED%8F%90%EC%A7%80-%ED%95%99%EA%B5%90-%EC%95%88>

Kim, H. (2018) 'After the improvement of the sports specialist system to guarantee the right to study.' *Golf Journal*, [Online] 2nd May. [Accessed on 2nd June 2021] <https://m.blog.naver.com/8585golf/221266712994>

Kim, H. and Cho, H. (2017) 'A study on the growth experiences of elite students who gave up exercise in university.' *Asia-pacific Journal of Multimedia Services Convergent with Art, Humanities, and Sociology*, 7(12) pp. 567-576.

Kim, J. (2020) 'The effects of the organizational culture of college student athletes on political attitude.' *Korean Journal of Sports Science*, 29(1) pp. 1-13.

Kim, J. (2008) *The research of Development Direction of Sports Policy in Korea*. Master. Dankook University.

Kim, K. (2019) 'Student-Athletes' dual career and sport burnout.' *Korean Journal of Sport Science*, 30(4) pp. 631-650.

Kim, K. (2020) 'IOC sent a letter concerned about 'external pressure to promote separation of Korea Sports Council and KOC'.' *Sport seoul*, [Online] 15th September. [Accessed on 10th August 2021]

Kim, K.-H. and Noh, Y.-Y. (2013) 'Improving semi-professional sport teams and policy suggestions to build effective sport ecosystem.' *Journal of Korean society for sport management*, 18(4) pp. 35-54.

Kim, M. (2013) 'Overseas cases to promote adolescent health and physical activity: US "President Challenge" and the German "Sportsbadge".' *Journal of Korean Society for the Study of Physical Education*, 18(2) pp. 133-147.

Kim, M. and Kim, K. (2020) 'Improving the system of research annuity designed to enhance athletic performance.' *Korean Journal of Convergence Science*, 9(3) pp. 148-162.

Kim, N. and Jeong, D. (2016) 'Activation plan for school sports club through a sports instructor system in middle school.' *Korean Society for the Study of Physical Education*, 20(4) pp. 33-47.

Kim, N. and Jeong, D. (2016) 'Activation plan for school sports club through a sports instructor system in middle school.' *Korean Society for the Study of Physical Education*, 20(4) pp. 33-47.

Kim, S. (2020) 'The best friend of Sook-Hyun Choi "I reported assault to the police even when I was 20".' *Yunhap News Agency*, [Online] 3rd July. [Accessed on 2nd October 2020]  
<https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20200703067600053>

Kim, S. and Kim, B. (2013) 'The improvement direction of elite athletes development-related institutions.' *Sports Science*, 31(1) pp. 21-28.

Kim, S. (1999) *Sport and politics in the Republic of Korea*. University of Surrey U6 - ctx\_ver=Z39.88-2004&ctx\_enc=info:ofi/enc:UTF-8&rft\_id=info:sid/summon.serialssolutions.com&rft\_val\_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:kev:mtx:dissertation&rft.genre=dissertation&rft.title=Sport+and+politics+in+the+Republic+of+Korea&rft.DBID=ABQQS;LLH&rft.au=Seon-Jong,+Kim&rft.date=1999&rft.pub=University+of+Surrey&rft.inst=University+of+Surrey&rft.externalDBID=n/a&rft.externalDocID=oai\_ethos\_bl\_uk\_323979&paramdict=en-US U7 - Dissertation.  
[http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwIV3NS8MwFH\\_4caIT0KrMT3LyIitbGjQ9iIhzFiYIU8laRlc21qx7cH\\_3rxksulttwd5IS8hJO\\_z9wBiGvV7\\_94EpbgxWrC-VIIX3N4aym-MdmErqONgKXH2wN8zNk7Z86LzF7p4m4-qjuQM6peEYpy6Plq60hV9-2kvGunOOi5Yoohqk3YprfWMEdYyZd0B\\_akxwZa-ERW\\_o7RPnSGKzHvA9jQZQjBssdtCOFSdyNXxPUdrw-xNbwliLX0yadPUqvJpCRWYSNv2qNtk8qQcWWnHgEdPWWPae-vHLMTOUdsZ0\\_JWd5Oc7-H-Bh2Bea3l42rg1NdIU0dKB4ohNWMGu1CSM4MywRRvJiwPUJXK-xwula3GcQeLACdDycw1bz1eoLCOa\\_-Vvfl-6wfwBHAIJwS](http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwIV3NS8MwFH_4caIT0KrMT3LyIitbGjQ9iIhzFiYIU8laRlc21qx7cH_3rxksulttwd5IS8hJO_z9wBiGvV7_94EpbgxWrC-VIIX3N4aym-MdmErqONgKXH2wN8zNk7Z86LzF7p4m4-qjuQM6peEYpy6Plq60hV9-2kvGunOOi5Yoohqk3YprfWMEdYyZd0B_akxwZa-ERW_o7RPnSGKzHvA9jQZQjBssdtCOFSdyNXxPUdrw-xNbwliLX0yadPUqvJpCRWYSNv2qNtk8qQcWWnHgEdPWWPae-vHLMTOUdsZ0_JWd5Oc7-H-Bh2Bea3l42rg1NdIU0dKB4ohNWMGu1CSM4MywRRvJiwPUJXK-xwula3GcQeLACdDycw1bz1eoLCOa_-Vvfl-6wfwBHAIJwS)

Kim, S. (2003) *A study on the Sports Policies of Korean Regimes*. PhD. Chosun University.

Kim, S. (2004) *A study on the Sports Policies of Korean Regimes*. PhD. Chosun University.

Kim, Y. (2016) 'Legal position of office and production worker in a integration of the sportsbody.' *Korean Association of Sports Law*, 19(1) pp. 11-37.

Kim, Y. (2019) 'The status and future development plans of Korean national fitness award 100 program.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 17(1) pp. 43-59.

Kim, Y. (2019) 'The status and future development plans of Korean national fitness award 100 program.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 17(1) pp. 43-59.

Kim, Y. (2021) 'Koreans work longer than Japanese by 323 hours a year.' *the Korea Herald*, [Online] 9th March. [Accessed on 31st October 2021]  
<http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20210309000162>

King, N. (2009) *Sport policy and governance*. Oxon, UK and New York, NY: Routledge.

Kingdon, J. W. and Stano, E. (2011) *Agendas, alternatives, and public policies*. Updat 2nd ed., Boston, Mass: Longman.

Kirkeboen, S. E. (1984) 'Rimejorde leder for "Prosjekt 88".' *Aftenposten*. 27th November.

Knight, C. (2019) 'Revealing findings in youth sport parenting research.' *Kinesiology Review*, 8(3) pp. 252-259.

Koh, E. (2005) 'South Korea and the Asian Games: The First Step to the World.' *Sport in Society*, 8(3) pp. 468-478.

Koh, J. (2015) '[Symposium] Rep. Ahn Min-seok's theme presentation... Meaning of integration of sports organizations and advancement of sports systems.' *Sportsseoul*, [Online] 11th June. [Accessed on 23rd April 2019] <http://www.sportsseoul.com/news/read/225882>

Koo, C. (2013) 'A study on the reasons of deviational overconformity of the university elite athletes.' *Korean Society for the Sociology of Sport*, 26(2) pp. 1-18.

Korea Council of Sports for All (KCSA). (2013) *Comprehensive Sports Club Business Operation Manual*. Korea Council of Sports for All (KCSA).

Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. (2017) *Measures to revitalize regional linkage of school physical education and arts education - Focusing on elementary and middle schools*. Seoul: Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation.

Korea Institute of Sport Science. (2009) *Analysis of the status of linkage operation between schools, daily life, and elite sports in European countries: Focusing on England, Germany and France*. KISS.

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2005) *Environmental improvement plan to settle local sports clubs*. Seoul: Korea Institute of Sports Science.

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2011) *A Survey on the Actual Conditions and Improvement of Joint Training for School Sports student accommodation*. Korea Institute of Sports Science.

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2014) *A Survey on the Actual Condition of Domestic and Foreign Training Hours for Elementary, Middle and High School*. Seoul: Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS).

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2017) *Fundamental research for a successful sports club operation model*. Seoul: Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS).

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2018) *A Study for linking grassroots sports community societies and public sports clubs*. Seoul: Korea Institute of Sport Science.

Korea Institute of Sports Science (KISS). (2020) *Changes to the 2020 National Sports Festival*. Seoul: Korean Institute of Sports Science;.

Korea Sports Promotion Foundation. (2018) *2018 Public health service 100 project description data*. Korea Sports Promotion Foundation.

Korea Sports Promotion Foundation. (2021) *Comprehensive operation status*. Korea Sports Promotion Foundation. [Online] [Accessed on 10th May 2021]  
<https://nfa.kspo.or.kr/front/center/centerIntroList.do>

Korean Broadcasting System (KBS). (2015) *the time that 5 million people who involved in sports societies... 'there is nowhere to exercise.'* [Online video] [Accessed on 28th April 2021]  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eQKQuAmN4WA>

Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) - Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) integrated Committee. (2015a) *Major issues of integration of Korean Council of Sport for All and Korean Olympic Committee*. Seoul: Korean Council of Sport for All.

Korean Council of Sport for All (KCSA) - Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) integrated Committee. (2015b) *Research on integrated promotion plan for sports organizations*. Seoul: Korean Council of Sport for All.

Korean Culture and Information Service. (2019a) *The Korean Economy - the Miracle on the Hangang River*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <http://www.korea.net/AboutKorea/Economy/The-Miracle-on-The-Hangang>

Korean Culture and Information Service. (2019b) *South Korea - Summary*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <http://www.korea.net/AboutKorea/Society/South-Korea-Summary>

Korean Educational Development Institute. (2018) *Class School Statistics Status*. Korean Education Statistics Services. [Online] [Accessed on 10th May 2021]  
<https://kess.kedi.re.kr/mobile/search?searchTxt=%EC%A0%84%EA%B5%AD%ED%95%99%EA%B5%90%ED%98%84%ED%99%A9%20%ED%95%99%EA%B8%89%EC%88%98>

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2019a) *2018 Annual Report*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2019b) *2019 Public sports club performance evaluation*. Seoul: Korea Sport & Olympic Committee.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2019c) *Korean Sport & Olympic Committee's revolution plan*. Seoul: Korean Sport & Olympic Committee.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2020) *2019 A Survey on Retired Athletes*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021a) *Performance improvement research pension*. [Online] [Accessed on 1st June] [https://welfare.sports.or.kr/fund/fund/fund01.do?menu\\_cd=0101000000](https://welfare.sports.or.kr/fund/fund/fund01.do?menu_cd=0101000000)

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021b) *Department of Sport Policy-1062*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021c) *Sports Community society members registration status*. [Online] [Accessed on 28th April 2021] <https://club.sports.or.kr/index.do>

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021d) *Date of each sport event*. [Online] [Accessed on 10th July 2021] <https://www.myendnoteweb.com/EndNoteWeb.html?func=new&>

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021e) *Project Plan for Promising Athletes*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee.

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021f) *The status of sport athletes' number*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. [Online] [Accessed on 10th June 2021] <https://g1.sports.or.kr/stat/stat01.do>

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. (2021g) *Notice of change in the number of days allowed to participate in competitions and training to ensure student athletes' right to learn*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee. [Online] [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <https://www.koreataekwondo.co.kr/f001/post/1847>

Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC). (2018) *2018 Sports (sexual) Violence Survey (Final report)*. Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC).

Korean Sport Innovation Committee. (2019a) *5th. 'For a lifetime in everyday life!' Recommends revitalisation of sports clubs for realising a sport welfare society*. Sejong: Ministry for Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Korean Sport Innovation Committee. (2019b) *2nd Recommends innovation of athlete training system for normalization of school sports and activation of sports participation by general students*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and tourism.



Korean Sports Innovation Committee. (2019) *2nd Recommends innovation of athlete training system for normalization of school sports and activation of sports participation by general students*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and tourism.

Krahe, B., Berger, A., Vanwesenbeeck, I. and Bianchi, G. (2015) 'Prevalence and correlates of young people's sexual aggression perpetration and victimisation in 10 European countries: a multi-level analysis.' *Culture Health & Sexuality*, 8 pp. 1-18.

Kwon, M. (2012) 'Educational role of Korean school sport club and future tasks.' *Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 19(4) pp. 45-65.

Kwon, W. and Yoo, B. (1995) 'Late Development of Modern Physical Education in Korea.' *The Journal of the Research Institute of Physical Education*, 13

Lee, C. and Chung, Y. (2017) 'The narrative inquiry on student-athletes and retired-athletes' experiences.' *The Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 56(1) pp. 275-286.

Lee, E. (2008) *A study on academic culture in student-athletes' dormitory*. Master. Hanyang University.

Lee, J. (2017) 'Two years of exclusive reservation...Broker' re-lease business also.' *Seoul Economic Newspaper*, [Online] 28th December. [Accessed on 28th April 2021]  
<https://www.sedaily.com/NewsView/10P154CI9H>

Lee, J. (2020) 'One-year non-regular player's life 'if you get caught, it's over'.' *Kyunghyang shinmoon*, [Online] 10th July. [Accessed on 1st June 2021]  
[http://news.khan.co.kr/kh\\_news/khan\\_art\\_view.html?art\\_id=202007100600025](http://news.khan.co.kr/kh_news/khan_art_view.html?art_id=202007100600025)

Lee, J. (1996) *An analysis of sports policy in South Korea 1945-95, with special emphasis on factors influencing the implementation of a sport for all policy*. Loughborough University U6 - ctx\_ver=Z39.88-2004&ctx\_enc=info:ofi/enc:UTF-8&rft\_id=info:sid/summon.serialssolutions.com&rft\_val\_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:kev:mtx:dissertation&rft.genre=dissertation&rft.title=An+analysis+of+sports+policy+in+South+Korea+1945-95,+with+special+emphasis+on+factors+influencing+the+implementation+of+a+sport+for+all+policy&rft.DBID=ABQQS;LLH&rft.au=Lee,+Jae+Bok&rft.date=1996&rft.pub=Loughborough+University&rft.institution=Loughborough+University&rft.externalDBID=n/a&rft.externalDocID=oai\_ethos\_bl\_uk\_321222&paramdict=en-US U7 - Dissertation.  
[http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwIV1LS8NAEB5EL\\_UBWhXfzMmLjrSbpweRYq2BCI7qOewmGwxNEzHJwT\\_hb3Z2N8Xqrbcs2eEjuzA7M5n9PgCH2QPrn0\\_wZcodX0j\\_uDzmFJEEyTITMwiwMpOOmiRZVGIVvM3cauc-d8pcq8TbvVW2LQl2qeIVUIGPdV1nbafXQ5uV9O1cvzSyHnDAjZ7zFAkrMFa3kS7QNe8JwA3U1kZWzY7IPO-OVf94HsCHLPvR\\_wzW8Ri01Xh\\_C96hE3rGEYJWhTjlr\\_NDcvZiXqAXvcFqRKrk8Z915t6hKqVgbHXmUtDtcm5fYaemQoREioVMKKd7DfLfSgtf4BMQNFFIEi7woOsQjYJOn2WNk\\_f26WK9ErBijzZMo4nYem5VxjmGXq675stG369ITQDeldGuQT5PKE8OOGGe-xxOhsixBY3YKN2sgnK01-xx6pgNalTMuYLP5bOUI9BbLrrCvK72FPwreu0g](http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwIV1LS8NAEB5EL_UBWhXfzMmLjrSbpweRYq2BCI7qOewmGwxNEzHJwT_hb3Z2N8Xqrbcs2eEjuzA7M5n9PgCH2QPrn0_wZcodX0j_uDzmFJEEyTITMwiwMpOOmiRZVGIVvM3cauc-d8pcq8TbvVW2LQl2qeIVUIGPdV1nbafXQ5uV9O1cvzSyHnDAjZ7zFAkrMFa3kS7QNe8JwA3U1kZWzY7IPO-OVf94HsCHLPvR_wzW8Ri01Xh_C96hE3rGEYJWhTjlr_NDcvZiXqAXvcFqRKrk8Z915t6hKqVgbHXmUtDtcm5fYaemQoREioVMKKd7DfLfSgtf4BMQNFFIEi7woOsQjYJOn2WNk_f26WK9ErBijzZMo4nYem5VxjmGXq675stG369ITQDeldGuQT5PKE8OOGGe-xxOhsixBY3YKN2sgnK01-xx6pgNalTMuYLP5bOUI9BbLrrCvK72FPwreu0g)



Lee, J. (2014) *Analysis of the determinants of semi-professional athletes' annual salaries: Focusing on individual event*. Master. Seoul National University.

Lee, K. (2009) *A Study on the Current Status of School Sports Team System and Measures for Its Improvement*. Masters. Seoul Women's University.

Lee, M. (2019) '[Seoul Sports] Need to increase the number of students participating in school sports clubs.' *Seoul Sports Council*, [Online] 17th June. [Accessed on 10th May 2021]  
<https://m.post.naver.com/viewer/postView.nhn?volumeNo=21285962&memberNo=628934>

Lee, S. (2018) '[Digital Story] Why Should Student Athletes Study?' *Yunhap news*, [Online] 31st January. [Accessed on 4th June 2021] <https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20180130185100797>

Lee, S. (2019) 'Korean sports reform and sports specialist system change first.' *Edaily News*, [Online] 17th September. [Accessed on 15th April 2021]  
<https://www.edaily.co.kr/news/read?newsId=01170966622621104&mediaCodeNo=258&gtrack=sok>

Lee, S. (2020) '[2020] "Average retirement age for athletes is 23 years old..." Four out of ten people are unemployed.'".' *Edaily*, [Online] 12th October. [Accessed on 7th June 2021]  
<https://www.edaily.co.kr/news/read?newsId=02463286625932264&mediaCodeNo=257>

Lee, S. and Kwak, Y. (2011) 'A qualitative research on development of student-athletes' learning competences.' *Korean Journal of Youth Studies*, 18(6) pp. 171-200.

Lee, T. (2020) *Ministry of Education State Audit Report*. Seoul: National Assembly.

Lee, U. (2003) 'Sports Policy and Organizational Change for the Sports Power of Asian Advanced Sports Countries and the Direction for Development of Korean Sports Policy: Focused on Japan, China and Korea.' *Korea Sport Society*, 1(1) pp. 199-212.

Lee, W. (2004) *The Politics of Sport*. Seoul: 21st century Kyoyuksa.

Lee, Y. (2010) *National Sports Festival and Youth Sports Festival Operation System and System Improvement Plan*. The Korean Journal of Sport.

Lee, Y. (2015) *Analysis and improvement direction of refugee training extermination policy refusal* Korea Institute of Sports Science.

Lee, Y., Park, J., An, M. and Lee, J. (1998) *Sports Administration System and Sports Policy in Advanced Countries*. December 1998. Seoul: Korea Institute of Sports Science.

Lee, Y. (2018) 'A study on policy conflict and improvement plan related 'local sport club'.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 16(3) pp. 25-40.

lee, Y., Park, J., An, M. and Lee, J. (1998) *Sports Administration System and Sports Policy in Advanced Countries*. [Online] [Accessed on 4th March 2020] <https://www.sports.re.kr/pyxis-api/1/digital-files/324ee940-a7eb-47b1-8327-1b7561dcfaec>

Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. E. (2015) *Practical research: planning and design*. Global;Eleventh; ed., Boston: Pearson.

Levi-Faur, D. and Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2006) 'New Public Policy, New Policy Transfers: Some Characteristics of a New Order in the Making.' *International Journal of Public Administration*, 29(4) pp. 247-262.

Lim, H. (2003) *Democracy with the people*. Government Information Agency.

Lim, J. (2019) "Second Nongdan?" What is the real background of the conflict between the Sports Council and the KOC?' *Nocutnews*, [Online] 30th August. [Accessed on 1st September 2021] <https://www.nocutnews.co.kr/news/5205718>

Lim, J. (2014) 'The discussion on sports media covered by a sports journalism in terms of coverage form.' *The Journal of the Korean Society for the Philosophy of Sport, Dance, & Martial Arts*, 22(4) pp. 59-77.

Lim, S. (2015) 'Korea Sports Vision Symposium to Be held...'Integration of sports organizations is essential, not optional". *News1*, [Online] 10th June. [Accessed on 23rd April 2019] <http://www.news1.kr/articles/?2274684>

Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, Calif;London;; Sage.

Lindroth, J. (1998) 'The intensification of modern competitive sport: Principal standpoints and practical examples from a neglected dimension [ Den moderna tavlingsidrottens intensifiering: Prinsipiella synpunkter och praktiska exempel pa forsummad dimension].' *historia och samhiille*, 4 pp. 35-75.

Lindsey, I., Jeanes, R. and Lihaya, H. (2016) 'Sport development policy.' In Sherry, E., Schulenkorf, N. and Phillops, P. (eds.) *Managing sport development: An international approach*. London: Taylor & Francis Group,

Local Government Association. (2021) 'Investment in grassroots and community sport facilities integral to capturing Team GB legacy.' *Local Government Association*, [Online] 4th August. [Accessed on 15th November 2021] <https://www.local.gov.uk/about/news/investment-grassroots-and-community-sport-facilities-integral-capturing-team-gb-legacy>

Loland, S. and Ommundsen, Y. (1996) 'Values and Ideologies of Norwegian Children's Sport as Perceived by the General Population.' *European Physical Education Review*, 2(2) pp. 133-142.

London Borough of Redbridge. (2021) *Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU)/NSPCC*. LOnon Borough of Redbridge. [Online] [Accessed on 25th October 2021]  
<https://find.redbridge.gov.uk/kb5/redbridge/fsd/service.page?id=0C1OA18oaSA>

Lord Carter of Coles. (2005) *Review of National Sport Effort and Resources*. London: Sport England.

Loughborough Partnership(LP). (2004) *School sport partnerships: Monitoring and evaluation report 2004*. Loughborough: Institute of Youth Sport.

Loughborough Partnership(LP). (2005) *School sport partnerships: Monitoring and evaluation report 2005*. Loughborough: Institute of Youth Sport.

Loughborough Partnership(LP). (2008) *School sport partnerships: Monitoring and evaluation report 2008(Executive summary)*. Loughborough: Institute of Youth Sport.

Loughborough Partnership(LP). (2009) *School sport partnerships: Monitoring and evaluation report 2009*. Loughborough: Institute of Youth Sport

Lucy Faithfull Foundation (LFF). (2021) *CPSU Framework of National Standards for Safeguarding and Protecting Children in Sport*. Eradicating Child Sexual Abuse. [Online] [Accessed on 25th October 2021] <https://ecsa.lucyfaithfull.org/cpsu-framework-national-standards-safeguarding-and-protecting-children-sport>

Macdougall, J. (2008) *Towards a better future for youth sport*. London: sportsthinktank.

Mackinnon, S., Thomson, K., Verfuert, S., Peggs, K. and Lowdell, M. (2008) 'Adoptive cellular therapy for cytomegalovirus infection following allogeneic stem cell transplantation using virus-specific T cells.' *Blood Cells, Molecules, and diseases*, 40(1) pp. 63-67.

Magdalinski, T. (2000) 'The reinvention of Australia for the sydney 2000 olympic games.' *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 17(2-3) pp. 305-322.

Management of Public Institutions Act 2020. (c.17128) South Korea: Ministry of Strategie and Finance.

Margaret Thatcher Foundation. (2022) 'The G7 summits: declassified records published for the first time.' [Online] [Accessed on 2nd July 2022] <https://www.margaretthatcher.org/archive/G7>

Marozzi, M. (2021) 'No AOC medal payments for retiring Olympians.' *ABC news*, [Online] 9th September. [Accessed on 21st October 2021] <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2021-09-09/no-aoc-medal-payment-for-retiring-olympians/100443486>

Marsden, G. and Stead, D. (2011) 'Policy transfer and learning in the field of transport: A review of concepts and evidence.' *Transport Policy*, 18(3) pp. 492-500.

Marsh, D. (1999) 'Introduction: Explaining change in the postwar period.' In Marsh, D., Buller, J., Hay, C., Johnston, J., Kerr, P., McAnulla, S. and Watson, M. (eds.) *Postwar british politics in perspective*.

Marsh, D. and Sharman, J. (2009) 'Policy diffusion and policy transfer.' *Policy Studies*, 30(3) pp. 269-288.

Marsh, D. and Furlong, P. (2010) 'A skin not a sweater: Ontology and epistemology in political science.' In Marsh, D. and Stoker, G. (eds.) *Theory and Methods in Political Science*. 3rd ed., Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan,

Marsh, D., Ercan, S. and Furlong, P. (2018) 'A skin not a sweater: Ontology and Epistemology in political science.' In Lowndes, V., Marsh, D. and Stoker, G. (eds.) *Theory and Methods in Political Science*. London: Palgrave and Macmillan,

Marsh, D., Buller, J., Hay, C., Johnston, J., Kerr, P., McAnulla, S. and Watson, M. (1999) *Postwar british politics in perspective*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (2011) *Designing qualitative research*. 5th ed., London: SAGE.

Marshall, J. and Hardman, K. (2000) 'The state and status of physical education in schools in international context' *European Physical Education Review*, 6(3) pp. 203-229.

May, C. (2021) *Child Protection in Sport*. Clearinghouse for Sport. [Online] [Accessed on 17th May] [https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/kb/child-protection-in-sport#child\\_safe\\_sporting\\_organisations](https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/kb/child-protection-in-sport#child_safe_sporting_organisations)

May, C., Consultant, S. R. and Sport, C. f. (2021) *Sport Participation in Australia*. Clearinghouse for Sport. [Online] [Accessed on 5th November 2021] <https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/kb/sport-participation-in-australia>

McDonald, I. (2011) 'High-performance sport policy in the UK.' In Houlihan, B. and Green, M. (eds.) *Routledge Handbook of Sports Development*. London and New York, NY: Routledge, pp. 371-385.

McIntosh, P. and Charlton, V. (1985) *Action Sport: An evaluation of phase one*. London: Sports Council.

McKnwen, E. (2021) 'Karsten Warholm is proof that Texas should adopt Norway's approach to youth athletics.' *The Dallas Morning news*, [Online] 4th August. [Accessed on 30th October 2021]  
<https://www.dallasnews.com/opinion/commentary/2021/08/04/karsten-warholm-is-proof-that-texas-should-adopt-norways-approach-to-youth-athletics/>

Min, H. (2020) 'Korea Sports Association budget government and public dependence 96.5%... . We need to change the body that is big but lacks autonomy.' *Chosun Ilbo*, [Online] 8th December. [Accessed on 1st September 2021]  
[https://www.chosun.com/sports/sports\\_general/2020/12/08/BCXM7ZPC4RFJ3OI7RA2DMYTZLA/](https://www.chosun.com/sports/sports_general/2020/12/08/BCXM7ZPC4RFJ3OI7RA2DMYTZLA/)

Ministry of Church and Education. (1974a) *St. Meld. nr. 52 (1973-74) New cultural policy supplement*. Oslo: Stortinget.

Ministry of Church and Education. (1974b) *St. Meld. nr. 8 (1973-1974) on the organization and financing of cultural work*. Oslo: Stortinget.

Ministry of Cultural Affairs. (2012) *White Paper No. 26. The Norwegian sport model [Stortingsmelding 26. Den norske idrettsmodellen]*. Oslo, Norway: Norwegian Ministry of Cultural Affairs.

Ministry of Culture and Sports. (1993) *National Sports Promotion 5-Year Plan (1993-1997)*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture and Sports.

Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2003) *2003 Che-yuk-back-seo [2003 White Book of Sports]*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2006) *A survey on participation in national grassroots sports activities*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2010) *A study on the operation and promotion of national physical certification project*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2013a) *Sport vision 2018*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2013b) *Comprehensive National Sports Promotion Plan*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2014) *Sport Wite Paper*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2016a) *Integrated White Paper of Korean Olympic Committee and Korea Council of Sports for All: To creat a new history of Korean Sports*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2016b) *A survey on participation in national grassroots sports*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2016c) *The sport white book*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture sport and Tourism (MCST). (2019) *The sports white book*. Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2019) *Three-Year living SCO plan*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2020) *The sports white book*. Sejong: Ministry of Culture, Sport, and Tourism.

Ministry of Culture Sport and Tourism (MCST). (2021) *Status of public sports facilities nationwide in 2020*. Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST). (2017) *2017 National life sports survey*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST). (2018) *2018 National Life Sports Participation Survey Final Report*. Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (MCST). (2020) *2020 National Life Sports Survey*. Seoul: Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST).

Ministry of Education (MofE). (2019) *Basic Plan for Promotion of School Sports in 2019*. Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (MofE). (2020a) *2020 Basic plan for promotion of school sports*. Sejong: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (MofE). (2020b) 'The number of days allowed to be absent for student competitions and training will be reduced to 10 to 30 days.' *Ministry of Education*, [Online] 11th December. [Accessed on 2nd June 2021]  
<https://www.korea.kr/news/policyNewsView.do?newsId=148880969>

Ministry of Education (MofE), Health, M. o. and Agency, K. D. C. a. P. (2020) 2020 Youth Health behaviour survey. Sejong: Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology. (2012) *A general summary of elementary and secondary school curriculum*. Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

Moyson, S. (2017) 'Cognition and policy change: the consistency of policy learning in the advocacy coalition framework.' *Policy and Society*, 36(2) pp. 320-344.

Murphy, N. M. and Bauman, A. (2007) 'Mass sporting and physical activity events--are they "bread and circuses" or public health interventions to increase population levels of physical activity?' *Journal of physical activity & health*, 4(2) pp. 193-202.

Myhrvold, A. (2005) 'En underlig skrue.' In Hanstad, D. and Goksøyr, M. (eds.) *Fred er ei det beste Festskrift [Peace is not the best]* Oslo: Gyldendal,

Nam, S. and Lee, H. (2019) 'Sport developed country delusion: A study on the conceptual transition and the exploration of the usage contexts.' *Korean Journal of Sociology of Sport*, 32(3) pp. 1-21.

Nam, S., Lee, H. and Hwang, J. (2019) 'A typology of policy learning on the government-led pilot project for the development of sport club.' *Korean journal of sport science*, 30(4) pp. 813-827.

National Health Service (NHS). (2021) *Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse*. NHS. [Online] [Accessed on 1st November 2021]

<https://www.england.nhs.uk/safeguarding/workstreams/independent-inquiry-into-child-sexual-abuse/>

National Human Rights Commission of Korea. (2019) *Results of a total survey on human rights violations of elementary, middle and high school students*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th April 2021]

National Human Rights Commission of Korea. (2020) *Case analysis of sexual violence and violence in the sports field and a study on measure for relief*. National Human Rights Commission of Korea.

National Human Rights Commission of Korea. (2021) *Human rights information and policy*. National Human Rights Commission of Korea. [Online] [Accessed on 11th November 2021]

<https://www.humanrights.go.kr/search/index.jsp>

National Sports Promotion Act 2020. South Korea:

National Statistical Office in Korea. (2017) *Statistics on causes of death in 2016*. National Statistical Office in Korea.

National Youth Policy Institute. (2019) *A study on policy plans to ensure youth's right to health I*. Sejong: National Youth Policy Institute.

Nations Encyclopedia. (2020) *Norway - Overview of economy*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <https://www.nationsencyclopedia.com/economies/Europe/Norway-OVERVIEW-OF-ECONOMY.html>

Netherlands Olympic Committee\* Netherlands Sports Confederation (NOC\*NSF). (2002) *Sport for all and elite sport: rivals or Partners?* Arnhem, The Netherlands:

Newmark, A. (2002) 'An integrated approach to policy transfer and diffusion.' *The Review of Policy Research*, 19(2) pp. 151-178.

NIF-report. (2012) *The Norwegian elite sport model – Norwegian elite sport towards 2022 [Den norske toppidrettsmodellen – norsk toppidrett fram mot 2022]*. Oslo: NIF.

North Wales Safeguarding Board. (2021) *Independent inquiry into child sexual abuse (IICSA)*. North Wales Safeguarding Board. [Online] [Accessed on 25th October 2021] <https://www.northwalessafeguardingboard.wales/independent-inquiry-into-child-sexual-abuse-iicsa/>

Norwegian Confederation of Sports (NIF). (1979) *Terms for top sports (Vilkarene for toppidrett)*. Oslo: Norges Idrettsforbund.

Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). (2011) *Joy of sport - for All: Sport policy document 2011-2015*. Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF).

Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). (2015) *Annual report 2015 [Årsrapport 2015]*. Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF).

Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). (2006) *Arsrapport 2005*. Oslo: Norges idrettsforbund og olympiske komite.

Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). (2019) *Annual report 2019*. Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF).

OECD. (2016) *Gross Domestic Product (GDP)*. Paris, France: OECD. [Online] [Accessed on 29th June 2019] <https://data.oecd.org/gdp/gross-domestic-product-gdp.htm>

OECD. (2017) *Better life index*. OECD. [Online] [Accessed on 10th May] <http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org/#/111111111111>



OECD. (2020a) *Hours worked*. OECD. [Online] [Accessed on 31st October 2021]  
<https://data.oecd.org/emp/hours-worked.htm>

OECD. (2020b) *OECD better life index*. OECD.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2004) *The school sport partnership programme: Evaluation of phases 3 and 4 2003/04*. London: Ofsted Publications.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2005) *The physical education, school sport and club links strategy*. London: Ofsted.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2006) *Schoolsport partnerships: A survey of good practice*. London: Office for Standards in Education.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2007) *Reaching the key stage 2 standard in swimming*. London: Ofsted.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2009) *Physical education in schools 2005-8: working towards 2012 and beyond*. London: Office for Standards in Education.

Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). (2011) *School Sport Partnerships*. Manchester: Ofsted.

Ofsted. (2004) *The school sport partnership programme: Evaluation of phases 3 and 4 2003/04*. London: Ofsted Publications.

Ofsted. (2006) *Schoolsport partnerships: A survey of good practice*. London: Office for Standards in Education.

Ofsted. (2007) *Reaching the key stage 2 standard in swimming*. London: Ofsted.

Ofsted. (2009) *Physical education in schools 2005-8: working towards 2012 and beyond*. London: Office for Standards in Education.

Ok, G. (2004) 'Modernization and Sport in Korea, 1945-1992.' *The Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 43(5) pp. 43-53.

Olsen, E. (1988) *Report from the evaluations group of Project 88 (Rapport fra evalueringsgruppa for Prosjekt 88)*. Oslo: Norges idrettsforbund og Norges Olympiske Komité.

Olstad, F. and Tonnesson, S. (1987) *History of Norwegian sports (Norsk idretts historie)*. Oslo: Aschehoug.

One World Nations Online. (2019a) *Norway*. [Online] [Accessed on 21st November 2019] <https://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/norway.htm>

One World Nations Online. (2019b) *South Korea Profile*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th February 2020] [https://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/korea\\_south.htm](https://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/korea_south.htm)

Operation World. (2019) *United Kingdom: United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th April 2019] <http://www.operationworld.org/country/unki/owtext.html>

Operation World. (2021) *Pray for: South Korea*. Operation World. [Online] [Accessed

Page, E. (2000) *Future Governance and the Literature on Policy Transfer and Lesson Drawing*. 28th January. ESRC Future Governance Workshop.

Page, V. (2019) *The Economy of the United Kingdom*. [Online] [Accessed on 13th January 2020] <https://www.investopedia.com/articles/investing/042915/how-uk-makes-money.asp>

Park, C. (2021) 'Shh! You have to win to go to college.School violence covered by triumphalism.' *Kyunghyang Shinmoon*, [Online] 24th February. [Accessed on 1st June 2021] <https://news.nate.com/view/20210224n03049?mid=n1101>

Park, C. (2021) 'Violence in the school sports team 'battered with bruises' is on-going.' *Kyunghyang shinmoon*, [Online] 24th February. [Accessed on 4th June 2021] [https://m.khan.co.kr/view.html?art\\_id=202102240600015](https://m.khan.co.kr/view.html?art_id=202102240600015)

Park, C. (2021) 'Shh! You have to win to go to college...School violence covered by triumphalism ' *Kyungyang shinmun*, [Online] 24th February. [Accessed on 10th May 2021] [http://news.khan.co.kr/kh\\_news/khan\\_art\\_view.html?art\\_id=202102240600005](http://news.khan.co.kr/kh_news/khan_art_view.html?art_id=202102240600005)

Park, J. (2011) *Elite Sport Development in South Korea: An Analysis of Policy Change in the Sports of Athletics, Archery and Baseball*. PhD. Loughborough University.

Park, J. (2015) 'The Changing Process and Consolidating Plan of the Organizational Structure of Sports Groups.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 13(1) pp. 51-60.

Park, J. (2016) 'The vision and Policy Objectives: Criticism and Tasks of the Korean Olympic Committee.' *Journal of Korean Philosophic Society for Sport and Dance*, 24(4) pp. 155-172.

Park, J. (2017) *The relationship between the media and public opinion on controversial issue of mega sporting events: Investigating competing hypotheses for agenda-setting and reverse agenda-setting theory*. Master. Seoul National University.

Park, J. (2015) 'The Changing Process and Consolidating Plan of the Organizational Structure of Sports Groups.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 13(1) pp. 51-60.

Park, J. (2012) 'Management Plans of Integration of 'National Sports Festival' and 'National Sport for All Festival' for Development of Community Sport.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 10(4) pp. 177-187.

Park, J., Lim, S. and Bretherton, P. (2012) 'Exploring the Truth: A Critical Approach to the Success of Korean Elite Sport.' *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 36(3) pp. 245-267.

Park, J. (2015) 'The Changing Process and Consolidating Plan of the Organizational Structure of Sports Groups.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 13(1) pp. 51-60.

Park, J. (2016) 'The vision and Policy Objectives: Criticism and Tasks of the Korean Olympic Committee.' *Journal of Korean Philosophic Society for Sport and Dance*, 24(4) pp. 155-172.

Park, J. (2013) 'An Ethnographic case study on the operational expenditures of an elementary school soccer team.' *Korean Journal of Sport Pedagogy*, 20(4) pp. 157-177.

Park, M., Lee, O. and Jo, K. (2015) 'Female Elementary Classroom Teachers' Challenges to Teach PE Based on the Teacher Career Cycle.' *Korean Association of Sport Pedagogy*, 22(1) pp. 1-23.

Park, S. and Kwon, S. (2010) 'Research on the Sustainability of Community Sport Club.' *Korean Society for the Sociology of Sport*, 49(4) pp. 57-78.

Park, S., Song, H., Kim, K., Kin, Y. and Kim, H. (2014) 'Effects of Korean national fitness award proram group exercise on daily fitness and balance confidence among the elderly participants.' *Korean Journal of Sport Science*, 25(4) pp. 650-663.

Park, Y. (2016) 'Women's Judo Jung, Boo-kyung, 'Price Silver Medal'... "The only Korean player who wins the silver medal and cries".' *Donga Ilbo*, [Online] 7th August. [Accessed on 10th May 2021] <https://www.donga.com/news/Sports/article/all/20160807/79601930/2>

Park, Y. (2019) 'Advanced country sports vs Sports advanced country.' Special Theme, 149 pp. 2-9.

Parker, C. (2006) 'Swimming education in England: A comparative historical study.' Paper presented at: *Australian Association for Research in Education Annual Conference*. Adelaide, New South Wales, 26th November.

Patton, M. (2002) 'Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry: A personal, experiential perspective.' *Qualitative Social Work*, 1(3) pp. 261-283.

Pavitt, M. (2019) 'Athletes in 17 sports to benefit from Australian Olympic Committee medal incentive funding programme before Tokyo 2020.' *Inside the game*, [Online] 19th February. [Accessed on 21st October] <https://www.insidethegames.biz/articles/1075748/athletes-in-17-sports-to-benefit-from-australian-olympic-committee-medal-incentive-funding-programme-before-tokyo-2020>

Phillips, M. (2000) *From Sidelines to Centrefield: A History of Sports Coaching in Australia*. Sydney: University of New South Wales Press.

Phillpots, L. (2007) *An analysis of the policy process for selected elements of the Physical Education , School, Sport and Club Links strategy in England*. Ph.D. Loughborough UNiversity.

Phillpots, L. and Grix, J. (2014) 'New governance and Physical Education and School Sport policy: A case study of School to Club Links ' *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 19(1) pp. 76-96.

Phillpots, L., Grix, J. and Quarmby, T. (2011) 'Centralized grassroots sport policy and 'new governance': A case study of County Sports Partnerships in the UK – unpacking the paradox.' *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 46(3) pp. 265-281.

Punch, K. (2014) *Introduction to Social research: Quantitative & Qualitative approaches*. 3rd ed., London: Sage.

Radaelli, C. (1995) 'The role of knowledge in the policy process.' *Journal of european public policy*, 2(2) pp. 159-183.

Ragin, C. C. (1994) *Constructing social research: The unity and diversity of method*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

Rebolj, B. (2013) 'The case study as a type of qualitative research.' *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies*, pp. 28-43.

Roan, D. (2018) 'Uk Sport: National consultation launched to address how elite sport is funded.' *BBC sport*, [Online] 3rd June. [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.bbc.com/sport/44350953>

Roberts, K. and Brodie, A. D. (1992) *Inner-city sport: who plays, and what are the benefits?* Culemborg: Giordano Bruno.

Roche, M. (1993) 'Sport and community: Rhetoric and reality in the development of British sport policy.' In Binfield, C. and John, S. (eds.) *Sport, culture and politics*. Sheffield: Sheffield Academic Press, pp. 72-112.

Roeger, M., Consultant, R. and Sport, C. f. (2021) *Participation Grants and Funding for Sport and Recreation*. Clearinghouse for Sport. [Online] [Accessed on 5th November 2021] <https://www.clearinghouseforsport.gov.au/kb/participation-grants-and-funding>

Rose, R. (1991) 'What is lesson-drawing?' *Journal of public policy*, 11 pp. 3-30.

Rose, R. (1993) *Lesson-drawing in public policy: A guide to learning across time and space*. Chatham, NJ: Chatham House Publishers.

Rose, R. (2005) *Learning from comparative public policy: a practical guide*. London: Routledge.

Rubinstein, D. (1981) *Marx and Wittgenstein*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Salisbury, P. (2013) *An analysis of the development of the policy-making process in relation to bidding for large scale sports events in the UK*. Ph.D. Loughborough University.

Sam, M. and Ronglan, L. (2018) 'Building sport policy's legitimacy in Norway and New Zealand.' *International review for the sociology of sport*, 53(5) pp. 550-571.

Santander Trade markets. (2020) *Norway: Economic and Political Outline*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <https://santandertrade.com/en/portal/analyse-markets/norway/economic-political-outline>

Sayer, A. (2000) 'Shy critical realism.' In Fleetwood, S. and Ackroyd, S. (eds.) *Critical realist applications in organisation and management studies*. London: Routledge,

Scheerder, J., Willem, A. and Claes, E. (2017) *Sport policy systems and sport federations: A cross-national perspective*. London: Springer Nature.

Schofield, J. W. (2002) 'Increasing the generalizability of qualitative research.' In Huberman, M. A. and Miles, M. B. (eds.) *The qualitative researcher's companion*. Thousand Oaks London New Delhi Sage Publications, pp. 171-203.

Seippel, Ø. and Skille, E. Å. (2018) 'Sports participation in Norway.' In Green, K., Sigurjónsson, T. and Skille, E. Å. (eds.) *Sport in Scandinavia and the Nordic countries*. London: Routledge, pp. 108-135.

Semotiuk, M. (1996) 'High performance sport in Canada.' In Hardman, A. (ed.) *Sport for all: Issues and perspectives in international context*. Manchester: Centre for Physical Education and Leisure Studies, pp. 7-17.

Seo, J., Yu, C. and Yoon, K. (2015) 'Exploring the Directions to Develop the School Physical Education Policy in South Korea: through Analyzing the Development of the Physical Education Policy in England.' *Korean Journal of Sport Pedagogy*, 22(3) pp. 119-134.

Seo, S. (2019) 'Dead water' human rights violations in the sports world... Will it improve on the largest survey?' *Yonhap news agency*, [Online] [Accessed <https://news.v.daum.net/v/20190122140025345>]

Seong, M. (2016) 'Key tasks of Integration of Koc-KCSA.' *Korean Sports Scientists Integrated Conference*, (6) pp. 55-65.

Seong, M. and Oh, Y. (2017) 'Integrated management plans of elite sports and sport for all events.' *Journal of Korean Society of Sport Policy*, 15(4) pp. 61-80.

Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. (2018) *Participation in the Seoul Superintendent's League*. Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education.

Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. (2019) *Participation in the Seoul Superintendent's League*. Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education.

Shin, Y. (2011) *Historical Processing of Korea Council of Sport for All through the National Sport Policy*. Ph.D. Korea National sport University.

Shipway, R. (2007) 'Sustainable legacies for the 2012 Olympic Games.' *The Journal of The Royal Society for the Promotion of Health*, 127(3) pp. 119-124.

Shon, S. (2017) 'A study on securing the autonomy and preparing a foundation for fiscal independence of the Korea Sport and Olympic Committee.' *The Journal of Sports and Entertainment Law*, 20(3) pp. 45-64.

Shon, S. (2015) 'About the legal status of subordinate organizations of the integration of KOC and KOCOSA.' *Journal of Sport Entertainment and Law*, 18(4)

SIA. (2021a) *Role description*. Sport Integrity Australia.

SIA. (2021b) *20/21 Annual Report*. Sport Integrity Australia.

Silver, C. (2019) *Top 20 Economies in the World*. Investopedia. New York City: [Online] [Accessed on 29th June 2019] <https://www.investopedia.com/insights/worlds-top-economies/>

Skilde, E. Å. (2011) 'Sport for all in Scandinavia: sport policy and participation in Norway, Sweden and Denmark.' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 3(3) pp. 327-339.

Skille, E. Å. (2015) 'Community and sport in Norway: between state sport policy and local sport clubs.' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(4) pp. 505-518.

Skille, E. Å. and Säfvenbom, R. (2011) 'Sport policy in Norway.' *International journal of sport policy and politics*, 3(2) pp. 289-299.

Smoll, F., Cumming, S. and Smith, R. (2011) 'Enhancing coach-parent relationships in youth sports: Increasing harmony and minimizing hassle. ' *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 6(1) pp. 13-26.

Son, S. (2002) *Changes of Korean Sports in accordance with Economic Growth*. Yong-in University.

Son, S. (2003) 'Changes of Korean Elite Sports in Accordance with Economic Growth.' *The Korean Journal of Physical Education*, 42(4) pp. 23-31.

Song, H. (2017) 'Second Yu-Ra, Jung' built up walls with classes.' *Weekly DongA*, [Online] 3rd April. [Accessed on 3rd June 2021] <https://weekly.donga.com/List/3/all/11/888020/1>

Song, H. and Kim, H. (1997) 'A Study on Political Background of Development of Elite Sport in South Korea: from 60s to 80s.' *Seoul National University, Journal of Physical Education Research Institute*, 18(2) pp. 75-90.

Sotiriadou, K., Shilbury, D. and Quick, S. (2008) 'The attraction, retention/transition, and nurturing process of sport development: Some Australian evidence.' *Journal of Sport Management*, 22(3) pp. 247-272.

Sport and Recreation Alliance. (2021) *Safeguarding children in sport*. Sport and Recreation Alliance. [Online] [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.sportandrecreation.org.uk/pages/safeguarding-children>

Sport England. (2004) *The Framework for Sport in England*. Sport England.

Sport Integrity Australia. (2021) 'Sport Integrity Australia 12 months in.' *Mirage News*, [Online] 13th October. [Accessed on 26th October 2021] <https://www.miragenews.com/sport-integrity-australia-12-months-in-650683/>

SportAUS & AIS. (2021) *Australian Sports Commission*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th October 2021] <https://www.sportaus.gov.au/about>

Sports Council. (1982) *Sport in the community: The next ten years sports council*. London: Sports Council.

Stake, R. E. (1995) *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif;London;: Sage.

Staldler, L., Bieneck, S. and Pfeiffer, C. (2012) *Representative survey sexual abuse 2011 [Repräsentativbefragung sexueller Missbrauch 2011]*. Hannover: kriminologisches Forschungsinstitut Niedersachsen.

Stefansen, K., Smette, I. and Strandbu, A. (2018) 'Understanding the increase in parents' involvement in organized youth sports.' *Sport, Education and Society*, 23(2) pp. 162-172.

Stensbol, B. (2010) *The power and the glory in the sport of the scene (Makten og æren i toppidrettens kulisser)*. Oslo: Kagge Forlag.

Stewart, B., Nicholson, M., Smith, A. and Westerbeek, H. (2004) *Australian sport: better by design? The evolution of Australian sport policy*. London;New York;: Routledge.

Stone, D. (1999) 'Learning Lessons and Transferring Policy across Time, Space and Disciplines.' *Politics*, 19(1) pp. 51-59.

Stone, D. (2004) 'Transfer agents and global networks in the 'transnationalization' of policy.' *Journal of European Public Policy*, 11(3) pp. 545-566.

Stone, D., Oliveira, O. P. d. and Pal, L. (2019) 'Transnational policy transfer: the circulation of ideas, power and development models.' *Policy and Society*, 39(1) pp. 1-18.

Strandbu, A., Bakken, A. and Stefansen, K. (2020) 'The continued importance of family sport culture for sport participation during the teenage years.' *Sport, Education and Society*, 25(8) pp. 931-945.

Stronach, M. (2012) *Sport career transition: Stories of elite indigenous Australian sportsmen*. PhD degree. University of Technology Sydney.

Sung, J. (2020) 'Sports world entangled with personal connections and academic ties, accusations are rampant.' *Chosun Ilbo*, [Online] 4th July. [Accessed on 10th November 2021] [https://www.chosun.com/site/data/html\\_dir/2020/07/04/2020070400217.html](https://www.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2020/07/04/2020070400217.html)

Sung, M. (2016) 'Major Issues of the Integrated Sports Organization.' *The Korea Journal of Sports Science*, pp. 55-65.

Swim England. (2021) *Swimming and the national curriculum*. [Online] [Accessed on 18th October 2021] <https://www.swimming.org/schools/swimming-national-curriculum/>

Tan, T., Zheng, J. and Dickson, G. (2019) 'Policy transfer in elite sport development: the case of elite swimming in China.' *European Sport Management Quarterly*, pp. 1-21.



Team GB. (2021) *About us*. [Online] [Accessed on 1st September] <https://www.teamgb.com/about-us/9HsI58MhzO0UWwouZWqdl>

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2019) *Award participant satisfaction survey*. DofE.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2020) *Annual report and financial statements*. DofE.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2021a) *How much will it cost*. DofE. [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://www.dofe.org/do/costs/>

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2021b) *Funding opportunities*. DofE. [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://www.dofe.org/notice-boards/central-england/funding-opportunities/?id=1>

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2021c) *About the DofE*. The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://www.dofe.org/about/>

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE). (2021d) *Getting started*. DofE. [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://dukeofed.com.au/doing-the-award/getting-started/>

The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE). (2012) *transforming the Award: Modernising to meet increasing demand and need*. The DofE.

The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE). (2021a) *How the award works*. DofE. [Online] [Accessed on 4th October 2021] <https://www.dukeofed.org/howtheawardworks>

The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE). (2021b) *#World ready; United Kingdom*. DofE. [Online] [Accessed on 10th October 2021] <https://intaward.org/country/united-kingdom/>

The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award Foundation. (2019) *2018 Global Participant Satisfaction Survey Results*. The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award Foundation.

The Economist. (2020) *Norway*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <http://country.eiu.com/article.aspx?articleid=849052668&Country=Norway&topic=Summary&subtopic=Basic+data>

The Korean Herald. (1967) *The Korea Herald*. 5th October. p. 1.

The United Kingdom Sports Council. (2016) *Grant-in-Aid and Lottery Distribution Fund Report and Accounts for the year ended 31 March 2016*. UK sport.

The World Bank. (2013) *Urban Population*. [Online] [Accessed on 14th November 2014]  
<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS>

The World Bank. (2018a) *The World Bank in Republic of Korea: overview*. [Online] [Accessed on 15th February 2020] <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/korea/overview>

The World Bank. (2018b) *GDP per Capita, PPP (current international \$)*. Washington, D.C., United States: The World Bank. [Online] [Accessed on 28th November 2018]  
<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.CD?end=2018&start=1990&view=chart>

Tinaz, C., Turco, D. M. and Salisbury, P. (2014) 'Sport policy in Turkey.' *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 6(3) pp. 533-545.

Toftgaard Støckel, J., Strandbu, , Å., Solenes, , O., Jørgensen, Per, Fransson, et al. (2010) 'Sport for children and youth in the Scandinavian countries.' *Sport in Society*, 13 pp. 625-642.

Tønnesson, S. (1986) *Norwegian sport history, vol.II [Norsk idretts historie (II)]*. Oslo: Aschehoug.

Toohy, K. M. (1990) *The politics of Australian elite sport: 1949-1983*. Pennsylvania State University.  
[http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV1NS8NAEF0sXooe6hdqVRZBLxLJbr4FD7bWRnKwtcm5pG2Cgk3E9uK\\_9-1um9QUCh68zIbZsCF5m52ZI9kMIQa\\_1bXKmmAxA3ZgNEq5O3JseA0xd8bcdD07TT09EUxB-OBGoRn4ZresgFnq\\_hv46AC92Ej7B\\_CLQaHAMaYAJCYBZMU\\_XvuyXs6DT5XkMrM2VsiNR0w\\_vpFxrSIGTE9jnqr4ougM3329MlpdrkPqLR\\_yJbAge\\_3OIEtbiTzINiIzoesHfXGexaQ0pS4KnkVrP\\_6iqRjil-I7SZjnb4o4VytOJsohqfK7JSfBYM8qnETvK5d0rfiDaHHnsxVirTQ-RUogwhrLgXvHrsU\\_z6eT9\\_H8Psm0aFAjNUMXVRFwS1UeZs2ASq8gbJCd1Svvka0k2yeNRUZh\\_EEX6-YBYQCBLkGgeUpLEKgEgUoQ7mgBwSG5fOqEbV9bXni4eOlnQ3gDLmw\\_d\\_gR2Y3FBoVsLjcyTo4JTUzEYhb67RhBYpp48Bm8MXeYFdv2xHZPSHPDiKcbe5ukXqJwRrZT9CbnpD5dZth9X8jH9wPNfxmL](http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV1NS8NAEF0sXooe6hdqVRZBLxLJbr4FD7bWRnKwtcm5pG2Cgk3E9uK_9-1um9QUCh68zIbZsCF5m52ZI9kMIQa_1bXKmmAxA3ZgNEq5O3JseA0xd8bcdD07TT09EUxB-OBGoRn4ZresgFnq_hv46AC92Ej7B_CLQaHAMaYAJCYBZMU_XvuyXs6DT5XkMrM2VsiNR0w_vpFxrSIGTE9jnqr4ougM3329MlpdrkPqLR_yJbAge_3OIEtbiTzINiIzoesHfXGexaQ0pS4KnkVrP_6iqRjil-I7SZjnb4o4VytOJsohqfK7JSfBYM8qnETvK5d0rfiDaHHnsxVirTQ-RUogwhrLgXvHrsU_z6eT9_H8Psm0aFAjNUMXVRFwS1UeZs2ASq8gbJCd1Svvka0k2yeNRUZh_EEX6-YBYQCBLkGgeUpLEKgEgUoQ7mgBwSG5fOqEbV9bXni4eOlnQ3gDLmw_d_gR2Y3FBoVsLjcyTo4JTUzEYhb67RhBYpp48Bm8MXeYFdv2xHZPSHPDiKcbe5ukXqJwRrZT9CbnpD5dZth9X8jH9wPNfxmL)

Topendsports. (2019) *Norway at the Winter Olympic Games*. [Online] [Accessed on 19th July 2019]  
<https://www.topendsports.com/events/winter/countries/norway.htm>

Torres, C. R. and McLaughlin, D. W. (2015) 'More fulfilling lives through sport: An intersubjective justification for balancing elite sport and sport-for-all.' In Bailey, R. and Talbot, M. (eds.) *Elite Sport and Sport-for-All: Bridging the Two Cultures?* New York: Routledge, pp. 1-13.

Turnbull, N. (2016) *Interpreting governance, high politics, and public policy: Essays commemorating interpreting British governance*. New York and London: Routledge.

UK Sport. (2001) *Athletes' lifestyle and ACE UK: A survey of athletes' experience of sport, education and work, and the role of the ACE UK programme*. UK Sport.

UK Sport. (2008) *Historical Funding Figures*. [Online] [Accessed on 10 October]  
<https://www.uksport.gov.uk/our-work/investing-in-sport/historical-funding-figures>

UK Sport. (2013) *Performance Lifestyle*. UK Sport. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <http://www.uksport.gov.uk/pages/performance-lifestyle/>

UK Sport. (2020) *what is a Performance Pathway?* : [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <https://www.uksport.gov.uk/our-work/talent-id/what-is-a-performance-pathway>

UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace. (2005) *Sport as a Tool for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals*. Biel/Bienne, Switzerland.

UNESCO. (2014) *World-wide survey of school physical education*. UNESCO.

United Nations Development Programme. (2018) *Human Development Indicators - Norway*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020] <http://hdr.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/NOR>

United Nations Development Programme. (2018) *Human Development Indices and Indicators: 2018 Statistical Update - United Kingdom*. New York, United States: United Nations Development Programme. [Online] [Accessed on 29th June 2019] [http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr\\_theme/country-notes/GBR.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr_theme/country-notes/GBR.pdf)

United Nations Development Programme. (2019) *Inequalities in Human Development In the 21st Century - Korea (Republic of)*. [Online] [Accessed on 20th February 2020]

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2018) *Human Development Indices and Indicators*. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

Vaage, O. (2009) Exercise, outdoor life and cultural activities. Results from a survey of living conditions from 1997-2007. Report 2009/2015 (Mosjon, friluftsliv og kulturaktiviteter. resultater fra levekarsundersøkelsene fra 1997–2007, Rapport 2009/15). Oslo-Kongsvinger: Statistics Norway.

Van Baren, E., Meelen, M. and Meijs, L. (2015) 'Promoting youth development worldwide: The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award. *Journal of Youth Development*, 10(1) pp. 106-118.

Van Bottenburg, M. (2002) *Sport for all and elite sport: do they benefit one another?* Unknown place of publication: Centre for Research on Sports in Society. [Online] [Accessed on 22nd December 2017] <https://dspace.library.uu.nl/handle/1874/309609>

Van Krieken, R. (1998) *Norbert Elias*. London: Routledge.

van Tuyckom, C. (2016) 'Youth sport participation: A comparison between European member states.' In <http://mmulibrary.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV07T8MwELaoWCoYoIB>

[anl7oEhVCng0SQ0GUSmUjHZgix04khJpWairRf8-dncRNpA4MLFZkN6mV72Lfne--I8S27sxBY00IRBzYwuGCB4LHsQdqhQ-qvMusOAaxkMUbrsNZ6Ewnzpuudqn7\\_hV46APoMZH2D-BXD4UOuAYRgBaEANqGflz3xBaM20W4jzFhmcAfoG74iVXzDFnevHzdmMQUrjf8ezGvzuAXZQxQIVDgNmKFG0u2FY2tktu5LmhYxn5Vnv55gmVHDJm8VPMzPCg\\_g6\\_NTczlB2vQVlt2c-VFYj8VbIFHm37gmqalt5jyWL2x81TxgKDDYXa0afaR8Hwuvnj-lGSD2UeLtPwAbern6bt2nbkBbLhuwS-g5iSLQCF7IS7xmlhJDtoFtVc57imuVZzyfW3CSBfLF8v1akvFCI\\_IaAdUMwHgTkfk70k65CO1uppn0rIVidkLKGGegpag-KRjggGghZA0BllqoCgCohTcjN-DV8mAzWbaKmlR6LqNVIn5JBhBkSWy0xJ0SU05vBVOU6c8tSCNmUi8BMG20fqsdsyWY\\_cNh5nRSsrMqOhC3oemAG-40X5T94j3V1\\_e7576IK0tdBckv0Uvp\\_kirTnZZDf5lqC-Av51UGg](http://anl7oEhVCng0SQ0GUSmUjHZgix04khJpWairRf8-dncRNpA4MLFZkN6mV72Lfne--I8S27sxBY00IRBzYwuGCB4LHsQdqhQ-qvMusOAaxkMUbrsNZ6Ewnzpuudqn7_hV46APoMZH2D-BXD4UOuAYRgBaEANqGflz3xBaM20W4jzFhmcAfoG74iVXzDFnevHzdmMQUrjf8ezGvzuAXZQxQIVDgNmKFG0u2FY2tktu5LmhYxn5Vnv55gmVHDJm8VPMzPCg_g6_NTczlB2vQVlt2c-VFYj8VbIFHm37gmqalt5jyWL2x81TxgKDDYXa0afaR8Hwuvnj-lGSD2UeLtPwAbern6bt2nbkBbLhuwS-g5iSLQCF7IS7xmlhJDtoFtVc57imuVZzyfW3CSBfLF8v1akvFCI_IaAdUMwHgTkfk70k65CO1uppn0rIVidkLKGGegpag-KRjggGghZA0BllqoCgCohTcjN-DV8mAzWbaKmlR6LqNVIn5JBhBkSWy0xJ0SU05vBVOU6c8tSCNmUi8BMG20fqsdsyWY_cNh5nRSsrMqOhC3oemAG-40X5T94j3V1_e7576IK0tdBckv0Uvp_kirTnZZDf5lqC-Av51UGg)

Walker, J. (1969) 'The Diffusion of Innovations among the American States.' *American Political Science Review*, 63(3) pp. 880-899.

Wheeler, S. and Green, K. (2019) 'The helping, the fixtures, the kits, the gear, the gum shields, the food, the snacks, the waiting, the rain, the car rides...': Social class, parenting and children's organised activities ' *Sport, Education and Society*, 24(8) pp. 788-800.

Whitson, D. (1998) 'Olympic sport, global media and cultural diversity.' *In Fourth international symposium for Olympic research* Barney, R. K., Wamsley, K. B., Martyn, S. G., MacDonald, G. H. and Studies, I. C. f. O. (eds.) London, Ontario: University of Western Ontario, pp. 1-9.

Wilkinson, P. (2010) 'BOA Launches Athlete Career Programme.' *sportcal*, [Online] 25th 2010. [Accessed on 22nd October 2021] <https://www.sportcal.com/News/PressReleases/11503?size=50%2C50>

Won, S. (2016) 'Only certain societies occupied school sports facilities, 'annoyance' by nearby residents.' *Daejeon Ilbo*, [Online] 25th April. [Accessed on 28th April 2021] [http://www.daejeonilbo.com/news/newsitem.asp?pk\\_no=1211850](http://www.daejeonilbo.com/news/newsitem.asp?pk_no=1211850)

World Health Organization. (2011) 'World No Tobacco Day 2011 celebrated WHO framework convention On Tobacco Control.' *WHO*, [Online] 21st December. [Accessed on 1st December 2021] <https://www.who.int/news/item/21-12-2011-world-no-tobacco-day-2011-celebrates-who-framework-convention-on-tobacco-control>

World Health Organization. (2019) 'New WHO-led study says majority of adolescents worldwide are not sufficiently physically active, putting their current and future health at risk.' [Online] 22nd November. [Accessed on 5th December 2021] <https://www.who.int/news/item/22-11-2019-new-who-led-study-says-majority-of-adolescents-worldwide-are-not-sufficiently-physically-active-putting-their-current-and-future-health-at-risk>

Yin, R. (2012) *Applications of case study research*. 3rd ed., London: SAGE.

Yin, R. (2018) *Case study research and applications: design and methods*. Sixth ed., Los Angeles: SAGE.

Yoon, Y. and Lee, I. (2005) 'Reporting Sports Heroes in Korean Journalism and Perception of the Audience.' *Journal of Communication Science*, 5(3) pp. 373-410.

You, W. (2005) 'The function and role of sports organisations for the development of elite sports.' *Sports Science*, 90 pp. 9-15.

Yu, C., Kim, K., Seo, J., Yoon, K., Park, J. and Shin, K. (2017) *A Study on the Actual Condition and Performance Analysis of School Sports Promotion Policy Project*. Seoul: Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation.

Yu, M. (2017) 'Anti-rule society' that privatized public sports facilities.' *Hankook Ilbo*, [Online] 11th May. [Accessed on 28th April 2021]  
<https://www.hankookilbo.com/News/Read/201705110470546047>

Yun, D. and Kim, M. (2019) '[Exclusive] A coach where violence has become a daily routine... Parents who closed their eyes to 'damage the road ahead of sports'.' *Donga Ilbo*, [Online] 19th February. [Accessed on 4th June 2021]  
<https://www.donga.com/news/Society/article/all/20190219/94182507/1>

Yun, J. (2017) '[After coverage] "Let's stop the second Jung Yoo-ra"..You can't just exercise well.' *Korean Broadcasting System*, [Online] 10th April. [Accessed on 1st June 2021]  
<https://news.v.daum.net/v/njkQ3fLNOX?f=p>

Yun, K. (2010) 'Even at school, development...Where is the playground? .' *Ohmynews*, [Online] 4th October. [Accessed on 5th November 2021]  
[http://www.ohmynews.com/NWS\\_Web/View/at\\_pg.aspx?CNTN\\_CD=A0001455763](http://www.ohmynews.com/NWS_Web/View/at_pg.aspx?CNTN_CD=A0001455763)

Yun, S. and Lee, Y. (2008) 'A study of the Sports Organization and the Structure of reorganization alternative.' *The Korea Journal of Sports Science*, 17(4) pp. 63-74.

Zae, S. and Son, C. (2018) 'Improvement Direction of School Physical Education following Integration of KSC and KOCOSA.' *the Korean Journal of Elementary Physical Education*, 24(1) pp. 87-100.

Zhang, Y. and Marsh, D. (2016) 'Learning by doing: the case of administrative policy transfer in China.' *Policy Studies*, 37(1) pp. 35-52.

## Appendices

### Appendix 1. United Kingdom's Historical Review of Countries

#### Country Profile

The UK (United Kingdom), more formally known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is made up of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (Operation



Figure 1. The UK map

Source: Operation World (2021)

World, 2019). The UK occupies Europe's north-western coast, with the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea enclosing it. It occupies the region to Norway's southwest, is northwest of France and west of Belgium, Denmark and Holland (Central Intelligence Agency, 2019). The UK is the 81<sup>st</sup> largest country worldwide with an area of 242,500 square kilometres ((Central Intelligence Agency, 2019). With a

population of roughly 68 million people in 2021, the UK is the 22<sup>nd</sup> most populous country. Approximately 83% of its overall population lives in urban areas (ibid; Girginov, 2017).

Considering the UK's economy, it is the second-largest economy to Germany in leading economic force and being a financial centre in Europe (International Monetary Fund, 2018) and is the fifth-largest economy worldwide after the US, China, Japan and Germany (Page, 2019). The major sectors in the growth of the UK's GDP are tourism, manufacturing, construction and services (Ibid). The largest sector in the UK is the services sector, which contributes to more than three-quarters of the GDP. There are various industries in the UK's service sector, such as business service and finance, industries that focus on the consumers, for example food and beverage, entertainment and retail (Silver, 2019). Meanwhile, there has been a decline in the importance of manufacturing; nonetheless, it still contributes to approximately 20% of the economy (Central Intelligence Agency, 2019).

Table 1. Facts and descriptive features of the United Kingdom.

Population (number of inhabitants)	65.1 million: England (54.7m), Scotland (5.2m), Wales (3.3m), Northern Ireland (2m)
------------------------------------	---

Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	243,610
Density (inhabitants/km <sup>2</sup> )	262.0
Urbanisation rate (%)	83
Political organisation	Parliamentary constitutional monarchy
Structure of the state	Unitary
Number of states/territories	27 regions/1 territory
Number of municipalities	418 local councils
GDP per capita (UK pound)	31,760
Welfare model	Anglo-Saxon/Anglo-American

Sources: Central Intelligence Agency (2019); The World Bank (2013); Silver (2020); Girginov (2017).

The United Nations Human Development Index indicates that out of 189 nations and world territories, the HDI of the UK is at the 14<sup>th</sup> position. The HDI value of the UK has increased by approximately 18.9% between 1990 and 2017; this implies that it is easy to achieve quality human development in terms of education, quality health, living standards, etc. in the UK (United Nations Development Programme, 2018).

As the fifth-largest economy worldwide, the UK is very dynamic with the 2018 nominal GDP (PPP) per capita at £34,900 (\$44,300 USD) indicating it as the 39<sup>th</sup> wealthiest nation in the world (Central Intelligence Agency, 2019; Investopedia, 2019; OECD, 2016). A comparison with the average worldwide GDP (PPP) of £14,223 (\$17,968 USD) indicates that its national GDP is high (The World Bank, 2018b).

## **The United Kingdom and Sport**

### **1960-1980**

From the time Harold Wilson's Labour government was elected in 1964, the initial slogan of conservative sport, firmly entrenched in the encouragement of an arms-length association between the government and sport (Bloyce and Smith, 2009), started to wither. The Advisory Sports Council (later renamed the Great Britain Sports Council in 1972) was created within a year with Denis Howell chairing it. Additionally, although it was a lesser position in the government, Denis Howell was appointed as the Minister for Sport and Recreation, and the government intervened in the sector of sports and recreation (Roche, 1993).

Undoubtedly, the newly formed Advisory Sports Council aimed at achieving some major priorities such as 'raising the performance standards of sport and physical recreation'

(Coghlan and Webb, 1990: 67). Still, the council was mainly concerned with increasing the number of sports facilities for the society at large and promoting participation. As a result of these concerns, the newly renamed GB Sports Council's Sport for All programme emerged in 1972.

During that period, there was an extensive concession on the concentration and the direction of public policy for sport on developing new facilities and encouraging many people to participate in sports or Sport for All as a result of the guidance from the Council of Europe (Council of Europe, 1976), and a report from Cobham (1973). A conclusion from Houlihan (1991: 98-99) was that during the 1970s, "there was little noticeable tension between the interests of the noble and that of the population, [and] there was an agreement... that the priority was to increase the facilities." Coalter (1988) noted that Sport for All was more of a slogan. Sport for All shifted to 'sport for the disadvantaged', more specifically the inner-city youth (Houlihan, 1991).

To narrate the UK's sports policy evolution, it is essential to generally recognise the political, economic and social perspective of this particular period. During the 1970s, the government perceived sports to be a part of state welfare and defended its participation in sports on the grounds that citizens were free to participate in activities of sport and leisure, and thus the policy majorly aimed at developing new facilities (Henry and Bramham, 1993). The 1975 White Paper on Sport and Recreation, which emphasised extensive admittance to facilities, approved this (King, 2009). Nonetheless, Houlihan (1997: 93) says that despite presenting sport as a 'right' and citizens' 'need', the White Paper emphasised an accepted justification for intervention in the society, international pride and wellbeing of an individual. In general, it campaigned for an increase in the response of the government and a minimisation of management from volunteers. Although the White Paper was ambitious, the subsequent cutbacks and spending on the public prevented the delivery of its specific goals (King, 2009).

Besides the White Paper, a significant reform programme in the local government was witnessed in this period. Henry and Bramham (1993: 116) believed that the reforms were 'actions that significantly impacted leisure provision, including opportunities for sports via the public sector'. Various local authorities, partially due to the looming reorganisation in the local government, had large financial budgets to offer leisure facilities resulting in an



aggravated increase in the number of municipal sporting facilities; the the number of swimming pools increased by approximately 70% and there was job creation for sport and welfare experts within the local authorities in the 1972-1978 period (Henry and Bramham, 1993; King, 2009). This reorganisation ensured specialisation in delivering sporting opportunities within local authorities and also ensuring they occupied the centre of sport policy and, as a result, become the primary means of achieving the objectives of the national policy (Henry, 1993; 2001; Lord Carter of Coles, 2005).

Margaret Thatcher became the Prime Minister in 1979. Although Thatcher was hesitant in accepting sport as a valuable force (she viewed games as the origin of challenges), sports still played a part in solving the problems of the inner-city via the Action Sports programmes (Jefferys, 2012). In this area, for the local authorities to offer opportunities to the groups participating less, they were allocated financing. This indicates that the local authorities had more power in sports in addition to assisting in 'improving the development of sports as a legal activity of the local authority' (Houlihan and White, 2003: 37).

Starting in the 1980s, the GB Sports Council's strategy paper – 'Sport in the Community: The Following Ten Years' (Sports Council, 1982) – indicated a significant event in the policy as it showed an increasing conformity between the systems of the government and those of the Council of Sports (Green, 2004: 369). This paper emphasised those who did not have recreational schemes, for example, the jobless and the socially alienated (Coalter et al., 1988), and still influenced elite sports (Green, 2004). Although, Coalter et al. (1988) additionally believed that publishing the document did little to change the existing financing patterns in UK sports, as before its publication, funding had been concentrated on elite sports, and this did not change even after its release. The Council of Sport still had the most significant financial commitment to the noble sport, which consumed 45% of the Council's total expenditure (Bloyce and Smith, 2009). It had spent this much because the government had been concerned with national achievement (Coalter et al., 1988).

Henry and Bramham (1993) noted the period of 1985-1991 as being one of state flexibilisation and dis-investment, whereby new interest in rights dominated the conservative government. Initiatives in policies included introducing market principles in the running of the leisure provision in the public sector by Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) (e.g., Henry, 2001),

selling public assets (such as playgrounds), the politicisation of areas in policy that were initially considered sovereign or semi-independent of government regulations including sport and prioritising economic rather than social policy objectives. For instance, there was extensive use of sports as a tool in urban regeneration initiatives (Gratton and Henry, 2001).

Arguably, shifting the policy from a welfare to an economic preference led to a reduction in response to the requirements of grassroots sports, which led to a decline in regenerating the inner-city social initiatives. As such, spending in the inner-city areas declined by 41% between 1987 and 1990 (Henry and Bramham, 1993). Additionally, the Action Sports programmes created to reduce urban unrest slowed down (McIntosh and Charlton, 1985). To Margaret Thatcher, mass sport participation was a service which a user ought to spend on, while the noble sport, particularly, football led to more challenges than prestige (Houlihan, 2000). Therefore, spending on sports was considered as a wasteful expense, rather than as a section of a productive economy and venture.

Despite the government attempting to create sports administrative structures, this time can be attributed as one of fragmented organisation (Roche, 1993), in which there was an absence of a rational 'voice' for sport, partly due to the strain between the Sports Council and the interests of the voluntary sector and partly because of the shift of sport's position in government, sometimes being attached to education, with school sports leading, and sometimes being attached to the local government via the Department of Education (DoE). Consequently, the government aimed at ensuring adherence to the aspirations of the national policy through directly intervening at the local stage through the regional sports councils and higher management of the local governments. For instance, the 1980s quangos government appointments 'continuously reflected the sensitive political inclination to the New Right' (Henry and Bramham, 1993: 123). Furthermore, the functions and remittances of the Sports Council were questioned, although the practice did not change (Green and Oakley, 2001).

Therefore, Thatcher's period can be considered as one with an elevated state policy intervention affecting sport both locally and nationally from the perspective of progressive decline in the available resources for the local authorities and Sports Councils. However, the Sport Councils continued emphasising the expansion of participation in sports by focusing on particular communities in the inner-city regions, as the sport community detailed in the

reviews of the '90s and the DoE (1989), the Sport and Active Recreation Provision in the Inner Cities were reviewed as a result of the 1986 and 1987 Treasury White Papers that allotted resources to the inner-cities (King, 2009).

### **1990-1997**

The term of John Major, beginning November 1990, ushered in a new development period for UK sports (Phillipots et al., 2011). Although John Major 'augmented numerous legacies in the years of Thatcher' in various aspects (Taylor, 2006), two distinctions enriched his unique sports policy. First, he was very compassionate about the state offering public assistance to sports, even indirectly by creating the National Lottery. Second, he promoted 'continuity, community and stability' (Kavanagh, 1994: 13). These individual traits, in addition to his devotion to sports, made John Major the architect and advocator of a more methodical and practical sport approach (Henry, 2001).

There was a little difference between the Sport and Active Recreation document (Department of Education and Science (DES), 1991) and Margaret Thatcher's sports policy. However, with the 1992 re-election of John Major, the creation of the Department for National Heritage (DNH) followed, the National Lottery was introduced in 1994, and the publication of the policy paper *Sport: Raising the Game* in 1995 (Department for National Heritage (DNH), 1995; Zheng, 2015). Introducing the National Lottery greatly reflected the changed perception of the society and the government towards sports (Houlihan & White, 1992).

The DNH was an organisational facility infiltrated with the beliefs of 'conserving one's nations', or the belief in one, united, national prestige. Particular concerns of the sport policy regard the renewal of the usual school team sports and building the nation through the achievements of elite sports. Additionally, the DNH joined various policy areas that had no history of collaborating in their activities, for example, sports tourism, to work as a tool to market the city and economic improvement (King, 2009). Publishing the document *Sport: Raising the Game* offered a financial, organisational and management scheme that directed the destiny of sports policy within the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Green, 2004). While previously there had been limited resources, developing sport as 'a good cause', in 1994, the National Lottery guaranteed more financing from the government to the various sporting institutions that had

rigorous accounting controls (Henry, 2001; Houlihan, 1997; Phillpots et al., 2011). Furthermore, in that same year, the then conservative Minister of Sports, Ian Sproat, said that the government should “rescind from encouraging mass participation and unofficial recreation, and pursuit of leisure, and from the promotion of health, but rather move its focus to services that promote achievement” (McDonald, 1995: 72).

The following year saw the publication of the crucial first policy document on sports in 20 years, which was *Sport: Raising the Game* (DNH, 1995). This policy document offered a clear picture of the priorities of the government policies, which targeted developing elite sports. It was as a result of its input to 'national identity' (Houlihan, 2013: 36) and international associations. Meanwhile, the government exhibited intense interest in supporting the bids to host international sporting events locally. Despite Manchester unsuccessfully bidding for the 2000 Summer Olympic Games, the Minister of Sports emphasised the importance of attracting the Olympic Games to the UK (Sproat, 1995). Besides, Green (Green, 2004: 371) said that *Sport: Raising the Game* “left out the pretence of any assimilated and multi-dimensional sports development approach,” as the previous Sports Development Continuum has represented (Houlihan, 2002: 41-42). Furthermore, this policy witnessed the central government withdrawing from the management of sports welfare objectives, with the responsibility of mass participation being given to the local authority for leisure/sports services.

Additionally, Houlihan (1997: 95) noted that the National Curriculum includes introducing the conditional financing schemes for sport governing bodies with the aim of guiding policy towards elite objectives and the need for schools to include the ‘traditional’ team games. The publishing of *Sport: Raising the Game* ushered in a new era for the development of elite sports in the UK, not because it augmented the control of sport policy by the government but resulted in grants to NGBs becoming ‘restrictive upon supporting the objectives of the government’ (Green, 2004: 372). Houlihan (2002, quoted in Houlihan & Lindsey, 2013: 30) observed that Major had a more prolonged influence on sport policy long after his tenure.

## **1997-2012**

The ‘New’ Labour Party government was elected in 1997 and was to stay in office for thirteen

years. McKibbin (1997) believes that the New Labour Party advanced a new vision in politics that kept away from its social radicals and the roots of trade unions and 'modernised' itself into a government that could work in collaboration with civil society agencies (Leach and Percy-Smith, 2001). Consequently, it was a requirement for the public sector to work in collaborative arrangements in which the state would act as a facilitator instead of a provider (Kendall, 2001).

The 1997 Labour Party manifesto detailed the belief of the government that sports could promote the nation's impression of togetherness, status and civic dignity. The policy England the Sporting Nation (Sports Council, 1997) augmented the devotion of the Labour government to the promotion and facilitation of numerous sport policy initiatives of the past Conservative government. Reflecting on the expanding status of the sports policy area, the Labour government created a cabinet for sports, a choice which ushered a more direct, centralised approach in managing and controlling sports (Taylor, 1997). Additionally, this suggested that the delivery of sport policy was framed through methodical scrutiny, the guidance of policy and review and the strict control of finances which allowed the government to retain its power and control over policy outcomes. It was, nonetheless, somehow, hesitant to apply total control over the formulation and delivery of policy, preferring to leave this to sporting panels, such as Sport England and UK Sport (Coalter, 1990; Houlihan, 1991).

The New Labour Party found its voice after the policy statement "A Sporting Future for All" (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2000), the ensuing strategic plans (DCMS, 2001) and the delivery report (Department for Digital Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2004). Effectively, this policy and strategy are the epitome of the beliefs, values and preferences of the policies of the New Labour Party, which followed the routes of new right policies which were inclined towards the market and 'old' left welfare; as such, the government aimed at integrating 'recreational welfare' (justice of re-distribution by focusing on the groups which are at a disadvantage) and 'recreating welfare' (using sports for social advantage or cutting social expenses) (Coalter et al., 1988). Thus, the broad inclination of the ideas of the government had the best reflection in promoting social accommodation and quality value (Houlihan, 2000).

In terms of social accommodation, which is described as a mix of related challenges, for

example, low earnings, a deterioration in health and elevated lawlessness, it is believed that sports can contribute to the rejuvenation of neighbourhoods and produce a difference in health, crime, education and employment in marginalised societies (DCMS, 1999). The most prized agenda value reflects an interest in the performance of the policies which the local authorities deliver (Sport England, 1999a). The paper, "A Sporting Future for All" (DCMS, 2000) establishes four important applications of sports: furthering social inclusion, promoting living healthily; promoting the national status and international pride through the achievement of noble games and to utilise the economic gains from games, such as sports tourism. Thus, the policy is mostly a representation of the past government's justification to intervene in sports.

"A Sporting Future for All" (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2000: 7) additionally emphasises the adjustments which were introduced to sports in schools during Major's term, such as developing unique sports colleges (Henry, 2001; Houlihan, 2000; M. Green and Houlihan, 2005), although community and educational objectives had more significant weight as compared to the previous conservative rule. However, specialised sports institutions can be perceived as playing an essential role in the achievement of the objectives of elite sports policy (M. Green, 2004). Lastly, concerning school sports, there was more emphasis on protecting playgrounds from dumping as compared to the leadership of the conservatives.

More significant government actions were carried out after 1999. First, the publishing of the Sport England document, the Lottery Fund strategy, established the twin objectives of local projects to ensure sports success (Sport England, 1999b). This document also specified two critical stands of financial support, which included the Community Project Fund, amounting to £150 million, and the World Class Fund, amounting to £50 million. The financial support specified by the document was an illustration that the government was in support of elite sports development. The development of the Elite Sports Institute Network was the second action taken by the New Labour Government. The UK Sports Institute (UKSI) began operation in 1999 (Theodoraki, 1999) with the intention to focus on scarce coaching, lifestyle, medical and sport science resources needed for the success of elite sports. UK Sport became a significant distributor of Lottery funds during the same year. A three-tier, Performance, Potential and Start, world-class Lottery Fund was established after the Elite Sports Review made

a recommendation. The structure was meant to make a more integrated, structured and efficient investment for elite athletes. According to Green and Houlihan (2000), the UKSI and National Lottery funding were two critical elements that underlie the emerging elite sport development model in the UK.

A strategy titled “Game Plan: a strategy for delivering the government’s sports and physical activity objectives” was an important policy strategy delivered by the New Labour Government in 2002 (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002). The effects of lobbying that occurred over the previous fifteen years were evident in a chapter of the strategy which focused on advocating for bidding for more events of greater scale. It was the first time that the central government formally recognised the significance of bidding for large scale events. In specific, this “Game Plan” advocated for a new approach with two essential elements: 1) a centre of expertise whose role was the management of the involvement of the central government from the beginning of projects and 2) undertaking long-term forecasting which set out future hosting possibilities with an improved, standardised approach to planning, hosting and assessing events (ibid).

The inherent desire of the “Game Plan” was to use sports to attain social policy objectives. Bloyce and Smith (2009) argued that this is because it emphasised social inclusion and a growing willingness to use sports and physical activities as mediums for social policy as well as non-sport objectives. According to Green (2004) the strategy resulted in a significant shakeup of sporting structures and had a specific focus on instrumental relationships among physical activity, sport, health and education. Besides, the structural changes were meant to achieve the two strategic goals of the “Game Plan”: increase participation and encourage NGBs to target broader social issues. Another aim of the “Game Plan” was to strengthen the relationship between sports and non-sport institutions to achieve social policy purposes and provide new ways for the achievement of elite sports objectives by the governing bodies of sport as well as the government (Green, 2004).

London received the award of hosting the 2012 Summer Olympic Games by the IOC on 27 June 2005 during the 117th IOC Session held in Singapore. The successful bid resulted in a shift in the direction and delivery of sport policy priorities in the UK. Publishing the DCMS (2008) 2012 Legacy Action Plan, ‘Before, during, and after: making the most of the London

2012 Games', outlined the new determinations of the government for the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. This plan aimed at using the games to attain several grassroots policy agendas that focused on increasing sports participation, addressing the underachievement of the younger people, their disaffection and supporting them to make healthy lifestyle choices (Phillpots et al., 2011).

As argued by Houlihan and Lindsey (2012), awarding London the right to host the 2012 Olympic Games resulted in a significant political legitimisation for policy decisions to prioritise the development of elite sports. The success of the Olympics, including the success to host the games and attain medals, became a primary policy concern. Tony Blair's government and Gordon Brown, Blair's Labour successor, took various measures against this background.

In 2015, there was a restructuring of the sports organisational apparatus. The restructure involved the DCMS, Youth Sport Trust, UK Sport, National Governing Bodies and Sport England, and the details will be discussed in the organisational structure section. Next, the World Class Performance (WCP) programme, managed by UK Sport since 1997, began to play a crucial role in making sure that top athletes achieved success (UK Sport, 2012). There are three different levels within the programme and the possibility of and the lead time for winning a medal during the Olympic Games (Figure 2). The Podium is the first level and supports individuals who are perceived to have a real chance of winning a medal at the (2012 London) Olympic Games. The athletes referred to as the Podium are highly prioritised and receive financial support from other channels alongside the NGB through the WCP programme. For example, the Podium athletes receive a maximum of £26,142 from the Athlete Personal Award every year (McDonald, 2011). Development is the second level that targets athletes who are perceived to have a realistic chance of winning medals in the next cycle of the (2016 Rio) Olympic Games. Talent Identification and Confirmation is the third level and focuses on an individual who may need up to six years or more to attain the Podium level. The three levels are not mutually exclusive because athletes who were previously at the Development level had been upgraded to the Podium level before the 2012 London Olympics (ibid).



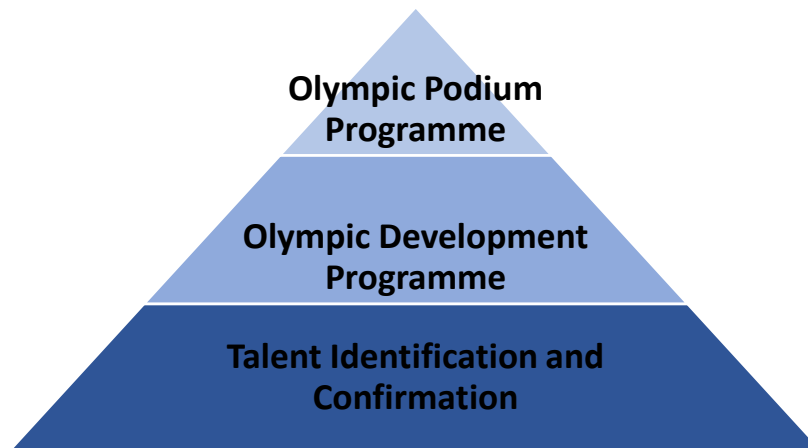


Figure 2. UK Sport's World Class Programme Pyramid  
Source: McDonald (2011: 380); UK Sport (2020)

The essential sport document was 'Playing to Win: A New Era for Sport' (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2008), which was published during Gordon Brown's premiership period (2007-2010). The document provided an outline of new plans to rationalise and restructure sports provision. The revised responsibility of Sport England was delivering sport policy outcomes focused on growing and sustaining sport participation, enhancing talent development and assisting more individuals in excelling. Most importantly, as outlined by Phillpots et al. (2011), Sport England performed a reconfiguration of its governance arrangement with the CSPs by obtaining a set of core services for NGBs, which aimed at the coach, club and volunteer development through local partnership brokering.

Andy Burnham, the Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport, made an announcement in June 2008 outlining that as an Olympic host nation, the UK had a moment in time to establish new levels of ambitions for sport and create permanent change in the society. He outlined that it provided the nation with an era of unprecedented opportunity (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2008). The win also led to another shift in sport policy from an emphasis on the broader benefit of sports to the society to a sport for sport's sake narrative (Brookes and Wiggan, 2009). As a result, the NGBs and Sport England paid more attention to policy outcomes that focused on the 2012 London Olympics and mutual commitment to maximising British sporting success (Phillpots et al., 2010).

"Creating a sporting habit for life: A new youth sport strategy" (Department for Culture Media

and Sport (DCMS), 2012) was a government sports strategy formulated in 2012 concerned with the issue of increasing the participation levels of sports. The new strategy focused on the group aged 14-25 instead of all age groups by assuming that achieving a change in attitude towards participation in sports is a long-term project. To some extent, the document issues significant concerns of the coalition government regarding grassroots sports.

## Appendix 2. Australian Historical Review of Countries

### Country Profile

Australia is located between the Indian Ocean and the South Pacific Ocean (CIA World



Figure 2. The six states and the two main territories in Australia

Source: stepmap (2021)

Factbook, 2019). With regards to the land mass covering an area of 7,682,300 km<sup>2</sup>, it is the sixth largest nation on Earth following Russia (1<sup>st</sup>), Canada (2<sup>nd</sup>), the US (3<sup>rd</sup>), China (4<sup>th</sup>) and Brazil (5<sup>th</sup>) (Miklos, 2018). The nation is composed of 'six states: New South Wales (NSW), Queensland (QLD), South Australia (SA), Tasmania (TAS), Victoria (VIC) and Western Australia (WA) as well as two

territories: the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) and the Northern Territory (NT)' (Brockett, 2017: 20).

With a population of 22.4 million people – consisting of 25.9% English, 25.4% Australian, 7.5% Irish, 6.4% Scottish, 3.3% Italian, 3.2% German, 3.1% Chinese, 1.4% Indian, 1.4% Greek and 1.2% Dutch with the remaining 15.8% identifying as others and 5.4% as unspecified – Australia is the 56<sup>th</sup> most populous nation on Earth (CIA World Factbook, 2019). Moreover, the population density in Australia is only three inhabitants per km<sup>2</sup> (World Bank, 2013; 2014) with 86% of this population being concentrated towards the eastern coast (Stewart et al., 2004; The World Bank, 2013).

Looking at Australia's economy, the Australian market is open and significantly lowering the limit 'on imports of goods and services'. Indeed, the market has boosted productivity, spurred growth and brought up the economy to be 'more flexible and dynamic' (CIA World Factbook, 2019). 'Natural resources, energy and food' are major exports in Australia. The country contains a wide range of reserves of 'coal, iron, copper, gold, natural gas, uranium and renewable energy sources'. Based on such considerable and varied natural resources, Australia can attract high levels of international investment (World Bank, 2013; 2014). In addition, it has been widely reliant on the service sector to accelerate Australian economic growth recently. According to the United Nations Human Development Index, Australia is the

third most developed country in the world behind Norway (1<sup>st</sup>) and Switzerland (2<sup>nd</sup>) (Stewart et al., 2004; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2018). “This was achieved through a combination of ‘explosive productivity growth,’ low inflation, a rapid expansion in the finance, business, and communication industries, and growth in global trade” (Stewart et al., 2004: 4; Edwards et al., 2020).

Table 2. Facts and descriptions of Australia

Population (number of inhabitants)	22,700,000
Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	7,692,024
Density (inhabitants/km <sup>2</sup> )	3.0
Urbanisation rate (%)	86
Political organisation	Parliamentary constitutional monarchy
Structure of the state	Federal
Number of states/territories	6 states/2 territories
Number of municipalities	560 local councils
GDP per capita (UK pound)	40,058
Welfare model	Anglo-American

Sources: CIA World Factbook (2019); Geoscience Australia (2021); Brockett (2017); OECD (2017).

Australia is highly progressive as the 12<sup>th</sup> largest economy in the world by nominal GDP per capita in 2019 and is the 29<sup>th</sup> wealthiest country in the world with a per capita GDP (PPP) of UK £40,058 (\$52,003 USD) (2017). Compared to the global GDP (PPP) average of £12,430 (\$16,136 USD), it shows just how high the national GDP is (The World Bank, 2018b). Not only these, Australia is highly ranked regarding “national performance, such as quality of life, health, education, economic freedom, and the protection of civil liberties and political right, etc.” in the world. It does not have a language of its own, but English has always been spoken and is recognised as the national language (Brockett, 2017: 21).

## **Australia and Sport**

### **1970s**

Typical to the rest of the developed countries, the intervention of the federal government of Australia in sports policy prior to World War II was sceptical and limited to the advancement of physical population strength for military service (Armstrong, 1997; Booth, 1995). Looking at the diverse Australia sport development studies, until 1972, sport policy belonged to the

group of insignificant issues. From the time of the election of Gough Whitlam, the Australian Labour Party leader, in 1972, an intervention in the area of sport policy was made by the government (Green and Houlihan, 2005). What Baka emphasised was that 'without doubt, Australia displayed late passage into the sector of governmental participation in sport' (1986: 27).

In 1973, two essential strategies were emanated. The first one was the establishment of a specialist position called Tourism and Recreation. The basic commitment of the government towards strengthening mass participation was featured in its programmes, coupled with the secondary concern of the elite performers' development (Green et al., 2015). Secondly, an establishment of an inquiry was made under the University of Western Australia's professor of physical education John Bloomfield. Saddled with the responsibility of preparing sport plans using the available report showing policy-learning suggestions on the basis of main European sport institutes studies, the federal government commissioned Jon Bloomfield (*ibid*). The inquiry aimed to examine 'the role, scope, as well as Australia recreation development' (Stewart et al., 2004:48). The report of Bloomfield, following its popularity, provided concerns over the decline in the levels of fitness, the decreasing participation of physical education in schools, the expanding occurrence of heart disease as well as the rising stresses confronted by the present-age societies like Australia (Bloomfield, 2003). This represented an essential change of policy, seeing the retraction of its view that no sport in politics exists (Stewart et al., 2004).

Bloomfield recommended that there should be implementation of a national recreation programme by the Commonwealth Government through the Department of Tourism and Recreation Division, and this programme would entails three prongs. The target of the first was the establishment of centres for recreation in the community in the entirety of Australia. The second prong would boost the consciousness of the community regarding general fitness' importance. The last prong would expand the research capability of sports science and the athlete programmes of Australia's elites (Bloomfield, 2003). Figure 3.4 illustration is based on the model of Bloomfield, which turned into a prototype and a framework for future government policy on community sport as well as the elites.

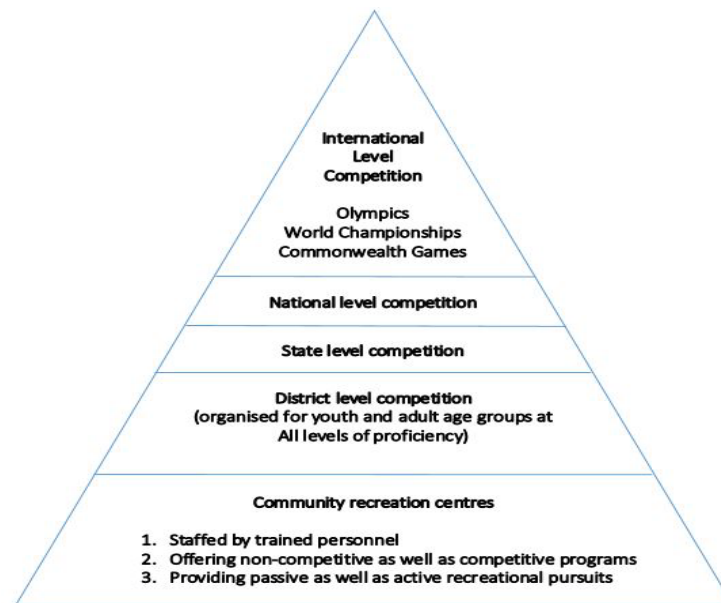


Figure 3. Bloomfield's recreational pyramid.

Source: Bloomfield (2003)

The report by Bloomfield also served as a fastener for the government of Whitlam to take up another sports inquiry. Allan Coles, a University of Queensland's sport scientist, was the chairman of the 1975 inquiry and concentrated on the matter of elite athlete development as well as the assessment of starting up an institute of sports (Department of Tourism and Recreation, 1976). Without wasting time, Coles' Committee found out that many countries in Europe were taking up an extreme systematic measure in confronting the elite athletes' needs and also cultivated many forms of high-level training as well as conditioning regimes (Stewart et al., 2004).

As the reports of Coles and Bloomberg presented a captivating argument regarding the move for the increased involvement of the government in sports, the anomaly of making a balance of sports assistance for elites against community sports development was also brought into the limelight by them (ibid). The Tourism and Recreation Minister Frank Stewart showed favouritism towards the sport model for the community while emphasising that his government's intention was not to 'emulate the gold medal factories of East Germany'. The priority of the Commonwealth government was 'mass participation' (Semotiuk, 1996). Without doubt, the development of elite sports was paraded by the Commonwealth as the community involvement's end product (Australian Labour Party, 1980). As community sports were the initial focus of the Government of Whitlam, the reports of both Coles and Bloomfield also encouraged an institute for the training of elite athletes (Stewart et al., 2004).

But then, through the Liberal government's election held during the time of Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser, the happiness encapsulating the commitment of the Commonwealth Government to sports was terminated in 1975, thus bringing about enhanced directional change in the sports policy of Australia (Stewart et al., 2004; Green and Houlihan, 2005). The unavailability of interest towards strengthening the initiatives of Whitlam manifested in the instant dissolution of the Tourism and Recreation Department (Bloomfield, 2003). Furthermore, a halt was placed on the Sport Assistance Programme of the Australian government, and the sustenance of its Capital Assistance Programme was on the condition of honouring the Labour Government's previous commitments (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 1986). As such, funding for sports declined during the Fraser Government's first four years. In 1976, as the spending of the government was £4 million (\$7.6 million AUS), there was a reduction in 1978 to £1.6 million (\$3 million AUS) (Australian Labour Party, 1980). Following what one critic said, the sports policy of the Fraser Government was 'unproductive' (Armstrong, 1988: 139). Fantastic enough, Semotiuk also stressed that governmental change described "the profound difference in philosophical approach to sport between the present Liberal-Country Party government and the Australian Labour Party opposition" (1986:163).

The disgraceful performance of the Australian Olympic team at the 1976 Montreal Olympics was a significant display of the 'failure' of Australia on the global scene (Houlihan, 1997). Additionally, as a result of 'the expressions of dissatisfaction' as well as the confidence crisis in Australia's sporting community, the Confederation of Australian Sport (CAS) focused on making a soft deal towards getting improved funding from the government (Stoddart, 1986: 69).

1976 was the year in which the Confederation of Australian Sport (CAS) was established. Gary Daly, Australia's one-time Lawn Tennis Association General Manager, was in charge. The aim of the CAS was to conglomerate what at that time was paraded to be a divided sporting community and also to influence the government towards the joint case so as to accomplish a better offer for sports (Houlihan, 1997).

The case of the CAS was reinforced through a governmental discussion paper which made an argument for sport assistance to increase. It gave a citation of East Germany as an example of good sports policy considering the fact that both the elite and community sports had been

funded by it. This paper concluded that towards securing a solid global sporting image for Australia, a national sports institute would be paramount (Development of Environment Housing and Community Development, 1976). Towards the late 1970s, the extrinsic pressures pushed the Commonwealth Government to reorganise its elite policy end of the sports development continuity as time went by (Stewart et al., 2004).

### **1980s**

The Fraser Government initially declared its interest in the implementation of the recommendations of Coles and Bloomfield for an elite sports training academy. But then a stimulation on the path of the Commonwealth Government towards elite sport development policy reconsideration occurred as a result of the Australian athletes' failure to win any gold medals at the 1976 Montreal Olympics, coupled with the fragmentation emanating from the boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympics (Booth and Tatz, 2000). Bob Ellicott received an invitation from the Prime Minister towards the end of 1978 to assume leadership of the portfolio of Home Affairs and Environment, encapsulating sports as one of its segments. Rather than parading sports as a liability just as had previously be done by his colleagues, the decision of Ellicott was that sport is an essential aspect of Australians' lives as well enhances its development as well (Bloomfield, 2003). It was also necessary towards directing government decision in advancing their performances in international sporting (Green, 2007). As a result of these reasons, in 1981, the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) occurred (Stewart et al., 2004; Bloomfield, 2003; Green, 2007).

The establishment and maintenance of the AIS were in the national capital, Canberra, as a training centre with high technology (Stewart et al., 2004). But then, as a result of criticisms around the short sports range situated at the site, as well as its extremely centralised operational nature, the subsequent decentralisation of the AIS occurred. Despite the fact that the AIS became continuously held by Canberra, there was a development of academies and institutes in a network of the eight territories/states, integrating about 25 sports (Pyke & Norris, 2001). At the beginning of the 1980s, the translocation in the sports policy of the government for the development of elite sports was witnessed with the placement of the AIS



by the Liberal government as the major duty-call for its policies on sports (Armstrong 1997; Pyke & Norris, 2001).

In 1983, power became repossessed by the reformative Labour Government, increasing feral sports funding and also offering a solid dedication to sports. The government's stand regarding the policy on sports was targeted as 'make sport and recreation available to everyone who wishes to participate' (Semotiuk, 1996). The Hawke Government's policy on sports was developed on the basis of the model of Whitlam's sports development and created a separate Department of Sport, Recreation and Tourism (Stewart et al., 2004). Additionally, the production of a white paper by the government bearing the title 'Sport and Recreation: Australia on the move' prepared the stage for an enlarged policy on sports with an emphasis on the development of facilities (Bloomfield, 2003).

The first main decision of the Department was a dual one – consolidation of the programmes on elite sports by the former government and also the expansion of the community sports policy (Australian Government, 1983). This led to the production of direct strategies for athletes with disabilities, in addition to already existing sports facilities for the community and for sport centres of global standard. The Hawke Government also observed the potential for tourism in sports following the allocation of \$30 million AUD for three years to assist in the development of infrastructure towards the 1987 America's Cup defence in Fremantle (Stoddart, 1986). Lastly, it made a new emphasis regarding the perception that incurring more expenses on elite sports was suitable for the entire community considering its quickened involvement (Stewart et al., 2004). The Sport, Tourism and Recreation Minister John Brown, being newly appointed, made an argument that ensuring the availability of more funds to top global athletes was an essential ingredient in mobilising more youngsters into sport (Hartung, 1983). He also stated that "Provided the youngsters have aspirations, they will be encouraged to get involved at the foundational level" (Hartung, 1983: 52).

Within a short time interval after the Hawke Government's early re-election in 1985, leverage was given to the AIS by the establishment of the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), with the potential for minimising fragmentation, promoting cooperation, and permitting more involvement in sporting group processes of decision making as well as expanding sports'

financial base (Stewart et al., 2004). When the operation of the commission began, its objectives were the following (Bloomfield, 2003:88):

- i) to ensure funds were used to develop sports at all levels throughout Australia;
- ii) to provide leadership that would enable both elite and participant sports to further develop; and
- iii) to increase funding for sports, especially from the private sector.

Regardless of the fact that the objectives of the ASC span over the normal massive participation and the development of elite divide, there had been a continuous invitation into cynical interpretations (Commonwealth of Australia, 1999). The establishment of the AIS and the ASC in the 1980s was a clear indication of the federal government's primary concern and of its determination that Australia would 'return to glory' (Magdalinski, 2000: 317).

The Hawke Government carried out a parliamentary sports administration and funding inquiry in 1989 which led to two reports tagged respectively as 'Going for Gold' and 'Can sport be Bought?' (Bloomfield, 2003: 93). The reports concluded that as there was an important duty of the Commonwealth to fund the quest for excellence; however, no confirmation or proof that funding was unorganised exists, leaving certain members to lack focus (Marin, 1989; 1990). It was also emphasised in the report that an achievement of excellence that was sustainable would be actualised through enhanced assistance from the Commonwealth Government. Subsequently, a merger occurred between the ASC and the AIS through the Commonwealth Government, featuring the transformation of the ASC as the crucial core policy information and also the AIS as the programme coordinator. The outcome was an improved approach that was strategic and systematic to the development of sports (Bloomfield, 2003). In fact, the ASC had become an agency to plan and regulate sports through the laying down of guidelines for performance as well as diverse parameters for operation in place of continuous support and funding for NSOs. This agenda led toward excellent sports performance in the state sports academies through its AIS control (Stewart et al., 2004).

## Appendix 3. Norwegian Historical Review of Countries

### Country Profile

Having coastlines on the North Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean and being situated in



Figure 4. Norway map

Source: Economist Intelligence (2020)

Northern Europe, Norway lies on the western section of the Scandinavian Peninsula. It shares land borders with Russia, Finland and Sweden and maritime borders with Iceland, Denmark and the UK (One World Nations Online, 2019a). It covers 323,758 km<sup>2</sup> with a total population in 2019 of roughly 5.3 million people (The Economist, 2020). Approximately 670,000 people (13%) of the total population in 2020 resided in the capital city of Oslo, with

83% of the total population residing in urban areas. This is an increase of 1.4% from 2015, indicating a trend towards population concentration in urban areas (Central Intelligence Agency, 2020a).

Table 3. Facts and description of the Norway

Population (number of inhabitants)	5,328,212
Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	323,758
Urbanisation rate (%)	83
Political organisation	Parliamentary constitutional monarchy
Structure of the state	Unitary
Administrative divisions	18 counties
GDP per capita (UK pound)	45,970
Welfare model	Scandinavian

Sources: The Economist (2020); Central Intelligence Agency (2019).

Norway has a secure economy with a lively private sector, a big state sector and a sizeable social safety net. Based on Norway's size, its economy is minute by the standards of Western Europe, but regardless, it is considered among the healthiest in the world, particularly due to its lack of foreign debt and its positive trade balance. Norway is widely considered as being an exceptional and affluent combination of dynamic free market activity, a social welfare state and active government intervention. In November 1994, it opted out of the EU during a

referendum, but being a member of the European Economic Area, Norway participates, in part, in the EU's single market while also contributing greatly to the EU's budget (Nations Encyclopedia, 2020; Central Intelligence Agency, 2020a).

Having a 2020 nominal GDP (PPP) per capita of £61,214 (\$78,333 USD), Norway is the fifth wealthiest country in the world, while also sitting at the top of the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index (HDI) ranking. Norway's HDI value has increased by roughly 10% between 1990 and 2018, when it sat at 95%. Having reached an eleven-year high, unemployment was expected to have reached a 3.6% decline. For 2020 and 2021, the IMF's projected estimated figures for unemployment do not differ (United Nations Development Programme, 2018; International Monetary Fund, 2018; The World Bank, 2018b; Santander Trade markets, 2020)

## **Sports in Norway**

### **New Visions: The 1960s and 1980s**

The nation of Norway has long traditions of exercise and sport. Due to the pervasive presence of the many coasts, rivers, fjords, forests, fields and mountains (natural environment), Norway's people have long enjoyed spending their leisure time doing recreational activities in nature. Nevertheless, since importing modern sports from the English, local traditions of exercise, such as skiing and shooting, were supplemented with more modern forms of physical activities which were organised and competitive and are often referred to as English sports, particularly football (Tonnesson, 1986; Green et al., 2018).

Adult males have been the prime participants in organised competitive sports in Norway, an activity that has been reserved for them. Sports for children and women were practiced as physical education within the school system or in a non-formal setting up until the 1960s (Loland and Ommundsen, 1996).

However, from the 1960s to 80s there was radical change. In the Norwegian Confederation of Sports (NCS), the number of memberships increased from 430,000 in 1965 to roughly 1.6 million in 1985 during the period known as "the sport revolution" according to Norwegian sport historians (Olstad and Tonnesson, 1987). Several factors can explain this increase (Skille

and Säfvenbom, 2011). The TRIM-campaign was launched in 1967 by the NCS due to stagnation in the number of memberships earlier in the decade. This campaign appealed to large groups in the part of the population that is considered less active by stressing health, fitness and social values in a non-competitive setting. Furthermore, gender roles changed in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Lastly, but in no way the least important, the area of voluntary sport became an arena for Norwegian children and youth. In truth, around 15% of children and youth aged 17 or younger were members of sports clubs compared to greater than 50% in 1985 (Tonnesson, 1986; Loland and Ommundsen, 1996).

A well-known radio- and TV personality triggered the TRIM-campaign. Society's interest in competitive sports was stimulated by the development of mass media and sports broadcasting. Voluntary sports clubs ended up in what was essentially a monopolistic situation in a new and expanding "market" as a result of the public school reform in 1974 which placed restrictions on the use of competitive sports in physical education (Loland and Ommundsen, 1996).

Norwegian sports were dominated by policies focused on grassroots sports following World War II up until the early 1970s. Specifically, the Gambling project for expanding regional sports facilities and the TRIM-campaign for expanding grassroots sports' bases were all conducted in a manner that was independent of elite sports' promotion. Therefore, the elite policy of Norway was relatively passive at that time when compared to that of other countries. There was a sense of prevail of scepticism (Lee et al., 1998).

With the 1973 inauguration of the Labour Government, a 'Stortingsmelding' (White Paper) on culture was published, including a section on sports for the first time which was written by Hans B. Skaset, a former NIF board member and later Chairman of the NIF and Athletics Association. This sports section stated, "A centrally directed sports culture which generally emphasises one-dimensional, extreme performance standards, will hardly encourage other than passive support for sport as an entertainment phenomenon." The central bodies within sports organisations also came under criticism for focusing too much on elite culture (Ministry of Church and Education, 1974a; 1974b; Goksoyr and Hanstad, 2012).

According to Skaset, he later said his draft was printed and the politicians saw no reason for making any changes. Yet, some sports circles did not welcome his ideas and he became

heavily criticised. Skaset stated, "My point was to tell what was about to happen. We stood before a development towards elite sport, particularly internationally. I absolutely felt there was reason to point to the unfortunate sides" (Hanstad, 2002: 156). Skaset was elected as vice-president of the NIF later that same year, in spite of this controversy.

A more offensive way of thinking emerged, both in relation to grassroots sports and elite sport during the 1970s. An important phrase from the 1973 White Paper on Culture claimed that 'grassroots sports' should be a goal for state policies on sport, then gave a logical but politically laden formulation in a following White Paper later that same year, stating "Also, the winners belong to 'all'" (Ministry of Church and Education, 1974a; 1974b).

This formulation later became an important governmental statement for legitimising elite sports as it was a way of connecting the 'grassroots sports' ideal with support for top level sports. It was also the first statement of its kind. In the field of elite sports, it also opened up state intervention. This was followed up with state scholarships to top level athletes later on in the 1970s. As such, the Norwegian national budget started containing funding for such grants beginning in 1978. While the distribution of the football pools provided the rest of the support for sports, the national budget provided support for elite sports. The rationale behind this is interesting to note. A few of the arguments in support of such measures claimed it as a way of countering what was seen as the growing commercialisation of Norwegian sports (Goksoyr and Hanstad, 2012).

The National Olympic Committee (NOC) initiated discussion in the early 1970s with the NIF regarding the reorganisation of elite sports. The lack of continuity in the, not only financial, investment of elite sports and the lack of coordination among different national sports federations in regards to competence and resources was their chief concern (Pål Augestad et al., 2006). Consequently, in 1974 a council for coaches and leaders was established, changing its name to the Consultant Group for Elite Sport in 1976. Establishing a top sports centre was one of its proposals (Pål Augestad and Bergsgard, 2008).

A new group, now called the Top Sport Committee, was established under the leadership of the NOC's chairman (Jan Gulbrandsen) and submitted a similar proposal. In its report it was written that a chief consultant for elite sports should lead such a unit (Norwegian Confederation of Sports (NIF), 1979). The NIF showed resistance to this proposal due to fears

that the NOC and sports federations would move away from the sports movement in which grassroots sports were a core value. The proposal was voted down by the general assembly in 1980, which then created another committee.

Even though there was no follow up to the recommendation of an elite sports unit by the NIF Board, the research project of Augestad et al. (2006) on the Olympic Top Sports Program (hereafter *Olympiatoppen*) came to the conclusion that the 1979 Top Sport Committee's recommendations contained all of the essential elements in what became such a unit, most notably Project 88 ('*Prosjekt 88*' in Norwegian). All of these things happening in the 1970s need to be seen as an effect of the increasing seriousness and importance of sports in modern nation states. Potentially called intensification, this process is clearly related to the simultaneous professionalisation of sports that was taking place. Lindroth (1998) developed the concept of intensification, building on the totalisation concept of Henila (1994). This process is characterised by the three central stages of performance focusing, result optimisation and resource mobilisation, and it expanded into the next decade.

Such events were present in the development of the Norwegian elite sports model. Both the Summer Olympics in Los Angeles and the Winter Olympics in Sarajevo in 1984 were seen as great disappointments in Norway, having won only three medals in Los Angeles, none of which were gold. Norway won nine medals in Sarajevo, three of which were gold, but only one was in cross-country skiing, a sport whose symbolic value in Norwegian society is enormous (Andersen and Ronglan, 2015).

The central actors of the Norwegian sports movements interpreted disappointing results as a sign of systemic problems following the 1984 Olympics (Tonnesson, 1986), triggering system-level entrepreneurial initiatives for strengthening elite sports efforts (see Table 3.4). These included the amount of resources which were required to remain in the increasingly tense competitive race, how elite sport efforts should be organised and redefining what elite sports were about (Andersen and Ronglan, 2015). In addition, the NOC and NIF came to the decision of establishing a central elite sport unit, like Project 88.

Table The push to change Norwegian sports in the 1980s

Key elements	Norway
Field Characteristics	- Sports organised in one confederation; powerful alliances among leaders of confederation and important sports
Developing a vision for divergent change	- Late 1970s/mid 1980s: Focus – create new challenges for international competitiveness; elite initiatives within the sports movement
Mobilising allies	- Push leaders of sports confederations and important sports federations to reframe elite sport as a special domain within the sport movement
Mobilising resources	- Project 88 - Initiating a central elite sport organisation that starts as projects; in 1988 made into a small permanent organisation named Olympiatoppen

Source: Andersen and Ronglan (2015: 6)

Project 88 was referred to as 'The Norwegian Model' after its incorporation, emphasising how insight and expertise could be exploited across sports through federations' cooperation. Project 88's work basis was mirrored in various slogans like 'athletes in focus', 'knowledge-based elite sport' and 'holistic development' (Pål Augestad and Bergsgard, 2008). Furthermore, the goal for Project 88, working in cooperation with the federations, was to work at raising Norwegian elite sports' level so more athletes could compete at a world-class level (Olsen, 1988). Thor Ole Rimejorde, the first executive director, claimed that it was important to make more conducive conditions for coaches, leaders and athletes to get better results (Kirkebøen, 1984).

Creating conditions allowing top athletes to live normal lives and have guaranteed minimum security for whatever happens after their careers are finished were additional objectives of Project 88 (Kirkebøen, 1984). A system of this nature called for elite sports careers to be combined with education, military service and, in time, a profession. A keyword for this project was 'quality of life' (Goksoyr and Hanstad, 2012).

The Calgary Winter Olympics and the Seoul Summer Olympics in 1988 were the project's target. Even so, both Olympics ended in disappointment for Norway, particularly the Calgary Olympics in which not a single gold medal was won. This was something unprecedented since the introduction of the Winter Games in 1924 (Pål Augestad et al., 2006; Goksoyr and Hanstad,



2012). In spite of these incredibly disappointing results for the 1988 Olympics, Project 88 was almost entirely evaluated as positive. The NIF, NOC, and a majority of the sports federations which were specialised began to see the necessity of working together and several talented athletes were well on their way (Stensbol, 2010). Having a unified, centrally located organisation and resources, as well as the competence necessary to support various sports associations and athletes, the model appealed to and was considered by many to be the future direction for elite athlete development (Olsen, 1988). As a result, in 1988, a system with a centrally-located, separate elite sports organisation was created, but under the new name of Olympiatoppen. Operational responsibility for elite sports and Olympiatoppen were given to the NOC in 1990, indicating a shift in the management of the organisation. The 'cheerful amateurs' were booted and the professional trainers and leaders were brought in (Hanstad, 2002; Bergsgard, 2005).

Conversely, the General Assembly of the NIF discussed children's sport in 1976. The reason given was that the past had seen children's sport as an important means towards multiple goals (military preparedness, better health, moral education and preparedness for top-level sport performances). Yet, the Norwegian Confederation of Sports' current official ideology emphasised the importance of the felt experiences of children's play and games: 'Children's sport should provide them with positive experiences of fun, excitement, mastery, and co-operation within the sporting activities themselves' (Loland and Ommundsen, 1996).

The General Assembly was led to agree on new, rather radical rules in 1987 ('Regulations on Children's Sport') for organised children's sport as part of a continued process from 1976 (Stockel et al., 2010). These new rules declared children aged 5-7 in sports training should have activities consisting of play and other all-around activities to arouse their development as well as age-specific qualities which are trainable. Children aged 8-9 should participate in all-around activities targeting training as well as be introduced to various sports. Children aged 10-13 should train and begin to specialise in several disciplines as well as participate in all-around activities. Among the controversial rules, the most controversial involved the restrictions for early specialisation, in addition to the point indicating that children under age 10 were only allowed to participate in competitions in the sports clubs, and only those within

their local community. There was a ban on lists of results and schedules for children under the age of 13 (Pal Augestad and Bergsgard, 2008).

Protecting the children from what is seen as the damaging aspects of adult sports is the key idea of these regulations. The NIF seem confident in having created a sound and healthy children's sport through the encouragement of all-around activities being the core and creating difficulty in selecting one sport and specialising in it at such an early age. However, a certain ambiguity regarding competitions' role in children's sport exists. In one aspect, competition in and of itself has been recognised as being an important aspect of sport, while another aspect indicates that competition could have seriously damaging effects on children (Stockel et al., 2010).

For the most part, the leaders within the sports movement were the ones who initiated and implemented the changes in Norway. No other country had a national Olympic committee playing a key role at this point. The changes comprised the national elite sport system to be reframed overall; however, new models needed to be elaborated in terms of specific organisational solutions and strategies (Andersen and Ronglan, 2015).

## Appendix 4. South Korean Historical Review of Countries

### Country Profile

South Korea, officially known as the Republic of Korea, is a Northeast Asian country occupying the southern region of the Korean Peninsula which lies between the East Sea to the east, the



Figure 5. South Korea map  
Source: Operation World (2021)

Yellow Sea to the west, and the Strait of Korea, a channel in the sea between South Korea and Japan which lies to the south. South Korea shares a land border with the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) in the north (One World Nations Online, 2019b). The mainland size of South Korea, excluding its islands, is 99,720 km<sup>2</sup>, with a total populace of roughly 52 million people as of 2019 (Central Intelligence Agency, 2020b). Based on the housing and population census of 2017, 49.6%

lived in the Seoul metropolitan area. This was a 0.5% increase from 49.1% in 2010, showing a unique movement to the capital city (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2019b).

During the Korean War from 1950 to 1953, the country incurred considerable losses, and by the end of the war, the nation's economy was in disarray and there was significant destruction of its infrastructure. The change of the country from poverty to wealth has been the most significant economic achievement of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, becoming an advanced, globally-linked, high-tech society within decades (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2019b; Bajpai, 2019). The policies of the South Korean government led to considerable growth in the GDP, with an annual average of 10% between 1962 and 1994 (The World Bank, 2018a). According to the African Development Bank Group (2018) and the International Monetary Fund (2018), South Korea was once among the most impoverished world nations in the 1960s has since evolved to be the 4<sup>th</sup> biggest Asian economy and the 11<sup>th</sup> biggest economy worldwide by 2017. The GDP of the country more than tripled from 504.6 billion USD in 2001 to 1,616.4 billion in 2017. In the 2008-10 disastrous world financial crisis, South Korea

recorded an impressive 6.3% rate of economic growth (Korean Culture and Information Service, 2019a).

Table 3.5. Facts and description of South Korea

Population (number of inhabitants)	51.8 million
Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	99,720
Urbanisation rate (%)	81.4
Political organisation	Presidential system
Structure of the state	Local autonomy system
Number of states/territories	18 provinces
Number of municipalities	226 local councils
GDP per capita (UK pound)	30,550

Sources: Central Intelligence Agency (2020b); World Bank (2013)

The United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) shows that in every 189 countries and territories of the world, South Korea is positioned at 22 on the HDI. There has been an approximate increase of 24.5% on South Korea's HDI value from 1990 (72.8%) to 2018 (90.6%); the 2018 HDI value of Korea exceeds the average of 89.2% for nations in the group of very high development for people and over the average of 89.5% for OECD countries (United Nations Development Programme, 2019).

## **South Korea and Sport**

### **1961-1989**

Because of the lesser development and the freedom from its Japanese protectorates in 1945 as well as the Korean War from 1950 to 1953, the South Korean government lacked interest in promoting sports. There were other urgent issues-nourishing, sheltering and training an impoverished country, and the populace had concerns about primary survival. Besides, the Korean political situation lacked sufficient stability for the popularisation of sports (Ha and Mangan, 2002).

There was the establishment of the reign of Park Chung-hee (May 1961 to October 1979), who took the reins through the May 16 coup. There were significant changes during his rule. President Park rising to power was a foretelling sign of significant improvements in the sectors of politics, training, society and economy, including sports (Ha and Lim, 2001).

To defend his military coup regime, President Park Chung-hee began establishing a self-reliant economy, uniting the nation and the public to support the military government (D.-G. Kim, 2003). Since sports were overly employed as a political method to facilitate the ideologies of the communists in various dictatorial rules (Green, 2003), the Korean authoritarian rule, too, made sports an ideological and political tool in the 1960s and 1970s. With the combination of sports and politics, the central government was earnestly involved in sports at the beginning of the 1960s. Hence, sports development, mainly elite sports, received significant focus in the 1960s-80s (Park et al., 2012).

Many speeches given by President Park reiterated the importance of the fitness of the people. For instance, the address below indirectly expresses the sporting ideology of President Park:

“The shortest method of unifying the nation, which is our most significant responsibility, lies in the nation's power. The primary duty of our country is reunifying the territory, and one method of succeeding in this entails boosting our national capability. Given that the physical strength of a nation is a measure of the power of a nation, nobody can dispute that increasing the physical strength of the nation is one crucial element in developing our country. The unity and coordination spirit, and the courage attribute and perseverance via events of sports, will provide critical encouragement to solve all challenges” (The Korean Herald, 1967; , as cited in KIm, 1999:80).

Concerning sports and physical training, the authoritarian regime emphasised the importance of health, cleanliness and physical exercise to accomplish its political mission such that it changed the policy of education and inspired individuals to take part in sports activities to enhance their appearance (Park et al., 2012). One objective was to promote the physical standards of the nation through physical education. There was to be a significant extension of health and physical education classes in almost all facilities of education. According to Im (1998) and Ok (2004), physical training was to be a mandatory unit in high schools and universities.

The greatest success of the Park's rule was establishing a system for supporting elite sports. The idea was to improve the growing number of people doing elite sports, educating elite coaches, creating welfare systems for athletes and financing university athletes. Despite the social and economic circumstances being unfavourable for sporting in the 1960-1970s,

proceedings in law such as the act of promoting physical education and sports ensured such policies would be sought (Kim, 2004; Hong et al., 2010).

The law for promoting physical education and sports enacted on September 17, 1962, is frequently assumed to have ushered in the most dramatic shifts in the history of Korean sports with clear goals of promoting the health of the people, nurturing complete minds and offering a happy life to the people via the sports popularisation movement.

The stable clauses of this law entailed various actions to energise the prominent movement in sports (Lee, 1996; Ha and Lim, 2001). Besides, the 1988 Seoul Olympics was the climax of the modern evolution of sports in Korea. We can view it as a result from an international movement in sports, policies of the government and socio-economic change (Ok, 2004). Park's regime began the preparation of bidding for the hosting of the 1988 Olympics. Koreans got the courage to host a mega international sporting event from their achievements at hosting the 42<sup>nd</sup> World Competition in 1978 (Park, 1991).

Although Kim (2004) notes that Park's rule boosted the growth of national sports through management and procedures regarding funding, Ha and Mangan (2002), argue that 'sport for all' could not progress much due to inadequate resources for developing suitable facilities. However, it cannot be denied that the government acknowledged the significance of mass participation (Hong et al., 2010).

#### 1980-1992

At the close of the 1970s, the country lacked a stable political situation since there was extreme mass picketing against the regime by both students and civilians. President Park Chung-hee was assassinated by one of his close aides in 1979 after which, General Chun, Doo-hwan, ascended to the presidency as a military ruler in 1980 (Lee, 1996). Different from the anticipation of the populace for a democratic rule, Korean society again experienced a tyrannical, dictatorial rule with the objectives of created a type of controlled democracy, welfare society establishment, realising a fair society, reforming the system of education and cultural promotion (Lee, 2003).

The progress of the dictatorial rule led to the anti-government movement by the public in the 1980s, meaning that the regime of Chun, Doo-hwan, which did not get legitimacy and backing from the populace on its rule, urgently needed to be critically attentive to the masses and develop a convincing method of defending its leadership. Because of this, the dictatorial regime used sports or sporting activities to atone for its political illegality, for instance, the '3S Policy' (Sex, Screen and Sport) and the bid of the government for the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympic Games (Song and Kim, 1997; Cho, 2008).

Sports were an essential tool for the authoritarian regime, shaped to atone the absence of its political acceptance. Thus, the 1982 launching of the Korean Professional Basketball League (KPBL) and the 1983 Football League had a connection with the government's legislative scheme to divert the public's attention from politics. According to Cho (2008) and Koh (2005), the strategy had an essential role in switching the interest of the people from issues of politics. The emergence of these professional sports leagues has provided opportunities for the revitalisation of fully-fledged sports (Kwon and Yoo, 1995).

Even though it can be said that President Chun, Doo-hwan used the Olympics as a scheme to tackle the illegitimacy of his regime (Lee, 2004), the Olympics had a significant impact on sports in Korea. It is crucial to realise that these two meaningful activities had a significant combined effect on Korean society (Hong et al., 2010). The 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympic Games as international events of sports became the central stimulant for facilitating nationalism and oneness between Koreans. According to Koh (2005), they additionally allowed the government to solve delicate diplomatic challenges with North Korea and China.

Despite the regime of President Chun, Doo-hwan being an authoritarian and a military rule, Koreans still recognised him as the president who promoted the image of Korea by successfully hosting the two mega international sporting activities. This revealed how the regime efficiently utilised sports for political purposes. The regime neglected political crimes or the forceful suppression of dissidents during the Asian Games and the Olympics acclamation (ibid; Son, 2002).

The growth of elite sports in the country was promoted by the 1988 Seoul Olympics and the 1986 Asian Games, which can be proven by the 1982 establishment of the Sports Ministry, which was the national department answerable for implementing and managing various

South Korean sports policies (Lee et al., 1998). This has facilitated more promotion of national sports, expediting reconciliation of the country, the development of welfare and the promotion of national esteem by improving athletic performance. There was a full revision of the existing act for promoting sports in the same year. Sports promotion aimed at enhancing the people's physical power to instil a good spirit, to have a happy national living and to take part in promoting national esteem using sports. Therefore, creating the Sports Ministry with the objective of promoting sports showed the willingness of the government to develop sports (Department of Physical Education and Youth, 1992; Son, 2002).

In the regime of President Chun (1980-1998), the motto 'the success of a country via sport' showed that President Chun considered sports as a crucial concern of policy. We can glean the growing involvement of the government in games from the speech of President Chun to the country in 1983, where he reiterated "developing the country on a sports basis instead of factories" (Lee, 2000). According to Ok, "Korean sport had a successful autumn in the 1980s", and the Fifth Republic, which is frequently known as 'the Sports Republic', set the trend for the 'golden sporting age' in the 1980s (2004: 51). Thus, during the regime of President Chun, sports use had a significant relationship with political schemes to help manage the hegemony crisis within its rule.

The extent of sports facilities development, which were developed within a time frame of 10 years beginning in 1982 to 1991, a time for the establishment of the Sports Ministry, the 1986 Asian Games' sports facilities, and the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games' facilities in addition to 94 general sports grounds and 73 indoor gymnasiums, for which the government spent ₩125 billion (roughly £818,883) which was a significant investment compared to the investment in sports facilities before the Sports Ministry (Department of Physical Education and Youth, 1992).

Because of the government's projects to promote elite sports, South Korea has become a developed nation of sports. During the 23<sup>rd</sup> Olympic Games (the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics), Korea ranked ten overall, and during the 1986 Seoul Asian Games, it ranked 2<sup>nd</sup> in overall performance for the first time. Not only did Korea hold the most successful 24<sup>th</sup> Olympic Games in history in 1988, but it also achieved the feat of an overall 4<sup>th</sup> place rank (Lee, 1996; Son, 2003).



The achievements of the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympics aroused the interest of Koreans in physical events. It is crucial to realise that the government began investing in facilities, but for elite sports only (Koh, 2005). The revenue from sports increased as a result of the Seoul Olympics, and in 1989, the Korean government created the Korean Sports Promotion Foundation (KSPO). The KSPO creates and manages finances for promoting national sports (Son, 2003). The 'Hodori Plan' established government efforts to aid in sports in 1990 and the Korea Council of Sport for All (KCSA) in 1991 for lifetime sports of the people (Shin, 2011). According to Ha and Mangan (2002), an assumption could be made that Korean sport for all began in the 1990s.

## Appendix 5. Full information about the action of The Resocialisation of Retired Athletes

### Performance Lifestyle (PL) Programme

Worldwide, interest in career development and job transition issues for elite athletes has increased over the years. Sports organisations in several countries have developed programmes to address these problems (De Bosscher et al., 2015). In 1999, UK Sport was licensed by the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and operated 'Athlete Career Education (ACE) UK', a programme to help the career, job, education, and individual development of British elite athletes based on the Athlete Career and Education (ACE) programme (Ashfield et al., 2017). British elite athletes experienced a relatively high level of education through the ACE UK programme (UK Sport, 2001). In 2004, the ACE UK programme was replaced by the 'Performance Lifestyle (PL) Programme', which has provided support services for elite athletes through the English Institute of Sport (EIS) since 2009 (De Bosscher et al., 2009; UK Sport, 2013). The PL programme is a programme that identifies the current status of individual athletes and provides appropriate services so that they can lead successful lives. First, it classifies the profiles of elite athletes into three stages: Aspiring Full-time Athlete, Full-time Athlete, and Transition Athlete, and then provides strategic customised services considering individual situations and the positions of athletes. An example is shown in Table 9.1.

Table 9. 1 Classification of elites and examples of services

Aspiring Full-time Athlete	Aspiring full-time athletes need free or part-time jobs to earn extra income while pursuing their sports ambitions.
Full-time Athlete	Full-time athletes should start thinking about their lives and careers after retirement. In general, full-time athletes will lack time because they spend most of their time on training and competition. Therefore, the introduction of work that athletes can easily experience and the provision of opportunities for work experience that meet the conditions of athletes will be useful to athletes in the future.
Transition Athlete	Athletes at this stage are nearing retirement, so their financial support will soon stop. Provide them with opportunities to experience various fields to develop their careers or education on specific job search strategies such as improving interview skills and active attitudes.

Source: English Institute of Sport (2009)

Emerging from the former ACE UK Programme in 2004, the British PL programme serve was broadened to address the needs of athletes beyond the main focus of vocational and educational advice. This programme envelops three main areas: (1) Lifestyle Support: The PL Coordinator provides basic budget and finance, legal advisory services, time management, media skills, sponsorship and promotion activities, in addition to negotiation and conflict management support; (2) Careers and Employment Advice: Adaptable employment capable of supplementing and fitting training demands, work placements capable of introducing possible career options, planning for a second career following sport, and job preparation training; and (3) Education Guidance: Because of part-time or professional courses, flexibility in existing study programmes, educational choices fitting sporting demands, a performance lifestyle advisor, so training and studying (university education, GCSES, A Levels, etc.) successfully happened at the same time (English Institute of Sport (EIS), 2009; British Olympic Association, 2014; EIS, 2013).

There are key organisations involved in developing the British PL programme, such as UK Sport, national sport institutes including EIS, academic institutions in charge of training elite athletes, elite training centres, national coaching institutions, national Olympic committees, NGBs, DCMS, elite athletes' representative bodies, in addition to others. The UK's sport structure allows for athletes to have a complete support system (Henry, 2010). Since 2009, the EIS has been delivering the programme's service. This means that UK Sport funds the NGBs. Thus, the programme purchases the PL services from the EIS including sports science, sports medicine, and advice services. UK sport is a crucial investment as it sets up costs. Additionally, the NGBs are given the EIS directly, and the NGBs are expected to buy and provide services to the athletes. The EIS's trained and accredited athlete advisors provide athletes with support by training them with the necessary skills for coping with the unique demands required of an elite performer and to prepare them in a better manner for their lives after sport (UK Sport, 2013). Athletes are able to make confidential individual sessions at sports institute sites throughout the UK with athlete advisers. They can also attend multi-sport workshops for squad and regionally organised sports (ibid, 2013). In May 2010, the IOC signed an agreement with Adeco and announced that the British Olympic Committee would implement the Athlete Career Programme provided to Olympic committees worldwide, which will be provided with the cooperation of the established networks the PL has in the Home

Country Sports Institutes (HCSIs), also, the Dame Kelly Holmes Legacy Trust (DKH Legacy Trust), which aims to give athletes the training and skills they need to acquire the employment opportunities available through the networks (Wilkinson, 2010; UK Sport, 2013).

The effectiveness of the PL programme was proved through the testimony of coaches, athletes and practitioners who experienced it. For example, Kath Grainger, a gold medallist at 2012 London Olympics, explains:

I've used Performance Lifestyle support as long as it has been available to me. It's been an absolutely essential part of my career and I believe I wouldn't have had such a long and successful career without its guidance and support. It has been in various forms including discussing the best way to continue studying alongside my sport, finding ways to plan for a life after sport, getting advice on time and life management issues and enabling access to inspirational influences outside of sport, and having someone to turn to as a mentor and a confidante (English Institute of Sport, 2021).

Additionally, the GB Hockey women's head coach, Danny Kerry, explains:

I have witnessed first-hand the benefits of athletes developing skills, acquiring learning or gaining perspective and insight from other environments. Without question, these activities not only benefit the individual, but also the results can have a direct impact on performance. Behind this work has been Emma Mitchell, our GB Hockey PL practitioner (Ashfield et al., 2017:207).

As such, it can be seen that the support provided for the well-being of athletes and the development of individual athletes through the PL programme occupies an important part for them and positively contributes to the athletes' performance. In addition, the PL programme manages athletes responsibly and was created to improve and affect the elite sports system via practitioners who contribute to building and fostering a system that produces results (English Institute of Sport, 2021).

### **Athlete Career and Education (ACE) Program, the Personal Excellence Program (PEP) and Athlete Wellbeing and Engagement (AW&E)**

Australia has recognised the need for a programme for career development and job transition for elite athletes and introduced the Life Skills for Elite Athletes Program (LEAP) in 1989. However, LEAP was integrated with the Athlete Career and Education (ACE) Program by the Victorian Institute of Sport (VIS) in Ausfraha, Victoria State in 1990, with a persistent lack of details from the ACE Program. In 1994, the missing details of the ACE Program were improved,

and PL programmes manage athletes responsibly. Through this, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), which is in charge of elite sports at the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), a government-affiliated organisation, eventually adopted the ACE Program as a national programme in 1995, which was spread and operated nationwide through all Australian Institutes and Academies of Sports (IASs). It was created to improve and affect the elite sports system via practitioners who contribute to building and fostering the system that creates. This programme was benchmarked and operated in several countries around the world including New Zealand and the United Kingdom from 1999 (Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), 1999; Dagley, 2004).

The programme is conducted via the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and state institutes and academies affiliated with it. Its aim is to help athletes attain their vocational, educational and personal goals. The ACE Program's main goal is providing services which are consistent nationwide, and which are configured to aid elite athletes in undertaking personal and professional development opportunities while also going after and obtaining excellence in sport (Australian Institute of Sport, 2009). Thus, the ACE Program gives career transition support to eligible athletes. ACE advisors' roles are assisting athletes in more effectively combining their aspirations in sport and vocation while not compromising on their objectives of their sports and helping athletes with the development of their education plans as well as career plans which comprise all aspects of their lives (Stronach, 2012).






The AIS provides a free ACE Online system that manages study, play, work, and social participation activities to elite athletes selected from all over the country and sets a step-by-step goal for 'My life, My image, My time, My money, My transition, My work, My study' to support various consultations. In addition, the ACE Program provides various scholarships and training benefits to selected athletes, observes training information of young youth athletes of local sports academies in Australia weekly through the 'Visualcoaching®Pro' online system, and exchanges important schedule, necessary consultation, and consulting contents daily or weekly through email and smartphone. These systems helped more than 78% of elite athletes who participated in the ACE Program in 2011 to greatly improve their skills, and more than 90% of the athletes received help in extending their lives, as reported by Australian information statistics (Kang and Kim, 2013). As such, for 20 years, the ACE Program has been

of great help and change to elite athletes. However, in 2014, AIS was preparing a new plan to change the ACE Program (Australian Sport Commission, 2014). Finally, in Australia in The ACE Program was re-branded in October 2014 as the Personal Excellence Program (PEP), becoming part of a national strategy being driven by the AIS. Being built on the original ACE Program, this new programme strengthened the career and development support of Australian athletes. Every state adopted this programme with the goal of enhancing athletes' ability to make knowledgeable decisions capable of impacting their sport and lives' performances. This programme helps athletes in creating and maintaining dual careers in sport and life through improving their professionalism, accountability, resilience, integrity and responsibility capabilities. Also, myAISplaybook, an athlete-only virtual community available online in which athletes conducting their journey in sport can communicate with and gain knowledge from one another across every sports and which was developed to be part of the PEP for providing elite athletes with support and guidance, became a major component (ASC, 2015). Over 2,500 athletes have been tracked via the Athlete Management System as of June 2016; additionally, 861 athletes have registered for myAISplaybook. Since being launched in 2014–15, myAISplaybook has had 3,227 total athletes enrol (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2017).

However, in 2018, the Australian government announced a new national policy programme called the 'Sports 2030 Plan'. At the same time as it changed the ASC policy programme to Sport Australia, Sport Australia revealed seven new strategic priorities, one of which involved the reform of the PEP with further changes. The name changed to Athlete Wellbeing and Engagement (AW&E), and this change has broadened the PEP's scope by progressing with a widespread approach covering all systems for the wellbeing of athletes for engaging with and inspiring the community. It also prioritizes mental health (ASC, 2018; 2019).

AW&E's current focus is leading and supporting the sporting industry within Australia in realizing that a successful elite culture for athletes includes athletes being able to find a proper balance between their wellbeing, commitment to activities aside from competition and training and elite sport's requirements (AIS, 2018). The AW&E has five structured functions as shown in Table 9.2:

Table 9. 2 The five functions of the AW&E

Classification		Content
	Mental Health	- Access to the best practice mental health information and education as well as individualised psychology services
	Conduct & Professionalism	- Advice on managing integrity issues, guidance and support to navigate ethical decision making within the high-performance environment, and provision of policies and procedures.
	Engagement	- Networking events for past and current athletes - Opportunities to give back to the community at a local and national level - Speaking engagements and activities to increase individual and squad profiles in the corporate sector, and a general sense of community
	Career & Education	- Access to information and advice and face to face or online learning related to education, career mapping, professional development and work experience
	Personal Development	- Face to face or online learning related to wellbeing and personal growth - Mentoring to enhance leadership and communication skills

Source: AIS (2019)

Elite athletes tend to accept a more holistic approach when it comes to their careers and lives, and as such, the AIS's AW&E initiatives continue providing a number of new key programmes. The AIS has placed athlete wellbeing managers within sports, allowing them to be available for providing support and guidance for athletes in many areas ranging from mental health to community engagement and guidance with their careers.

Since the AW&E's branch launch in June 2018, many initiatives have been developed which aim at giving the NSOs the necessary support and capability for improving the personal development and wellbeing of athletes and coaches. 20 NSOs have received direct funding for the AW&E initiatives and a commitment to extending this to 26 NSOs had been made. The AW&E managers receive support for their role via a national curriculum for providing professional development that involves a Certificate IV in Career and Development. This network of managers has also been an important resource for those within NSOs including the athletes, coaches and support staff as well as the National Institute Network (NIN). These AW&E managers within sports bestow a contact point that is known and independent, something that is very important for athletes. Direct support for athletes has been enhanced

by the national expansion of these services which has also led to improved collaboration across the elite sporting system in Australia (ASC, 2020). The AIS has also developed AW&E Frameworks by working with funded NSOs. The AW&E Framework in place, which is endorsed by the AIS, has funded 15 of the 20 NSOs, meeting the 75 per cent target, and two additional NSOs have written drafts of frameworks and are working toward the last sign off.

The AIS delivers several community engagements programmes that provide opportunities for elite athletes to learn and develop new technologies, allowing them to apply for welfare support and building the capacity to contribute meaningfully to the local community so that their participation in the community outside of training and games can be an example within the athlete community. 80 per cent of athletes, who were involved in community engagement programmes, have told the AIS that they strongly agreed that the AIS gave them an opportunity to learn and develop new skills that can support their wellbeing (ibid, 2020).

The AIS Lifeline Community Custodians program and the AIS Share a Yarn Initiative are a few of the available community engagement programs. The AIS launched a partnership with the Black Dog Institute: the AIS Mental Fitness Program, in July 2020. This programme gives both current and former elite athletes change to encourage psychology strategies which are positive and better young people's wellbeing outcomes by engaging with school-based communities (ASC, 2021).

The AIS and Lifeline Australia have a partnership that will aid in delivering this impactful community engagement programme, as athletes will step up and help increase suicide prevention awareness while encouraging anyone needing help to ask for help by reaching out. Elite athletes and para-athletes from various NSOs and the NIN have been chosen creating 22 Lifeline Community Custodians. Many of these custodians have first-hand experience of mental illness; all of them are all passionate when it comes to giving back to the community and assisting the Lifeline Community in reducing Australia's rate of suicide (ibid, 2021).

The AIS AW&E launched a community engagement initiative called Share a Yarn in May 2020. Share a Yarn's goal is giving Australian Elite Athletes worthwhile opportunities for connecting and building relationships with the Torres Strait Islander (ATSI) and Aboriginal communities as well as to gain more insight of the differences in their cultures, histories, people and lands. This initiative intends to supply a platform on which athletes can share this knowledge and



advocate from inside the sporting community in addition to the Australian community at large. To “Share a Yarn” means to motivate others to have communication with other participants that is honest, collaborative and respectful, thus developing trust, encouraging accountability, and giving a safe place from which to listen and gain knowledge (AIS, 2021a). As an example, share a Yarn selected thirteen athlete ambassadors who are a combination of Torres Strait Islander (ATSI) and Aboriginal athletes as well as non-ATSI athletes. They will participate over a 1-year period that will include visiting the community, using online video messaging for contact for following up and aid to communities, community event appearances and sharing the knowledge they’ve gained within their sport. For National Reconciliation Week, the ambassadors conducted activities with the Indigenous youth from a remote community 200km from Alice Springs, Northern Territory called Arlparra (ASC, 2020).

In addition, ANZAC Day, Clean Up Australia Day, NAIDOC Week and National Volunteers Week were developed as community events for NSOs and two were instituted for assisting in system capability. A critical incident framework was created for the first time and its implementation is happening across NSOs, which are funded and show high performance, and the NIN.

In March 2019, the Mental Health Referral Network (MHRN) was launched, giving athletes and coaches who are funded access to mental health practitioners and AIS-endorsed psychologists across Australia, with the programme even extending to psychiatrists and neuropsychologists. The AIS MHRN’s demand continued to grow from 2020–21, indicating athletes have felt more comfortable reaching out for support in a proactive manner. The MHRN had contracted 27 clinical psychologists and 8 psychiatrists in 2019 to provide Australia’s elite athletes and coaches with expert mental health support and advice. Many athletes tend to be more inclined to accessing independent services rather than accessing services from within their sport. 206 referrals were made into the network from January to June 2021, as compared to the 264 referrals made for the entirety of 2020. More than 600 referrals and 2,700 sessions have been made into the network since its launch at the end of 2018. May 2021 had 61 referrals, the highest received in a single month (ASC, 2019; ASC, 2021; AIS, 2021b). The MHRN framework uses a whole-of-organisation approach; this includes technology, business and elite sport-specific situation. Having had troubles with bushfires and smoke, and currently with the COVID-19 pandemic, the ability to deliver in person education

and support for implementation have been impacted; as such, the AIS has chosen to take a nimble approach, delivering key aspects of the programme through virtual workshops (ASC, 2021).

As such, Australia has been implementing many policies for the resocialisation of elite athletes since 1990 and has been trying to find policies suitable for athletes by making changes within the programme and trying various methods. Studying the policies that have been carried out for about 30 years from the ACE Program to the AW&E through PEP, I would like to propose a policy that can be applied to Korea.

## **Appendix 6. Full information about the action of physical assault/sexual abuse issue in UK and Australia**

### **The UK**

In the mid-1990s, the national sports organisations from a small number of countries such as the UK, Canada, and Australia began to investigate with interest in physical assault and sexual assault/abuse within the elite sports system and studied protection and improvement directions. In particular, it has been confirmed that most of the human rights violations in sports in the UK involve children and adolescents. Since then, the welfare and protection of children and adolescents have become more important (Brackenridge and Rhind, 2014). However, according to the Child Protection Research Centre, academic literature research on child abuse was limited until 1999 when the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) studied the degree of abuse in the general public in the UK (Child Protection Research Centre, 2011). As the NSPCC began to investigate, it discovered that the human rights of sports athletes including children have been violated for a long time, and the British government promoted institutional/legal prevention measures and the establishment of a dedicated organisation related to sports and human rights at the same time of these revelations. In 2001, the Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU), an organisation dedicated to the prevention of child abuse and sexual assault/abuse, was established and started responding to children's rights in earnest (Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU), 2021).

As part of the NSPCC, the CPSU is funded by Sport Wales, Sport Northern Ireland, Sport England, and UK Sport. The CPSU works together with the National Governing Bodies (NGBs), UK Sports Councils, County Sports Partnerships (CSPs) in addition to other organisations so that the possibility of child abuse during sporting activities can be minimised (Child Protection in Sport Unit(CPSU), 2021; London Borough of Redbridge, 2021). Providing excellent advice and support around safeguarding children is what the CPSU does. Its framework of National Standards for Safeguarding and Protecting Children in Sport has the goal of increasing the capacity of sport so that young people and children involved in all levels and types of sport can be protected from all forms of abuse including child sexual abuse. As such this framework provides a standard for other sports organisations to work towards and is a framework which applies (with some variations) to the local, regional and national clubs in the UK (England,

Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland). Implementation takes place through each sport's National Governing Body (NGB) as well as County Sports Partnerships in England (CSPs) with support from the CPSU (Lucy Faithfull Foundation (LFF), 2021). This framework also provides support for organisations to evaluate the impact of safeguards and then to further develop them so that the difficulties of a changing landscape, including new legislation and developing technology, can be met (Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU), 2021).

An NGB should establish guidelines, requirements and procedures regarding safeguarding that clubs can follow. As such, the clubs must contact the NGB to find out what its specific requirements are and what tools and policies they provide to support the clubs.

Basically, to protect the young people and children in the club, the club needs: a policy for safeguarding, a code of conduct, a preventative arrangement, a procedure and systems for reporting abuse, and a monitoring system. Table 1 explains this more in detail.

Table 1. The needs for protecting children and young people

Criteria	Content
Safeguarding policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Helps foster a safe and positive environment for children</li> <li>- All policies must state: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What the policy's aim is, i.e., to safeguard children</li> <li>- Good practice guidelines</li> <li>- Guidance about the use of film, photography and social media</li> </ul> </li> <li>- Information on the recruitment and training of staff and volunteers</li> <li>- Procedures in place to respond to allegations</li> <li>- Be written clearly and is easily understood</li> <li>- Be approved by the club's committee or management structure</li> <li>- Be compulsory for all staff and volunteers</li> <li>- Remain up-to-date with best practices</li> </ul>
Code of conduct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Have standards of behaviour that set a clear benchmark for everyone so that they can understand what is acceptable and what is not</li> <li>- There should be codes for: parents, volunteers/staff, coaches, and children</li> <li>- The codes of conduct should be consulted over by the CPSU</li> </ul>
Preventative arrangement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Consist of prevention systems and procedures to measure for helping minimise the possibility of children and young people being abused by those in a position of trust</li> <li>- Most especially, preparing policies and procedures in place for recruiting staff and volunteers who are going to have contact with children (including a thorough identity verification system)</li> </ul>
Reporting abuse procedure and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Through guidance provided from the NGB, manage allegations and procedures</li> <li>- In the procedures, clarify roles and responsibilities and the lines of communication both within the club and with outside authorities and ensure that complaints are recorded and dealt with</li> </ul>
Monitoring system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- All incidents, allegations of abuse and complaints must be recorded and clubs should have arrangements in place to monitor compliance with child protection</li> </ul>

As shown in Table 1 the British government adopted sports safety standards, including correct policies, protections and procedures to protect children from violence and sexual assault/abuse as well as presented safety and human rights guides to be observed by parents, leaders, athletes, etc.

Meanwhile, in 2012 and 2013, the Jimmy Savile sexual abuse scandal's investigations revealed widespread cases of abuse as hundreds of people brought forth information stating that Jimmy Savile had abused them as children. In addition, because the claims of abuse by political figures and members of prominent media stretch back over several decades, and insufficient safeguarding from institutions and organisations in charge of for child welfare happened, the Home Secretary established the Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA) in 2015 to evaluate the degree to which English and Welsh institutions have failed in their duty of protecting children from sexual abuse (BBC News, 2020; Independent Inquiry Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA), 2021; Home Office, 2021). In addition, the IICSA was created to evaluate ways in which these organisations have fallen short in protecting children from sexual abuse/assault and to suggest which can be used to better protect children in the future (National Health Service (NHS), 2021).

In the regions of England and Wales, child sexual abuse involves the enticement or forcing of a child or young person (under 18 years old) to participate in sexual activities, including both contact and non-contact sexual abuse, grooming in preparation for sexual abuse and child sexual exploitation. The IICSA has conducted 15 investigations into cases of child sexual abuse which focus on a vast extent of various institutions. These investigations look at the nature and scope of child sexual abuse in institutions, including their institutional responses. The IICSA was provided with a firm basis that can be used to consider current, national issues which concern the sexual abuse and exploitation of children as a result of these investigations.

The IICSA has three guiding principles: be inclusive, be comprehensive and be thorough. As such, the IICSA is broken up into three Core Projects: The Research Project, the Truth Project, and the Public Hearings Project. The evidence provided in combination from all three of these projects will enlighten the Chair and the Panel's overall conclusions and recommendations.

Table 2 shows the details of these projects.

Table 2. The details of three core projects of the IICSA's inquiry

Criteria	Content
The Truth Project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The Truth Project allows victims and survivors of child sexual abuse to share their experiences with the IICSA. Those who wish to take part can attend a private session at one of their offices across England or Wales to share their experience with an IICSA member. Their accounts are not tested, challenged or contradicted.</li> <li>- The information supplied is anonymised and will be considered by the Chair and Panel members when reaching their conclusions and making recommendations for the future. As part of the Truth Project, victims and survivors will be given an opportunity to write a message to be published together with the IICSA's annual reports.</li> </ul>
The Research Project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The Research and Analysis Project works across all the IICSA's 15 investigations.</li> <li>- This Project brings together, in one place, what is already known about child sexual abuse and identifies the gaps in our knowledge.</li> <li>- The Project carries out new research including analysing the information the IICSA receives through the Truth Project. The Research Project also assures quality internal data so that its use can be defended.</li> </ul>
The Public Hearings Project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The Public Hearings Project resembles a conventional public inquiry where witnesses give evidence under oath and are subject to cross examination. The IICSA is selecting case studies from a range of institutions that appear to illustrate a pattern of institutional failings.</li> <li>- Each hearing will last for around six weeks. A hearing may relate to a particular individual who appears to have been enabled to sexually abuse children in institutional settings or it may relate to an institution that appears to have demonstrated repeated failings over a number of years. Evidence is likely to be taken from both representatives of the institutions under investigation and from victims and survivors of sexual abuse.</li> <li>- The IICSA does not have the power to convict abusers of criminal offences or to award compensation to victims and survivors. However, it will use its fact-finding powers fully to discover findings against named individuals or institutions where the evidence justifies it.</li> </ul>

Source: North Wales Safeguarding Board (2021)

The IICSA investigated 3,939 children who shared experiences of child sexual abuse from June 2016 to March 2020 through the Truth Project, one of the core projects presented in Table 2. Of these, 64 (2%) were victims of child sexual abuse in a sports context (established on the location or perpetrators). Of the 64, 58 were sexually abused by coaches/volunteers who mostly worked in sports organisations; sports clubs (39 of the 64) were the most frequently mentioned places of abuse, and schools, recreation clubs and groups based on religion or beliefs were also included. The most referenced sports were soccer (14 of 64) followed by swimming (13 of 64), sailing/canoeing/boating (5 of 64), gymnastics (5 of 64), and martial arts (5 of 64). Other sports more than one respondent mentioned included track and field (4), tennis (3) and squash (2). In addition, there were respondents who talked about various

sports such as cycling, horseback riding, dance, cricket, ice skating and fencing.

As revealed through this Truth Project, the experience of victimisation shared by sexual abuse victims and survivors occurs frequently in more diverse ways than the child sexual abuse of elite athletes who have received attention from the British media in recent years. Perpetrators such as leaders, personal coaches and instructors in sports create a situation in which parental protection is absent and sexual abuse of children while staying overnight with children, traveling, visiting perpetrators' homes or in situations related to sports associations or association activities occurs. It was found that perpetrators also used grooming or coercion for sport-related rewards, like allowing victims to play with senior teams.

The IICSA is provided with information gathered from the Truth Project which is rich in child sexual abuse insights. With the participants' consent, the information gathered is used by the IICSA in various ways, including for data analysis and ongoing research being conducted by the IICSA's Research Team. This allows for the building of a base of evidence around child sexual abuse/assault as well as failures of institutions to protect children from becoming victims. This is a crucial element in helping the IICSA create recommendations with which to prevent child sexual abuse/assault from occurring in the future and with which responses to child sexual abuse/assault can be improved (Independent Inquiry Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA), 2021).

As such, in the UK, human rights violations have occurred secretly in sports for a long time, and it was confirmed that most of them involved children and adolescent athletes. The British government took this seriously, and accordingly, established the Child Protection in Sport Unit (CPSU) and the Independent Inquiry into Child Sexual Abuse (IICSA) in 2001 and 2015, respectively, and continues efforts to protect against human rights violations such as child violence and sexual abuse.

## **Australia**

Child abuse in institutional contexts in Australia is currently being investigated by the National Royal Commission; the media also reports it on a regular basis (Box, 2015; Browne, 2014; 2015). In May 2021, Clearinghouse for Sport defined child abuse as often being thought of a

generic term, and thus covering a wide range of various forms of adult misconduct toward children. Thus, six common types of misconduct which involve the adults' actions toward children in a sports' setting are identified: (1) hazing, (2) harassment, (3) bullying, (4) physical misconduct, (5) emotional misconduct and (6) sexual misconduct (including child sexual abuse). Any and all forms of misconduct towards children and athletes (of any age) are insufferable and, as such, conflict directly with the ideals of sport. One of the core issues for adults administering and delivering sports programs is protecting children who are engaged in sport from exploitation, abuse and any form of psychological or physical violence. Sporting organisations, similar to other institutions which have a duty to care for children, are not immune to, procedures, policy or systems that fail (May, 2021).

Australia also has an agency that administers to physical violence and sexual assault/abuse for children's sports environments. This is the Sport Integrity Australia (SIA) agency, which is one of the executive agencies of the Australian Government, having commenced its operation on 1 July 2020 (Sport Integrity Australia, 2021). The Parliament of Australia established the SIA based upon the recommendations put forward in the Report of the Review of Australia's Sports Integrity Arrangements which was completed by the Department of Health (Department of Health, 2018).

The ASC led the development of the National Safeguarding Children in Sport Strategy in 2018 as a response to Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse's recommendation. However, when the SIA first commenced it was given the responsibility for safeguarding children (Clearinghouse for Sport, 2021). Being a new organisation, the SIA combines the purposes of the National Integrity of Sport Unit of the Department of Health, the Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority and Sport Australia's nationally focused integrity functions. The SIA is thus a mainstay of the Australian government's comprehensive sport integrity strategy: Safeguarding the Integrity of Sport (SIA, 2021b).

The role of the SIA is to give assistance and advice for countering: the use of banned methods and substances in sport; the abuse of children and others in sporting environments; manipulation taking place in sporting competitions; and the failure in a sporting environment to protect sporting organisations' members and others from bullying, discrimination, intimidation or harassment. Sporting organisations, in addition to other stakeholders, will



gain from being able to work with a single nationally coordinated organisation that is capable of addressing all sport integrity issues. Thus, guidance on matters of integrity to sports which don't have developed integrity capabilities will be offered by the SIA (SIA, 2021a).

The SIA has committed itself to providing sport environments that are friendly, safe, and supportive for young people and children in Australia. Every Australian sporting organisation's culture is imbued with child safety which is understood and practised at all levels of the organisation's sport (SIA, 2021b).

The SIA, through partnering with the National Office for Child Safety, is working together with sport to develop the Safeguarding in Sport Continuous Improvement Program, thus acknowledging that all sports are different with each having different governance models and are at varying stages of their journey into safeguarding. This programme will help each sport bring life to their Child Safeguarding and Member Protection policies through the provision of tailored action plans for each level of sport as well as a variety of resources and support for helping each sport (Sport Integrity Australia, 2021).

In recent years, several inquiries have highlighted the many failings in sport participation involving keeping children and members safe. The case studies in the inquiries, which feature in-depth accounts of abuse, have sometimes even revealed failings in organisations. Safeguarding is more than just policies and procedures, as clearly indicated by the ensuing recommendations. Safeguarding means ensuring sports embed a culture in which all people can participate in a safe and inclusive environment which is free from abuse and violence.

The Safeguarding in Sport Continuous Improvement Program (SISCIP) will provide a nationally consistent approach that can maintain safe sporting environments. Its aim is to create genuine cultural change from NSOs to grassroots sports through action plans which will be sequentially delivered. Figure 9-1 shows how the SISCIP works.

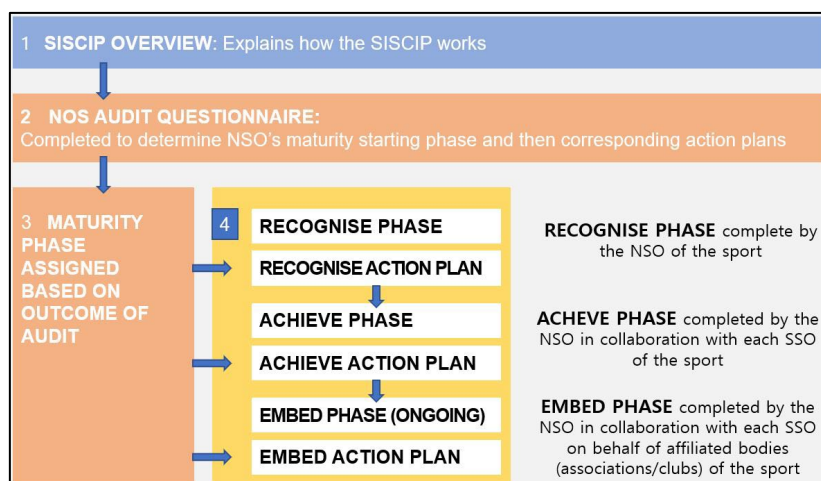


Figure 1 Explaining the works of the SISCIP

Source: SIA (2021b: 33)

Being a joint initiative with the National Office for Child Safety, the SISCIP is supported by a 3-year, £2.5 million (\$4.7 million AUS) budget that has been measured as part of the National Strategy to Prevent Child Sexual Abuse to strengthen child safety in sport. Its success will depend on strong relationships, a willingness to share and learn and the recognition that no single organisation can solve the problem of safeguarding sport singlehandedly. What's vital is a collaborative approach (SIA, 2021b).

Taking this all into consideration, its program recognises the valuable safeguarding work which has already been conducted by the Commonwealth Government, state and territory governments, in addition to NSOs, State Sporting Organisations (SSOs) and local clubs and associations. Instead of replacing these foundations, its goal is to aid sports in complementing and building upon them.

As such, the ASC, an organisation that manages Australian sport, has established a Child Safe Policy and is making efforts to minimise physical violence and sexual abuse occurring in Australian sport.

Furthermore, the SIA, having been established by the Australian government, works together with NSOs in gathering data and providing advice on countermeasures which are based on the gathered data. As such, the Australian Government is attempting to create an environment in which children can enjoy sports without distress as a result of these efforts.

## **Appendix 7. Full information about the action of problems with expanding the grassroots sports base in Norway**

### **Norway**

At the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, Norwegian athlete Karsten Warholm won a gold medal with a world record in the 400-meter hurdles. In an interview with the reporters, Sara Germano, Murad Ahmed and Leo Lewis from the *Financial Times* (2021), Karsten said:

I like the Norwegian sports model; I think a lot of people can learn from it. I never felt any pressure. My parents never pushed me, but that also created something inside me that I had my own drive, I had my own flame.

Norway's hands-off approach to sports has been praised in the media before, so this was not the first time (McKnwen, 2021). The Aspen Institute's Sports and Society Program's executive director conveyed that low economic barriers for entry are ensured in Norway and that the percentage of children participating sports is high at 93% (Farrey, 2019). In addition, Norway structured a list of 'Children's Rights in Sport'; this list prohibits youth scores and rankings from being published and participating in national championships before the age of 13 and regional championships before the age of 11. The nation still promotes competition, but it is not done at the expense of children/youth development nor the Norwegian Vision: 'Joy of Sport for All'. The Global Wellness Institute published the 2019 'Move to be Well: The Global Economy of Physical Activity' report which showed that Norway ranked third with 83.9%, after Australia (84.1%) and Taiwan (83.9%), in the 2018 Global Rankings for Recreational Physical Activity by Participation. In addition, it ranked second in sports partitioning in the 2020 'World's Sportiest Countries' survey. In the 2021 Grandest Sports Nation survey, Norway is the country with the highest participation rate in grassroots sports, ranking second even when countries around the world are all being affected by COVID-19 (Halsall, 2020; Greatest Sporting Nation, 2021). Figure 1 shows the participation rate in grassroots sports by age from 1991 to 2015, surveyed by Norsk Monitor [adapted from Breivik (2013) and Hellevik (2015)]<sup>5</sup>.

---

<sup>5</sup> Norsk Monitor is a large survey that maps Norwegians' values, attitudes and behaviour. The survey has been conducted every other year since 1985 and is based on a nationally representative sample of approximately 4,000 people from the population. This study used the Norsk Monitor data from the chapter written by Seippel and Skille (2018). And they brought the data from the research of Breivik (2013) and Hellevik (2015).

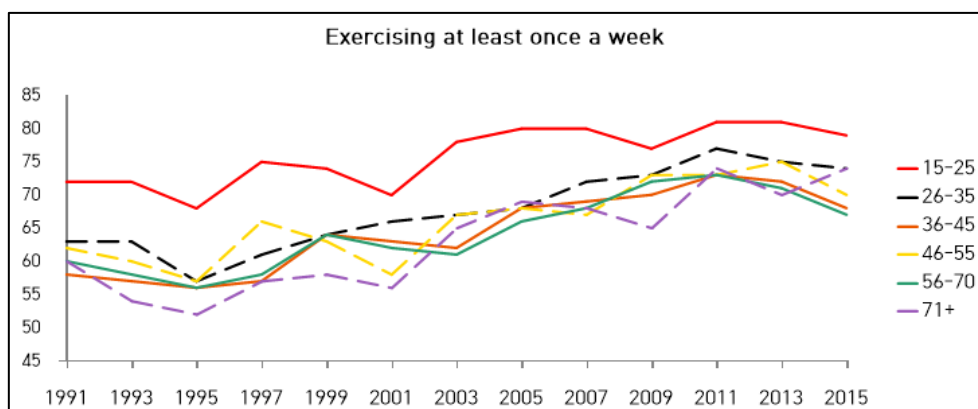


Figure 1. Participation rate in grassroots sports by age from 1991 to 2015 (%)  
Source: Norsk Monitor

As shown in Figure 1, the participation rate is seen to generally increase approaching 2015, and in particular, adolescents and adults aged 15-25 remain close to 80%. Furthermore, the number of elderly people aged 71+ gradually increased to about 75%.

In addition to these which consist of four surveys (crosswise and nationwide representative) which were conducted in 1997, 2001, 2004 and 2007, another study conducted by Statistics Norway (Vaage, 2009) showed that participation in sport (but which Vaage actually identifies as ‘physical activity to train or exercise’, -which is essentially the same thing) in Norway during people’s leisure time over roughly the last 10 years or among youth and adults (16-79 years) generally increased, and it increased more for females and those in their late teens (16-19 years) specifically.

Other sport studies in Norway indicate a similar result concerning adults in general and, specifically, young people. Therefore, a relatively new report given to the Norwegian parliament, the Royal Ministry for Culture (2012) noticed that Norwegians were training harder, more and more often than ever before. The Ministry recorded that about 75% of the population reported that they engaged in ‘sport and physical exercise’ one or more times weekly. The data from Norsk Monitor (Norwegian Monitor) emphasises the Ministry’s claim since more than 75% of those aged over 15 participated in exercise or physical training once or more weekly in 2015. This also mirrors a consistent increase since 1985, particularly among the group participating at least three times weekly. Figure 2 shows how often Norwegian citizens have enjoyed sports from 1985 to 2015.

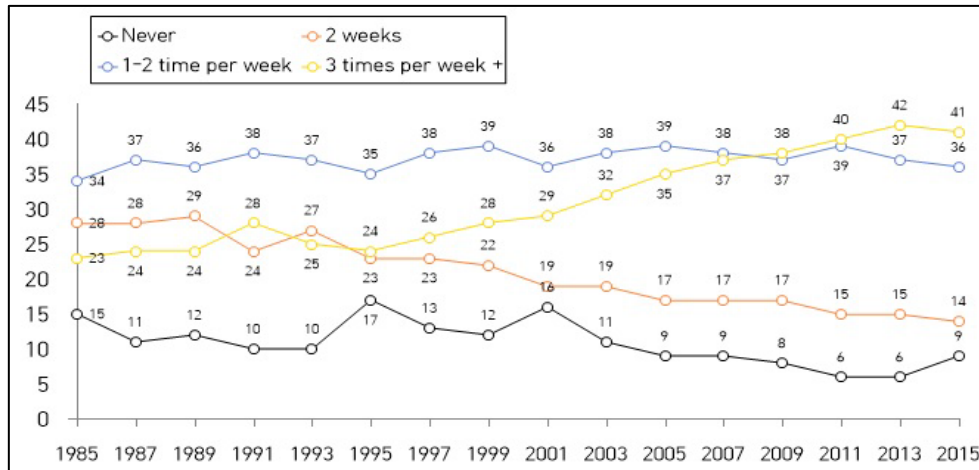


Figure 2. The percentage of the frequency of physical activity (age 15-96)  
Source: Norsk Monitor

As suggested in <Figure 2>, it can be seen that the number of citizens who enjoy sports once or twice per week remains unchanged, and the number of citizens who work out three times or more per week gradually increased. On the other hand, it can be seen that the number of citizens who do work out once every 2 weeks is gradually decreasing, and the number of citizens who do not enjoy sports is also decreasing. As such, it was confirmed that most adults enjoy exercising, not just children and adolescents. Looking at the Norsk Monitor data, it can be seen that the sports participation rate of children under the age of 15 and adolescents gradually increases as in Figure 3.

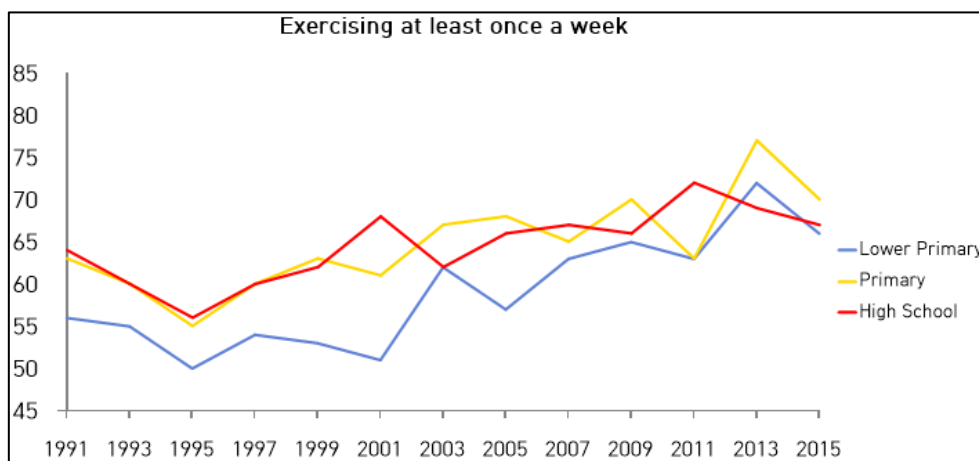


Figure 3. Percentages of exercising at least once per week (%)  
Source: Norsk Monitor

As suggested in Figure 3, it can be seen that the numbers for adolescents and children under the age of 15 also gradually increase. Looking at the participation rate in, it can be seen that the children belonging to Lower Primary (under age 6) were at about 66%, an increase of

about 15% compared to 2001 (about 51%), 15 years before, and the children belonging to Primary (aged 6-13) were also at about 70%, an increase of 10% compared to 2001 (about 61%). As such, it was confirmed that all age groups in Norway, including children, adolescents, adults, and the elderly, enjoy sport. Besides these, the drastic shift in sports participation in Norway in the 2000s, significant developments were made in connection to the involvement of females in sport. Figure 4 shows the percentage of males and females exercising at least once a week.

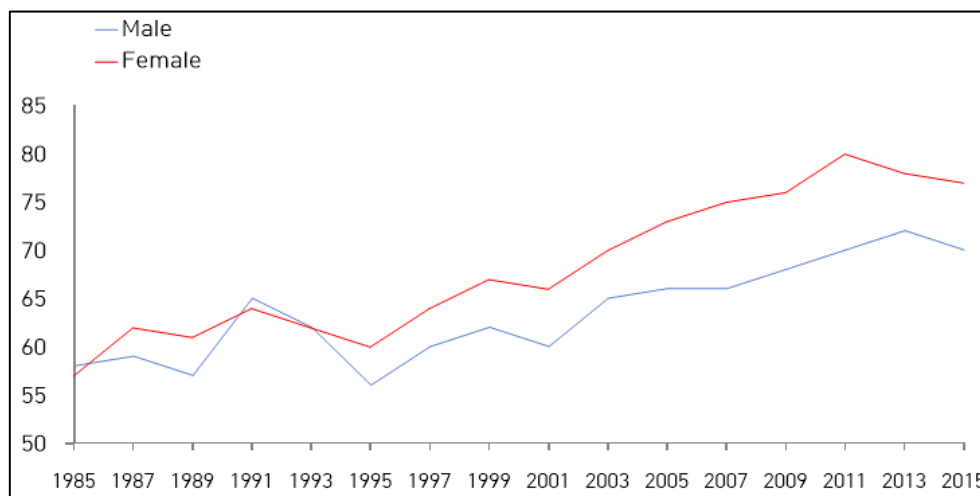


Figure 4. The percentage of males and females exercising at least once a week  
Source: Norsk Monitor

Sport has customarily been male-dominated; however, there is recent data showing that differences between men and women have become less important and that, for some circumstances, women actually have a greater level of participation than men. As shown in Figure 4, starting in 1985, men began to show less dominance in terms of participation in sport and exercise. Although these differences between men and women were small and varying up until 1993, beginning in 1995, for every year, women were more involved in sport and exercise. In 2015, this difference was in favour of women by approximately 7%. The result of checking the data so far confirms that Norwegian citizens' participation rate in sports is gradually increasing.

Altogether, Norway's performance is exceptional against various socio-economic well-being measures which can be seen in its top ranking in the OECD's '2020 Better Life Index' and being with Australia and Iceland as the top three most prosperous countries. Norway holds the top spot (OECD, 2020b; Coalter, 2013). Along with possessing the economic means for

participation in sport, Norwegians also possess the time, as they work 1,369 hours a year on average, which is significantly less than most others within the OECD who work 1,726 hours on average. On top of this, in Norway, 4% of men and 1% of women (only 3% of the population) in paid employment work 'very long hours', which is significantly lower than the 9% OECD average (OECD, 2020a; Kim, 2021). Thus, it appears that sports participation's growth beginning in 2000 (from a high base when compared to numerous non-Nordic countries) occurred at the same time as considerable income increases along with maintaining social mobility and generous amounts of leisure time.

Notwithstanding the probable significance of sports participation at much higher levels of socioeconomic and gender equality in Norway than in many other countries, it seems improbably that these have been the only factors contributing to the high levels of participation and the progressively diverse forms of sports participation found there. Being multi-dimensional, sports participation is thus likely to be multi-factorial. As such, sports participation related to class and gender, instead of being simply based on class and gender, will not be economically pre-determined (Green et al., 2015).

This researcher discovered three decisive factors that indicate Norwegians participate in sports regardless of gender and age, which were: 1) increased lifestyle sports, 2) family participation and 3) stronger cooperation between schools and sports clubs. First, lifestyle sports, a decisive factor that influenced sports participation, came to sharply prominence in the 2000s. Norwegians actively participate in a physically challenging or often adventurous outdoor sport such as skiing, skating, mountain and ice climbing, rafting, kayaking, horseback riding, mountain biking and snowmobiling. In addition, grassroots sports such as jogging, walking, swimming and biking are easily accessed on a daily basis and can also be called lifestyle sports. The reasons for the growing popularity and preference of lifestyle sports are that they are either non-competitive or less competitive, inherently more recreational, flexible, comfortable, available for individual or small group activity as opposed to traditional team sports or competitive sports, and sometimes, fit and adventurous leading to the increase of participants (Van Krieken, 1998; Green et al., 2015). Lifestyle sports increased the participation rate in all age groups. According to a survey by Vaage (2009), which compared 2001 and 2007 when the participation rate began to increase, it is particularly noteworthy

that young people aged 16 to 19 were the most active age group, but their popularity with sports such as basketball, volleyball and soccer has declined. On the other hand, participation was significantly higher in grassroots sports such as non-organisational walking (48% to 87%), weight training (24 to 36%), jogging (34% to 45%) and cross-country skiing (38% to 51%). Of course, 70-80% of all children (before the age of 10) in Norway start playing sports in a sports club and participate in team sports and competitive sports (Toftegaard Støckel et al., 2010). The transition from traditional team sports to lifestyle sports has reduced the role of team sports and clubs in the lives of Norwegians. Of course, in some sports, the rate of use of sports clubs remained the same, but in tennis, volleyball and hockey, the participation rate decreased relatively. Figure 5 shows the frequency of exercising at least once a week in a sports club.

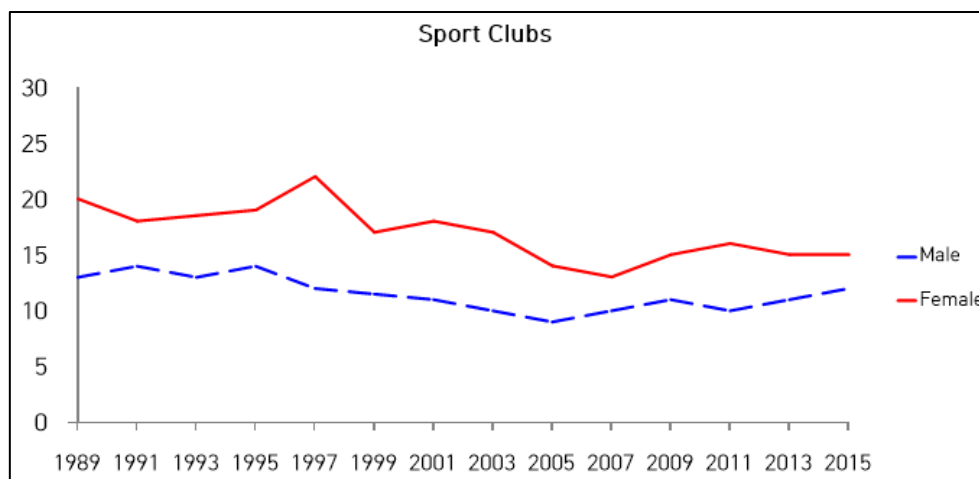


Figure 5. Percentage of exercising at least once per week in sport clubs (age 15-96)

Source: Norsk Monitor

As such, the participation rate of sports clubs is gradually decreasing. However, looking at the overall level of sports participation of Norwegian people, it does not seem to have a significant impact. This can be interpreted as the decrease in the rate of Norwegians participating in sports activities through sports clubs, while the frequency of participation in lifestyle sports is increasing. Bergsgard and Tanger (2011) argued that it was not surprising that it did not affect the overall level of sports participation when their downward trend of participation in sports clubs was pointed out.



Lifestyle sports played a major role in the resuming participation among the elderly who had given up sports. Despite the proportion of older adults who have given up sport (17% among those aged 67 to 79 in 2007), the rates, among those belonging to older age groups, of 'regular' participation are roughly equal to those belonging to the late youth/early adulthood groups, appearing that nearly half of Norway's adult population seems to resume levels of sports participation which are similar with that of those late youth/early adults and also from late middle age to old age (Green et al., 2015). When Roberts and Brodie (1992) first used the term lifestyle sport, with 'wide sporting repertoires' as its core, they said that whatever the reason for giving up participation in a particular sport, it does not require much sports experience to participate in some other sports, and participation is easy and comfortable. For this reason, the participation rate of the elderly is increasing. Lifestyle sports influenced not only the sports resumption of the elderly but also women's participation in sports. The increasing centrality of lifestyle sports nationwide, less competitiveness, and non-organisation have been the driving force behind increasing women's participation (Coalter, 2013).

One of the reasons why Norwegian participation in lifestyle sports has increased is the government's support of sports facilities according to the request of citizens. As the majority of Norway's state subsidies for sport go toward financing the construction of new facilities or toward the maintenance and/or renovation of older facilities, it is crucial to respect Norwegians' use of sports facilities. Figure 6 presents the most-used facilities in ranking order.

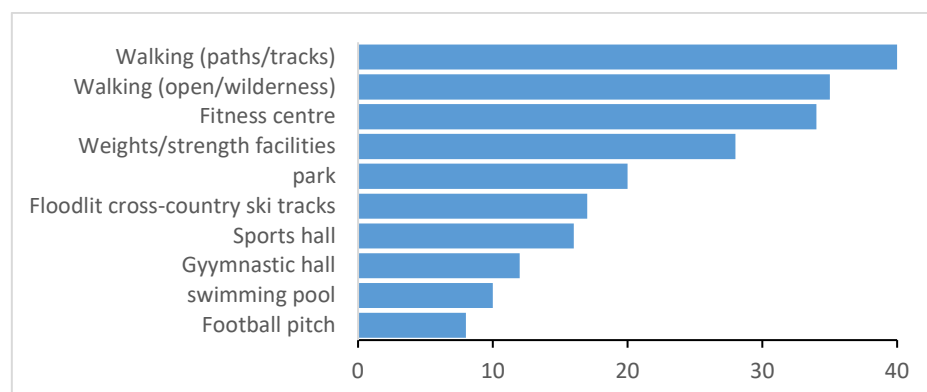


Figure 6. Percentage of the adult population using types of facilities twice or more a week (age 15-96)

Source: Norsk Monitor

The pervasiveness of various types of activities is indicated in the types of facilities used. As shown in Figure 6, the two tramping tracks and fields (in the wilderness) which are most often used are for hiking, walking or tracking and outdoor life activities such as lifestyle sports. Training centres, the third most popular type of facility, predominantly relate to fitness and weight-lifting activities in addition to the rapidly developing health and fitness sector. These facilities are followed by even more facilities (parks and floodlit cross-country ski tracks) which offer lifestyle activities. This is followed by sports and gymnastic halls, swimming pools and football pitches. Somewhat predictable are the use of facility trends which widely correlate with the activity trends. As such, people have used more informal and recreational exercise facilities as well as fitness activities increasingly.

According to a 2016 report by the Oslo Municipal Council, the current construction situation was evaluated as being very good and there was hardly any need for the construction of several large facilities within the municipality in the near future, on top of the facilities already in the plan for construction in 2017. The maintenance and upgrading of existing facilities will have more focus. Using the form of an inter-municipal construction plan, cooperation should be considered with other municipalities.

In addition, it can be seen that more than 150 sports facilities were registered for construction in 2017 with most sports facilities being related to outdoor sports (e.g., hiking trails, ski trails, jump hills, etc.), that is, lifestyle sports. As the demand of Norwegian citizens is high, the government is also providing facilities accordingly, which is considered to maintain a high participation rate in sports.

Second, another very important variable for Norway to maintain a high level of sports participation is 'family sport culture', defined as a family culture with a strong affinity for sports (Strandbu et al., 2020), and its connection to the participation of youth in sports organised by clubs. It is far more likely that, as with various leisure activities, those who continue participating throughout adulthood had typically been introduced during their childhood, during which they became committed, and their involvement in sport later in life, as with leisure activities, will greatly depend on their interests and skills which they carry with them from their earlier life stages (Birchwood et al., 2008; Wheeler and Green, 2019; Johansen and Green, 2019).

In particular, those who were raised by parents with an affinity for sports had an increased likelihood to become involved in sports (Dagkas and Lisette, 2016; Downward et al., 2014). As such, parents greatly influence their children in regards to sports-related lifestyles in numerous ways, particularly by: (1) being role models, (2) introducing sport to their children, (3) encouraging their children to participate in sport, (4) providing their children with transportation and equipment and (5) by just being interested in sport, which can be manifested in family activities including hiking and by conversing about sport during family time (Smoll et al., 2011; Stefansen et al., 2018; Knight, 2019; Wheeler and Green, 2019).

In examining the family effect on sports participation, past studies have used a variety of different approaches. For example, Hayoz et al. (2019), made use of a rather intricate measure of sports-related family lifestyle, and this measure included questions regarding the importance of sport within the family, sports-related family support, finding pleasure in playing sports together, having health-beneficial behaviours, regularly talking about sport and whether or not sports participation is something taken for granted. They found that children's sports participation is influenced by a lifestyle which includes sports and various sport-related activities. The relationship between parents' own childhood sports activities and their children's physical activity was the focus of Downward et al. (2014), who found, especially between fathers and sons, a significant intergenerational transfer of exercise habits.

Strandbu, et al. (2020) surveyed 6,121 Norwegian adolescents on their sports participation rate and their parents' influence on their participation rate. The results showed that the majority perceived their parents as being highly interested in sports. About 60% indicated that sports held significant meaning in their family, and the same percentage suggested that their parents trained several times per week. Even more (around 80%) suggested that their parents' strong desire for them to play sports. In conclusion, it is judged that adolescents first encounter and enjoy sports through their parents.

Norwegian demographics may have reinforced the hypothesised parents' pivotal role in sports participation's increases. Over the last 20 years, Norwegian society has been a relatively young one made up of couples with a tendency to have their children around their late-20s to mid-30s in a condensed period. Norway's strong sporting tradition and its high proportion of sports-active (and comparatively well off financially) adults has led to especially

favourable circumstances for a significant number of parents to pass their sporting affinity on to their children. As such, the drop-off rate of adults from participation in sports tended to occur among those in their late 20s and continued through to those in their mid-40s, which may well indicate a tendency for parents active in sports to pay more attention to the sporting development of their children than their own. This would also be in accordance with the 'bounce-back' effect to levels of participation from before the age of 25 among those over age 45, at a time when their children are likely to have reached youth and adulthood (Green et al., 2015).

Finally, linkages between school and sports clubs increased sports participation among adolescents. In recent years, the Norwegian sports for youth and adolescents have been reinforced by strengthening cooperation between schools (specifically elementary) and sports clubs (Toftegaard Støckel et al., 2010). The close relationships among parents, schools and sports clubs, as well as the interdependencies generated by them, are likely to provide a foundation for children and youth for sports participation, not just as physical competencies and physical/sporting capital, but also as social and cultural capital, essentially giving every building block, for their on-going participation in sport.

'Joy of Sport for All: Sport Policy Document 2011-2015' published by the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF) in 2011 lists the goals for physical activities at school; Norwegian sport intends to work to better the physical development and physical activity conditions of children and youth by: lobbying for one daily PE lesson taught by qualified teachers for all students; assisting in ensuring all children can swim by age 10; and co-operating with schools to offer the students a wide selection of sports and activities. As such, to ensure children, youth and adults are given the chance to do physical activity and have physical development, local areas for sports and physical activities in the plans of the municipalities will be secured by Norway sports, which will also ensure that plans for facilities for schools and local environments include the possibility of conducting a variety of physical activities and advocate for the natural areas to be opened for the sustainable use of various sport and outdoor activities (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), 2011). As such, Norway sports is playing a

major role in providing opportunities for adolescents to experience a variety of sports activities by linking schools, communities, and sports clubs.

## **Appendix 8. Full information about the Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE)**

DofE is the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, which consists of three stages of bronze, silver, and gold based on age and performance evaluation of the program and divides all adolescent participants aged 14 to 24 into four areas: voluntary service, skill, physical recreation and adventurous journey, providing programs to set and promote their personal goals (The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE), 2012). This program is operated by the 'DofE' charitable institution and has been conducted with the purpose of pursuing the mental health and emotional well-being of adolescent participants and improving their physical health, fitness, and participation in philanthropy and local community activities (Van Baren et al., 2015; The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2020). Although the DofE programme differs in the age range and programme of the National Fitness 100 Policy Project in Korea, it has the same purpose in that it is a system for improving the mental and physical health of the people.

The DofE programme first began with the inspiration of Dr. Kurt Hahn. Dr. Kurt Hahn, the personal secretary and scholar of the last German imperial prime minister, left Germany in the early 1930s to establish a boarding school called Gordonstoun in Moray, Scotland in 1934. Hahn conceived and successfully carried out the Moray Badge, a programme that gives students the opportunity to overcome physical challenges. Hahn planned to spread the programme across the U.K. so that students from other regions could experience it; however, it was delayed due to the outbreak of World War II, and after consulting with Prince Philip of England, who was the first student at Gordonstoun School, about Moray Badge in the early 1950s, he was able to spread the programme across the U.K. After that, in 1956, the Duke of Edinburgh, the title of Prince Philip, was added to it and thus it spread nationwide as the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, not the Moray Badge. In 1956, the first year of its inception, only boys aged 15 to 18 were allowed to enrol, but in 1958, girls aged 14 to 20 were also allowed to participate, and in 1980, it grew into a programme for men and women aged 14 to 25 and adults to participate (Van Baren et al., 2015; The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award Foundation, 2019; Gordonstoun, 2021; The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021c).

When the DofE programme started in 1956, approximately 7,000 boys participated, and 1,000 boys completed the program with awards. The number of participants has increased every year, and countries other than the U.K. started to show interest in the programme. In the end,

Australia first introduced this programme in 1959, and with the establishment of the DofE International Association in 1989, it was operated in 48 countries around the world beyond Commonwealth countries. According to a recent survey reported by the DofE organisation in 2021, despite the difficult time for outdoor activities due to COVID-19, about 330,000 people participated in the DofE programme from April 2020 to March 2021; additionally, more than 1.3 million people from about 140 countries around the world participated in 2018 (Van Baren et al., 2015; The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award Foundation, 2019; The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021b).

Dr. Kurt Hahn emphasised that an inclusive approach and practical participation are the keys to learning through this programme, and based on this, he organised the programme into four areas: voluntary service, skill, physical recreation and adventurous journey. First, in volunteer service section, they educate on how to provide useful volunteer work to others in the local community. Second, in skill section, they encourage the development of individual interests, creativity and social and practical skills. Third, in physical recreation section, they provide encouragement to improve health and fitness by participating in individual sports or healthy activities. Finally, in adventurous journey section, they organise a group or individual trip into an area that fosters the spirit of adventure and challenge (Hahn, 1936; The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021c).

The programme is set up in three gradual stages, starting with a Bronze Award and leading to a Silver or Gold Award upon successful completion. Of course, participants can proceed with the programme at the desired stage from the beginning, but they can also be assigned to an appropriate stage through individual abilities and counselling. At each stage, as mentioned above, participants set their own personal goals in four areas: voluntary service, skill, physical recreation and adventurous journey. The program is conducted for three to six months for the Bronze Award, six to nine months for the Silver Award, and 12 to 18 months for the Gold Award, and the achievement of individual improvement and development is recorded at the time of registration. Participants who complete each step will be awarded certificates or medals.

According to the DofE's International Award Foundation's '2018 World Participant Satisfaction Survey' conducted from May 2017 to September 2018 with 7,397 people (men:

46.6%, women: 51.8%) from 62 countries, 91% (6,731) of participants answered that they enjoyed participating in this programme, 93% (6,879) were able to try new things, and 91% (6,731) answered that they felt a challenge every time the programme was conducted. In addition, 66% (4,882) of the participants responded that they experienced positive changes in various areas such as teamwork, challenging spirit, health and fitness, confidence, maturity and service in common after the programme. In terms of participation rate, the number of participants in volunteer activities more than once a week increased by 30% from 30% (2,219) to 60% (4,438), and participants in skill activities rose 10% from 78% (5,769) to 88% (6,509), physical recreation activities rose 6% from 88% (6,509) to 94% (6,953) and adventure journey rose 10% from 7% (517) to 17% (1,257), exceeding expectations in all fields (The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award Foundation, 2019).

Looking at the budget and demand of the U.K. DofE programme, it announced to support the DofE programme annually by 2021 with a total of £4,397,555, composed of £942,333 from the '#iWill Fund' jointly funded by the Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport (DCMS)'s Big Lottery Fund in 2017, £2,512,889 raised by 15,000 sponsors at the 2016 Diamond Anniversary celebration, and £942,333 raised by the fundraising activities of Diamond Anniversary organisations in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In this way, the budget is formed through government support and the fundraising activities of donors. It is also sponsored with new funding, local funding, and national funding through the "Funding Opportunities" banner on the DofE website, and the latest sponsorship information is updated every two weeks. Within the sponsorship information, information such as the sponsoring institution, the amount of donation, the sponsor (who can apply), the sponsorship purpose, the sponsorship method and the deadline can be checked. Table 1 is the sponsorship information found on the DofE website (The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE), 2021b).

Table 1. Sponsorship Opportunities

Criteria	Sponsor area	State Sponsorship
Region	Birmingham	
Institution	The City of Birmingham DofE Award Association	The Baily Thomas Charitable Fund
Sponsor amount	Approx. £18.85 - £94.23	About £251.29 – £4,711.67



(individual)		
Sponsor	People belonging to a DofE group in the City of Birmingham	Groups that want to help people with disabilities
Sponsor purpose	Equipment purchase, operation support, etc.	Facility repair and reorganisation, employment plan, centre repair, local community support plan, etc.
Sponsorship method	Reception on the institution's website	Reception on the institution's website
Deadline	N/A	Check on the last day of each quarter

Source: DofE (2021b)

In this way, funds are raised. Funding from the British government and donations from other organisations are used to fund the operation of facilities, award leaders, supply equipment and buy supplies to provide high-quality programs to adolescents and young people. The operating cost of the DofE programme is secured by budget support from the British government and sponsorship from other organisations, as well as registration fees and tuition fees from general participants in the programme. Currently, Bronze and Silver participants pay about £23 and Gold participants about £30, and participants registered in the programme are linked to receive discounts on tuition and supplies by receiving DofE membership cards (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021a). Looking at the 2020 DofE financial statements, the total budget for the 2020 DofE programme (including government support, corporate sponsorship, charity fundraising, investment funds, etc.) was approximately £17.6 million (approximately £17 million in 2019). It is confirmed that the amount raised has increased by approximately £5 million (approximately £4.7 million in 2019). This can be seen as a number reflecting the increase in the number of accredited organisations and participants (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2020).

The DofE programme consists of a five-step process, the first of which is to find accredited institutions or organisations to operate the DofE programme. These could be schools, universities, local institutions, sports clubs, government institutions, etc. The second step is to register on the Online Record Book. For people under the age of 18, it is necessary to submit a consent form from a guardian, and generally, they are accepted after paying the registration

fee. The third step requires the participant to contact DofE-accredited assessors, activity coaches or award leaders. Assessors can be school teachers, PE leaders, coaches, trainers, etc., and help participants set appropriate goals and guide them toward successful completion. The fourth step is to set goals, and participants set them in consultation with assessors or award leaders so that they can be achieved realistically. The fifth step is to start the programme after the participant undergoes all of the necessary steps, i.e., checks for activity regulations, laws, safety, etc. before proceeding with the programme with assessors or award leaders(ibid).

Basically, the programme can be divided into three levels (Bronze, Silver, Gold), and each level has a participation period and a programme level. In the bronze process, a performance process of three months is required, and participants must perform at least one hour of sports activity a week and record this in an online record notebook. Records are approved after interviews with award leaders. In the silver process, a performance process of six months is required, and its performance process is similar to that of the bronze process. If participants go directly to the silver process without going through the bronze process, they need to perform a nine-month process. In the gold process, a performance process of 12 months is required. If participants do not go through the bronze process and the silver process, they need to perform an additional three months and six months. Looking at the performance process, it may seem that all participants should start with the bronze process, but the level of programmes that proceed for each process varies and become more advanced as they move up to the gold process. Therefore, participants can decide the participation process after consulting with award leaders (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021d). The DofE programme recommends challenging and demanding sports or activities to participants from a list of possible sporting activities. They can experience all kinds of sports such as racquet sports, track and field, cycling, fitness and winter sports. Only after the participant discusses the sports, they want with the award leaders, can it be decided by reflecting the circumstances of each individual and place (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2019).

In the U.K. DofE programme, the total number of institutions accredited for the operation was 3,781, including schools, universities, sports clubs, companies and associations, as of 2021 (The Duke of Edinburgh's Award (DofE), 2021d). A possible action plan was presented in

which the Department for Education, a U.K. government institution, will open the programme to 291 schools that did not have a DofE programme as of 13 June 2021, breaking down barriers to participation due to lack of facilities, making the programme easier for adolescents and young people to access. The DofE programme is currently being provided not only to 3/4 of public schools in the U.K., but also to various institutions and organisations such as sports clubs, hospitals, and charitable institutions. In the 2020 DofE programme survey, participants said they received positive benefits for mental health and well-being through participation in the programme, and 62% of participants said they gained confidence in overcoming difficult situations after completing the DofE programme. Therefore, DofE programme officials are working closely with the Ministry of Education in the U.K. to establish a steady cooperation system with schools that do not provide programmes (Department for Education et al., 2021). For example, the DofE programme is in partnership with Camden, a borough of London, and schools in Camden and regional centres such as the Somers Town Youth Centre, Fresh Youth Academy, Netherwood Youth and Family Hub are operating the DofE programme. Students can participate in programmes at their schools and young people can participate in sports centres. This linkage structure is in charge of introduction in Camden (Camden Council, 2021).

287,937 adolescents and young people between the ages of 14 and 25 in the U.K. participated in the DofE programme in 2018 and 2019, and 153,284 completed and received DofE Awards (The Duke of Edinburgh's International Award (DofE), 2021a). As such, the DofE programme works closely with central government institutions such as the Department for Education, Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, cities, towns and districts, sports clubs and other organisations to utilise the facilities they provide while providing more adolescents and young people with opportunities to participate in the DofE programme.

## **Appendix 9. Full information about Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) and Australian Sports Commission (ASC)**

### **Australian Olympic Committee (AOC)**

The National Olympic Committee in Australia is the Australian Olympic Committee which is responsible for Australia's developing, promoting and protecting of the Olympic Movement. Being a non-government and not-for-profit organisation in Australia, it is committed to the development of youth and sport within the country. It also states that it is their responsibility to choose, send and fund all Australian teams which participate in the Olympic Games (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2021). That being said, the AOC was established in 1923 as the Australian Olympic Federation and was re-launched in 1990 with a name change. When the Australian Olympic Federation was established in the 1920s, the Australian government first funded the Australian Olympic Sports Team under an agreement with the Australian Olympic Federation, allowing the athletes to participate in the 1920 Antwerp Olympics. Thus, the Australian government funded the Australian Olympic Teams with about £1,000 for the Antwerp Olympics (Gordon, 1994). After that, the Australian Olympic Federation succeeded in hosting the 1956 Melbourne Olympics, receiving a fund of £88,000 from the Australian government and ranking 3rd in the medal placements (a total of 35 medals), achieving dramatically improved Olympic performance, thereafter, achieving good results (Government Printer, 1958). However, even though the Australian government provided the largest fund ever of £2,250,000 at the 1976 Montreal Olympics, Australia finished in 32nd (a total of five medals) out of all participating countries, achieving its worst performance. The poor performance of the Australian Olympic Teams provoked outrage and protests across the country, and the Fraser Government felt the need for new changes in the elite sports system.

Prime Minister Fraser delegated responsibility for improving Australia's international sports competitiveness to Home Affairs Minister Bob Ellicott, who founded the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981 to successfully develop elite athletes. Subsequently, in 1985, the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), which is responsible for supporting sports funds and developing grassroots sports, was established, and in 1987, the AIS and the ASC were merged for efficiency and cooperation (Bloomfield, 2003; Jolly, 2013). Changes in major sports

organisations at the Australian government level in the 1980s and early 1990s also affected the governance of the Australian Olympic Federation (Blood, 2018).

The newly started AOC formed a more direct relationship with the National Federations (NFs) of Sports, improved the structure to conform to the Olympic Charter, and tried to become more independent from the Australian government in terms of financial support (ibid). In addition, the AOC established its goals, roles and missions based on the Olympic Charter established by the IOC, and the AOC's association articles were approved by the IOC.

the AOC conducts Olympic sports in accordance with the Olympic Charter and regulations, and promotes, raises awareness and encourages all individuals in Australia to participate in sports, thereby developing grassroots sports and promoting elite sports. In addition, the AOC took measures against discrimination and violence, eradicated not only doping but also all forms of competition manipulation and corruption and adopted and implemented the World Anti-Doping Code. It also exercised the exclusive power of the Australian teams participating in all Olympics and worked on the selection and dispatch of team members. These tasks may be performed in cooperation with government agencies, but activities that violate the Olympic Charter must not be performed. When applying for hosting the Olympic Games, the AOC exercised exclusive power to select the host city, and finally, the AOC maintained its autonomy and resisted political, legal, religious and economic pressures that could prevent it from complying with the Olympic Charter. As such, the AOC is independently committed to the development of Australian sports, especially the growth of the Olympic team, without interference from the Australian government. Furthermore, it is also the responsibility of the AOC to provide funds to the Australian Olympic team.

Both the AOC and the ASC have supported elite sports and the increase in people's participation in sports, but since the 1990s, the ASC has provided 60-70% of the total budget to elite sports, and the AOC has provided intensive assistance to athletes participating in the Olympics. After Sydney won the rights to host the 2000 Summer Olympics in 1993, the Australian government invested around £238 million in elite sports for seven years from 1993 to 2000. On the other hand, in 1994, John Coates, the AOC President, announced that the Australian teams' necessary funds for the 1996 Atlanta Olympics and the 2000 Sydney Olympics would be covered by the AOC's funds, so no more Australian government funding

was needed (Canberra Times, 1994). The AOC raised £109.7 million in funds for the 1996 Atlanta Olympic team and the 2000 Sydney Olympic team through donations, fundraising and marketing activities and also supported £28.5million for participation in international competitions for 6 years. The 1996 Atlanta Olympics were the first Olympics in which the AOC did not receive funding from the Australian Government for the Australian teams. At the time, there were three key events that allowed the AOC to become financially stable. First, when the Australian Parliament passed the Olympic Insignia Protection Amendments Act of 1994, it was granted legislative protection by adding Australian-specific Olympic phrases and symbols. Due to the revision of the original law, the AOC has improved its authority to control marketing at the Australian Olympics, and its licensing profit has also increased. Second, in 1996, the AOC received £34million from the New South Wales State Government, to which Sydney belongs, for its successful hosting of the 2000 Sydney Olympics. Of this, £99.8 million was paid directly to the Olympic team athletes and individual coaches as a bonus (Gordon, 1994). Third, the AOC signed a contract to receive £54million from the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) after the Sydney Olympics on the condition that it relinquished the budget of the SOCOG and control of all profits related to the 2000 Sydney Olympics (Blood, 2018). As such, the AOC has not requested or obtained any funds from the Australian government or the ASC since, but it acknowledged that the ASC directly supports the National Federations of sports' Olympic programs or athletes preparing for the Olympic Games.

According to the AOC's 2017 annual report, it was announced that the AOC raised funds through commercial partnerships, fundraising, IOC Solidarity and profit distribution of the AOF. Looking at it closely, first, it received £33.7million cash, products and services from the AOC's commercial partners, Alibaba Group and Intel, which were the IOC's Worldwide Olympic Partner Programme (TOP), and the Australian Olympic team sponsor family for 2017/2018 partners, 8 suppliers and 3 licenses. Second, the AOC, in cooperation with the State Olympic Councils, raised a profit of around £7million during each Olympiad. This profit was used to cover travel expenses for the Australian teams. Third, as the IOC Solidarity fund, the AOC received £2.8million, which was used for specific programs such as coach training, athlete scholarships, community education programmes and other subsidies which were provided for the IOC, Organising Committees of the Olympic Games and Oceania National

Olympic Committees for administration, Olympic team support and sports programmes. Finally, the AOF allocated approximately £12.6million to the AOC. This resulted in a total profit of £56.1million. As such, the AOC has remarkably high financial independence by raising funds through various methods (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2017).

The funds secured in this way are used for the Australian national teams and are largely divided into three parts. First, the AOC uses funds for the Medal Incentive Funding (MIF) programme, which provides incentives in the form of bonuses to potential Summer and Winter Olympic medallists (ibid). For example, for the 2016 Rio Olympics, the AOC set the earnings at £10,915 for the gold medal, £7,313 for the silver medal, and £5,457 for the bronze medal, and a total of 33.7 million was paid to 37 athletes over four years (FitzGibbon, 2016). In addition, if athletes won a medal in benchmark competitions (championships, Asian Games, etc.) recognised by the AOC in a year in which the Olympics were not held, they would be eligible for MIF qualification and could receive an incentive the following year (Pavitt, 2019). Of course, the AOC is not involved in the incentive that Australian national team athletes receive from the NFs of sports. However, just because an athlete has won multiple medals does not mean they are not eligible for bonuses equivalent to the number of medals. Also, if athletes retire before the next Olympics, incentives will not be paid starting the year they retire (Marozzi, 2021).

Second, Olympic Solidarity is a special financial fund supported by the IOC which provides technical and financial support for sports development as a programme tailored to the needs and priorities of specific sports federations. The Olympic Solidarity directly provided this support to the AOC through its Continental Association, the Oceania National Olympic Committees (ONOC).

The total Olympic Solidarity funding for the policy presented in 2017 was £263,176. This support is given with a priority for the athletes' development programme, but also includes training coaches and sports managers and promoting Olympic values (IOC, 2021). Finally, it is the National Federation funding provided by the AOC. Among the elite sports supported by the ASC/AIS, the AOC provides an additional fund for sports that receive financial support of less than £54,577 for one year. Accordingly, the fund provided in 2017 was £252,150. In addition, delegations belonging to the Olympic sports' NFs and the executive body of the

International Sports Federation at the same time get financial support for travel-related expenses to attend international events and meetings approved by the International Federation. Funds provided in 2017 totalled £49,986 (Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), 2017). In addition to these, the AOC also recognises the assistance given by the State and Territory Institutes and Academies of Sport to various NFs and athletes, allowing them to prepare for the Olympic Games. Furthermore, the AOC recognises the Queensland Government and the NSW Government's direct contribution in partnering with the AOC in providing Olympic school programmes in their States. There are separate programmes and funding guidelines for sports which are listed on the programmes for the 2018 and 2022 Olympic Winter Games and for which £5,017,967 had already and would continue to be budgeted from 1 January 2017 to 31 December 2020. As such, it can be seen that the AOC is offering support in various ways to form a successful Olympic team.

### **Australian Sport Commission (ASC)**

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) is a sports management agency under the Australian government, leading a wide range of Australian sports, including promoting cooperation among sports organisations, encouraging people to participate in sports, expanding the financial base and supporting the elite sports system (ASC, 2021). The 'Sport 2030 Plan' announced by the Australian central government in 2018 was a policy programme to make Australia the world's most active sports country and encourage more Australians to be physically active. As one of the main agendas of the Sport 2030 Plan, the national sports organisation, the ASC, has been newly changed to Sport Australia, which is a fresh and friendly name for promoting smoother relations with Australian communities (Cameron, 2018; Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018). Sport Australia consists of the AIS and Sportaus, and the AIS leads the Elite Sports System which helps Australian elite athletes succeed in international competitions. Sportaus is in charge of the general parts of Australian sports and promotes Australians' participation in sports by working with the sports industry and the wider community from grassroots sports to the pinnacle of elite international competitions (ASC, 2021).

The AIS operates under the direction of the ASC Board and is Australia's strategic elite system



leader, focusing on elite sports growth and developing and advancing strategies, investment frameworks and operating models. The AIS works closely with its key partners the AOC, the Australian Paralympic Committee (APC), Commonwealth Games Australia (CGA), the National Institute Network (NIN) and National Sports Organisations (NSOs) to promote the growth of elite sports and achieve the best results internationally. The AIS is responsible for investing in elite sports and national programmes, research and innovation, and operates and manages services for elite athletes at the Australian Capital Territory Academy of Sport and the AIS campus in Canberra (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018; SportAUS & AIS, 2021). Sportaus' work is first delivered to partners throughout the sport, such as NSOs, the AIS, the AOC, the APC, the CGA, the Office for Sport and other Australian Government agencies, State and territory departments, institutes and academies of sport, business and other sectors, and realises their visions using their support and expertise. Second, Sportaus continues to develop its leadership within the sector with a general perspective and understanding of the challenges and trends that will affect the operations of the sports sector and the systems at home and abroad. Third, Sportaus advocates the value of sports across the Australian government and wider communities. Fourth, Sportaus works with partners to improve the capabilities and competencies of sports organisations and maximise the participation of Australians. Fifth, Sportaus provides, translates and shares analysis and insights for partners to make improved decisions across the sectors. Sixth, Sportaus interacts directly with Australians to raise awareness of the value of physical activity as part of their daily lives. Finally, Sportaus, in collaboration with its partners, encourages the inclusion of physical activities and physical abilities in the educational environment so that all Australians promote the value of physical activities from an early age (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018; 2020).

The Australian government (federal, state and local) invests more than \$1.3billion annually in the sports and active recreation sectors. This increases participation from the community in physical activity, such as sport and active recreation, which is seen as a main goal in helping to achieve social policy objectives at the national, state and local levels in addition to public health (Roeger et al., 2021). Among them, the ASC received funding from the Australian federal government to support elite and grassroots sports as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. 2018-20 ASC financial statement (unit: million pounds)

	Total Income	Governm ent funding	Funding from others	Elite sports	Sporting school	Grassroots sports (Participati on)	Others
2020	353.6	322.4	31.2	143.9	40.1	17.2	152.4
2019	418.7	388.5	30.2	140.1	40.2	17.1	221.3
2018	402.1	374.3	27.8	131	41	20.3	208.8

source: ASC (2018; 2019; 2020)

As shown in Table 1, it was confirmed that more than 90% of the ASC's total revenue is supported by the government, and about 10% is secured from the accommodation, facility hire, retail, cafe and children. On the other hand, the fund the ASC receives from the government is generally distributed to elite sports, school sports and grassroots sports, and elite sports are supported through the AIS, which supports high-ranking athletes, sports events, teams' programmes, athletes' pathways and well-being, camps, etc., and, in 2015, launched the Sports Schools program<sup>6</sup>, providing investment each year for encouraging students to participate in sports. Subsidies for grassroots sports are used for local sports, women leaders in sports programmes, clearinghouses, the year for grassroots sports, physical activity guidelines, etc. (Australian Sports Commission (ASC), 2018; 2019; 2020). As such, the ASC manages all aspects of sports programmes and policies, including grassroots sports, school sports and elite sports in Australia, and strives to encourage more people to participate in sports. Through these efforts, 89% of adults [over age 15] engaged in sports and other various physical activities, and 54% of women and 69% of men engaged in sport-related activities in 2020. 68% (of the 71% of children who had engaged in organised after-school activities) engaged in sport-related activities (May et al., 2021).

<sup>6</sup> Sporting Schools is an initiative of the Australian Government designed to help schools to increase the participation of children in sport and to link them with various opportunities in grassroots sports. This programme began in 2015, and has since partnered with more than 30 NSOs (ASC, 2019).

## **Appendix 10. Full information about Physical Education School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL)**

In the UK, policies to revitalise PE were implemented starting in the early 2000s. PESSCL was the first sports policy programme conducted in collaboration with the Department of Education and Skills (DfES) and the Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sports (DCMS) with the goal of changing PE and SS in the UK (DfES, 2004). Prior to the implementation of this policy, the UK's PE had aggravated difficulties due to the government's indifference, such as a decrease in curriculum time, materials and human support for the subject.

In addition, the PE curriculum was gradually alienated from the school, and the status of the subject was also severely reduced (Marshall and Hardman, 2000). However, positive changes began as the Labour Party government, which took power in 1997, set PE and SS as one of the top priorities. In an educational environment where everything about PE was lacking, the Youth Sports Trust (YST) played a pivotal role in the government's development and delivery of strategies for PE and SS. YST is a charitable organisation whose role is to provide opportunities for children and youth to participate in sports so that they can reach their potential through PE and SS (Jung et al., 2015). YST recommended cooperation between DfES, a government institution, DCMS and various sports institutions for changes in PE and SS and recognised the development of clearer base policies to this end.

Investment from the DfES and DCMS was desperately needed to prepare and implement the PESSCL policy. Sue Campbell, the YST CEO at the time, met with Estelle Morris, the DfES Minister, and Kate Hoey, the DCMS Minister, to request financial support for PE and SS. However, on the contrary, the two ministers asked Sue Campbell to act as a chief advisor for the development of PE and SS, which she accepted on the condition that she could be involved in the work of each institution without restriction. This was an opportunity for Sue Campbell to coordinate the different thoughts and disagreements of each of the institutions, which was an important turning point in the development of PE and SS in the UK. Sue Campbell explained that she experienced an unknown tension between the DfES and DCMS at the time (Phillpots, 2007). Subsequently, she gave a presentation to the then UK Prime Minister Tony Blair and the ministers of the DfES and DCMS, as well as other ministers and policy officials, to get support for the development of PE and SS. As a result, in 2002, the UK government provided

an additional £459 million. With an additional allocation of £686 million, a total of £1 billion or more in government subsidies was invested in building new school sports facilities across the UK and repairing previous facilities (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and (DCMS), 2003). In this way, a significant amount of subsidies was invested in PE and SS, which played a decisive role in the policy, which suffered from the UK government's indifference and lack of financial investment for decades.

Meanwhile, the UK considered benchmarking various models operated by other countries, such as the US and European countries at the time, but the direction was deemed inappropriate and was changed to self-planning a policy strategy suited to the country's environment. The basic strategy of PESSCL, which was initiated by this, was not to develop a new system, but to form structural relationships around schools, sports and local communities, and to make them cooperate with one another. In other words, first, new PE infrastructures were prepared around schools and maintained by continuously reinvesting in them. It also created a national school hub structure to copy local best practices and to provide equal access to PE and SS to all children and youth across the UK. Based on this, PESSCL focused on increasing the percentage of children and youth aged 5-16 participating in sports and increasing PE and sports opportunities. Although the PESSCL policy was broad in general, it reflected the interests and agendas of the government and numerous doers and stakeholders involved in the implementation of this strategy and thus was promoted by the cooperation of various government institutions. PESSCL was implemented in earnest by establishing and strengthening linkages between schools and local sports clubs under the National Governing Body of Sport (NGB), led by cooperation between the DfES and DCMS (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and (DCMS), 2003). As a result, the DfES and DCMS jointly took responsibility for the PESSCL policy, and Matthew Conway, the YST CEO, was jointly appointed. The PESSCL Policy Project Board consisted of the DfES, the DCMS, NGBs, professional PE associations, head teachers, the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), and Sport England (Phillpots and Grix, 2014).

Conway suggested that both ministries understand the overall picture of the PESSCL policy and then focus on their strategies by categorising specific departments that can contribute to

their development. The PESSCL policy was divided into about nine detailed programmes, and the programmes were interconnected. The nine detailed programmes were Sports Colleges, School Sport Partnerships (SSP), School to Club Links (SCL), the Gifted and Talented Programme, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) PE and School Sport Investigation, Step into Sport, Swimming, Sporting Playgrounds and Professional Development (PD) (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and (DCMS), 2003).

The Sports College and School Sports Partnership (SSP) represent two major structural elements of the strategy that provide the foundation upon which the national PE and SS infrastructure are built. SSPs are a family of schools and a group of secondary schools and elementary schools formed around the Sports College. With the Sports College as a website, its Partnership Development Manager (PDM) is responsible for the strategic development of partnerships and cooperates with School Sport Co-ordinators (SSCo) in secondary schools and links with teachers in elementary or special schools to develop PE and SS in the school district (DfES, 2004). A typical alliance consists of 4-8 secondary schools in one Sports College, with each secondary school having about five elementary or special schools connected (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002; Office for standards in Education Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted), 2011).

The other elements are essentially programmes that serve to deliver policy strategies and to help get closer to the PSA target.<sup>7</sup> QCA PE and SS Investigation are led by the Qualifications and Curriculum Agency with the main objective of disseminating and exemplifying high-quality practices and contributing to the achievement of high-quality results for PSA targets. The Professional Development (PD) programme includes a service programme managed by the YST and supported by the Association of PE Subjects (AfPE), which formed as a result of the merger of the British Association of Advisors and Lecturers (BAALPE) and the Physical

---

<sup>7</sup> The Public Service Agreement (PSA) was a national goal for public services set by the government to ensure that policy priorities were being met. PSA targets detailed a government department's "high-level aims, priority objectives and key outcome-based performance targets" (Grix and Phillpots, 2011:16). The DfES/DCMS' PSA target is to increase the ratio of UK children and youth enjoying at least 2 hours of high-quality PE and SS in and out of curriculum every week from 25% in 2002 to 75% in 2006 and further to 85% in 2008 (Department for Children, School and Families, 2008). However, the 2008 target was achieved one year earlier, and in 2006/07, 86% of children and youth aged 5-16 enjoyed at least two hours of PE and SS (DCMS, 2008).

Education Association of the United Kingdom (PEA/UK) (Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), 2002; Hooseman, 2014).

The SCL programme is a policy programme implemented to strengthen linkages between SS partnerships, NGBs and local sports clubs, with an emphasis on increasing the ratio of children and youth advancing from schools to high-quality sports clubs. Various in-school coaching sessions, after-school junior clubs, local sports clubs, festivals and competitions were implemented as methods for this. The Gifted and Talented programme was implemented to find and support more competent sports athletes and aimed to identify and develop the potential sports talents of athletes through the verification process at multiple sports institutions. As an example, the Multi-Skills Academies were established as part of an out-of-school activity programme for talented students aged 9-12, who were managed and supported by Sports Coach UK (scUK) and the YST (Ofsted, 2004; 2005; Phillpots, 2007; Macdougall, 2008).

Step in Sport is a programme funded by the DCMS and DCSF which encourages children aged 14-19 and youth to learn sports leadership and participate in volunteer work in all environments, including schools, Local Education Authorities (LEA), County Sports Partnerships, Sports Government Institutions and sports clubs. Swimming is one of the detailed policy programmes of PESSCL with the goal of supporting all children learning to swim. Swimming and water safety has been designated as the UK national PE curriculum since 1994 and has provided practical guidelines and advice to schools and local authorities, such as how to increase the participation rate of swimming classes and how to provide effective swimming classes by publishing the "Swimming Charter" in 2003. Sporting Playgrounds is a policy programme that encourages PE and sports activities in elementary school children and invests in playgrounds to improve children's school attendance and behaviours (Jung, 2014; Ofsted, 2007; Parker, 2006; Hooseman, 2014; Swim England, 2021).

Beginning in the early 2000s, the UK government's investment in school facilities and local sports facilities played an important role in the success of the PESSCL policy. Looking at the 2002 Joint DCMS/Strategy Unit Report's 'Game Plan', it was found that after school education, youth's interest in sports gradually decreased which led to a sharp decline in the participation rate in sports. To this end, the UK government decided that it was necessary to establish a

linkage between schools and local clubs and urgent to increase the availability of sports facilities, so it implemented various policy programmes and provided new funds (DCMS, 2002). The Space for Sports and Arts (SSA) policy programme is funded with £75 million from the government through lottery profits, with the aim of providing enhanced sports and art to children by building new school buildings or renovating existing school buildings. In addition, the Ministry of Finance invested an additional £75 million, for a total of £150 million to the programme (DCMS, 2000). In addition, the Building Schools for the Future (BSF) policy programme announced by Prime Minister Tony Blair in 2004 is a programme that attracted £45 billion investment for rebuilding or improving all secondary and high schools in the UK over a period of 10 to 15 years. It was believed that this would not just rebuild school buildings but also revitalise and improve local communities (Macdougall, 2008; BBC news, 2011). Looking at Figure 1, it can be seen that the number of sports facilities installed on school grounds has increased, and these facilities accounted for 73% of new public sports facilities opened in 2003 and 78% in 2004 (Audit Commission, 2006).

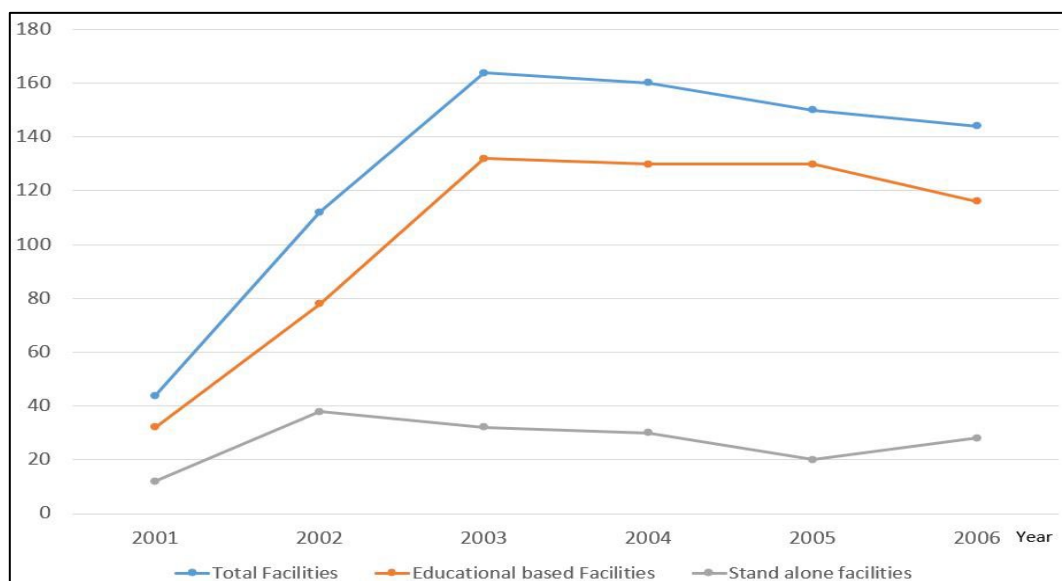


Figure 1. The number of new sport and recreation facilities  
Source: Audit Commission (2006)

In addition, from 2001 to 2007, about 4,000 sports facilities were built or repaired in the local communities, and a total of £1 billion was supported for this purpose (DCMS, 2008). As such, the UK government continuously invested new capital in sports facilities through various policy plans and recommended the construction of schools and local communities or the use of existing sports facilities. The best policy success in the 2000s was achieved by children age

5-16 and youth who were PSA targets for the DfES and DCMS and increased their participation in PE and SS for at least two hours every week. The goal was to increase the number of participants from 62% at the time of 2003/04 to 85% in 2008, but this goal was exceeded at 86% in 2007. Table 1 summarises a survey of PE and SS in the UK from 2003/04 to 2007/08.

Table 1. Survey on PE and SS in the UK from 2003/04 to 2007/08

	03/04	04/05	05/06	06/07	07/08
Participation in high-quality PESS (2hours)	62%	69%	80%	86%	90%
Curriculum time spent on PE (mins)	103	107	111	115	118
Participation in intra-school competition	22%	25%	71%	58%	66%
Participation in inter-school competition	33%	35%	37%	35%	41%
Provision of sports and activities (n)	14.5	15	16	17	17.5
Number of Clubs link to each school (n)	5	5	6	7	7.6
Pupil participation in clubs (%)	19%	22%	27%	29%	32%

Sources: Department for Children, School, and Families (2007; 2008)

As presented in Table 1, the ratio of children and youth participating in PE and SS for at least two hours per week increased annually from 62% in 2003/04 to 90% in 2007/08, which was 5% higher than the PSA target of 85%. It was confirmed that the average time given to PE was extended from 103 minutes in 2003/04 to 118 minutes in 2007/08, the number of students who participated in school competitions tripled from 22% in 2003/04 to 66% in 2007/08 and the number of students who regularly participated in inter-school competitions increased by 8% in 2007/08 totalling 41%. The average number of sports events provided to students through sports and PE activities in schools increased from 14.5 in 2003/04 to 17.5 in 2007/08. The majority of schools (four out of five) offered football, dance, gymnastics, athletics, cricket, rounders swimming and netball. Cycling, golf, rugby league and boxing were sports events with a sharp increase in the number of participating students, and finally, cheerleading, trampolining, yoga, circus skills, handball, fencing and baseball were added since 2007/08. In addition, in 2003/04, five clubs were linked with each school, but in 2007/08, the number increased to an average of 7.6, and the number of students participating in the sports clubs increased from 19% to 32%. This increase supports the government's claim that the main impact of PESSCL has expanded participation in PE, SS and after-school sports activities (Department for Children Schools and Families, 2007; 2008; Jung, 2014).



The Ofsted and Loughborough Partnership (LP)'s evaluations of PE and SS were all positive regarding partnership management, teacher and student benefits and school-club linkage. Above all, the benefits of the SSP raised awareness of the value of PE subjects (Ofsted, 2006; 2009). Also, according to school staff, it was reported that the influence of PESSCL had a positive effect on students' social and personal competency, i.e., behaviour change, achievement, attendance, attitude and self-esteem (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2004; 2008). In addition, each school reported that the SSP motivated children and youth to participate in PE and SS and helped contribute to their personal development and well-being (Ofsted, 2006). Of course, not all schools provided programmes suitable for all students' needs and abilities, but these positive results can be seen as a promising sign of raising the level of young students and improving the quality of education. Professional development and training opportunities for teachers had a positive effect on educational quality improvement, and extensive Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities promoted cooperative learning among teachers (Armour and Makopoulou, 2008). In addition, the number of qualified active coaches, leaders and employees increased high-quality education in PE and SS (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2009).

The SSP allowed subject leaders to influence the teaching of fellow teachers, especially the quality of education in elementary schools, which made faster progress due to significant support from the SSCo (Ofsted, 2004; 2006). Also, Primary Link Teachers (PLT) had a significant impact on the improvement of confidence, knowledge and skills of other elementary school teachers (Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2005). It is reported that the linkage between schools and clubs has been forward-looking and has been continuously improved within the SSP, which can provide quality curriculum and extracurricular activities for children and youth. Most schools already have close linkage with local sports clubs and sports coaches in the local community, and the SSP encourages children and youth to engage in a variety of sports outside of school by improving the linkage between clubs and providing sports experts or coaches (Ofsted, 2004; 2005; Loughborough Partnership(LP), 2009). In addition, the linkage between elementary and secondary schools was improved, which was promoted through regular faculty meetings to share data and expertise with one another (Ofsted, 2005). As a result of PESSCL, there were positive effects such as increased participation and performance standards of children and youth, expansion of sports events,

expansion and reinforcement of the linkage between schools and clubs, participation motivation in after-school sports, an increased number of qualified teachers or coaches, motivation and improved students' attitudes, behaviours and attendance.