

**A COMPARATIVE AND HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF ELITE SPORT
PROGRAMS IN AUSTRALIA AND PAKISTAN, 1947-2007**

by

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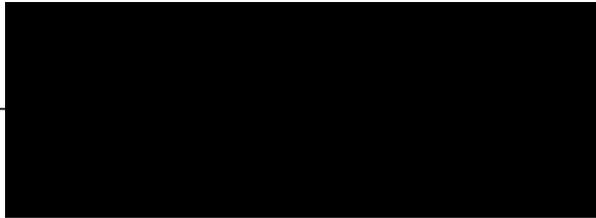
Abstract

Despite the fact that a number of academic studies compare the development of sport systems, a formal comparison of the elite sport programs of Pakistan with any other nation has yet to be undertaken. As a response to this gap in the literature, this thesis provides the first detailed comparison of elite sport programs in Australia and Pakistan between 1947 and 2007. In terms of the structure of the thesis, a critical evaluation of relevant sports history literature and other source material is followed by an overview of the historical background, political development, and culture of Australia and Pakistan. A descriptive narrative of different sport policies and programs in both countries is then provided and a number of important issues are subsequently analysed in a more thematic manner. Institutions responsible for the organisation of sport and physical activity in both countries are considered and the distribution of financial resources from the government to elite sporting programs is also investigated. Specific attention is given to programs associated with the Olympic Games and the Commonwealth Games. Finally, an agenda for initiatives and research relevant to the future promotion of elite sport, particularly in Pakistan, is recommended. In broad terms, this research adds considerably to knowledge of the sport systems of both countries, and has the potential to enhance understandings of the history and development of government involvement in the delivery of elite sport programs. In addition, the thesis makes a significant contribution to current debates regarding the complex relationship between sport, culture and society in a cross-cultural and comparative context.

Declaration

I, Mohammad Akhtar Nawaz Ganjera, declare that the PhD thesis entitled 'A Comparative and Historical Analysis of Elite Sport Programs in Australia and Pakistan, 1947-2007', is no more than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature: _____



_____ Date: 22 November 2007

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Dedication

For my father, Malik Khan Muhammad Ganjera, and my mother, Aisha Bibi.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AASC	Active After-School Communities
ACTAS	ACT Academy of Sport
AIS	Australian Institute of Sport
AOC	Australian Olympic Committee
ASC	Australian Sports Commission
BASA	Backing Australia's Sporting Ability: A More Active Australia
CARDS	Centre for Administrative Research and Development Studies
IOC	International Olympic Committee
MMP	Maintain the Momentum Program
NCCPF	National Co-Ordinating Council for Physical Fitness
NESC	National Elite Sports Council
NSO	National Sporting Organization
NSP	Next Step Program
OAP	Olympic Athlete Program
OCA	Olympic Coordinating Authority
PAAF	Pakistan Amateur Athletic Federation
PEMRA	Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority
PHF	Pakistan Hockey Federation
POA	Pakistan Olympic Association
PSB	Pakistan Sports Board
PSC	Pakistan Sports Complex
PSCB	Pakistan Sports Control Board
PWSB	Pakistan Women's Sports Board

QAS	Queensland Academy of Sport
SAF	South Asian Federation
SOCOG	Sydney Organising Committee for Olympic Games
VIS	Victorian Institute of Sport

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The purpose and scope of this thesis is to develop an objective comparison between elite sport programs in Australia and Pakistan. Sport is a popular passion in both these Commonwealth nations and, despite geographical distance, both countries share some close sporting relations. Reflecting a shared interest in the sports of cricket, hockey and squash, for example, sporting icons such as Don Bradman, Dennis Lillee and Ric Charlesworth are relatively common household names in Pakistan, while champions such as Imran Khan, Jehangir Khan and Jan Sher are equally well known in some sports-loving communities of Australia. Despite such relatively superficial similarities and the potential for common ground, to date there have been no academic studies involving a direct comparison between the development of sport in these two countries.¹

In terms of providing some essential historical background, it should be noted that Pakistan came into existence on 14 August 1947 - the first independent sovereign state in recent history created on the basis of religion.² Prior to this, the country was part of a united India. When India gained independence from British colonial rule, a separate state was also formed to be a homeland for the Muslims of India. The name given to this state was Pakistan. In this context, as Ahmad Iqbal notes, it is important

¹ However, it should be noted that other comparative studies between the two countries have been undertaken. For example, M. J. Mogul completed an investigation involving the development of a business plan for the establishment of an Australian business computing college in Pakistan. See M. J. Mogul, 'Export of Education Services from Australia to Pakistan', Masters thesis, Faculty of Business, Victoria University, 1996.

² I. Talbot, *Pakistan: A Modern History*, C. Hurst & Co., London, 1998, p. 27.

to recognize that just over 97% of the current population is Muslim, while other religious minorities, such as Christians and Hindus, constitute the remainder.³ The impact of Islam on the development of sport and recreation is discussed further below.

In a comparative study such as this, it is important to note similarities, as well as differences, between the two countries. For instance, there are some climatic similarities between Pakistan and Australia in that both countries experience severe cold and hot weather, which can affect the physical growth, strength and stamina of the population of each nation. However, according to most commentators, the climate for physical activity in Australia is generally ideal, as in most cases sports and games can be played all year around. Indeed, most of the major cities in Australia were developed in temperate zones where long, warm summers encouraged a multiplicity of sports,⁴ whereas in Pakistan, the climate varies markedly according to the elevation, thus sometimes affecting what, when and where sports can be played.

Pakistan also has some notable variations in geography. The country can be divided into three distinct geographical regions, namely the low lands along the Indus river in the south and east, the desert plateau of Balochistan in the south west, and the mountains of the north west. While the provinces of Punjab and Sind are well irrigated by the Indus river and its tributaries; and have very fertile lands, the southwestern province of Balochistan, which covers almost half of the country, is a dry, arid plateau, and, like the mountainous regions of the northwest frontier, is sparsely

³ A. Iqbal, *Islamization of Pakistan*, Vanguard Books, Lahore, 1986, p. 147.

⁴ See K. Dunstan, 'Our Sporting Obsession', in T. D. Jacques and G. R. Pavia (eds), *Sport in Australia: Selected Readings in Physical Activity*, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1976, p. 7.

populated.⁵ Australia also varies in its topography, with a large central desert, tropical rainforests in the north, and lush grazing land along the east coast of the continent. The bulk of the population obviously resides in the more hospitable areas. These topographic and climatic factors clearly have a strong bearing on the mental and physical character of the population and its effect is reflected both in their general way of life and on the sporting field.

As Richard Cashman makes clear, Australia owes much of its sporting heritage to Britain,⁶ and there is a sense in which the same can be said for Pakistan. As far as sporting traditions are concerned, the British military in the eighteenth and nineteenth century, as they did elsewhere in the world, introduced and popularised a number of non-indigenous games such as cricket, hockey, soccer, badminton and squash throughout the Empire.⁷ According to Cashman, life for the British troops in places such as Australia and the subcontinent was ‘boring, brutish and hot’, and as sports enhanced physical fitness, raised morale and provided an outlet for physical needs, engagement in sports provided a mean of escape from boredom and dullness, particularly for those employed in the armed forces.⁸ As a consequence, many regiments developed strong traditions of sports and it was therefore natural that this British heritage influenced, and to a great extent determined, the types of sports and pastimes later pursued throughout the colonies.⁹

⁵ For a recent overview of the physical (and political) geography of Pakistan, see D. Belt, ‘Struggle for the Soul of Pakistan’, *National Geographic*, September 2007, pp. 32-59.

⁶ R. Cashman, *Paradise of Sport: The Rise of Organised Sport in Australia*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1995, pp. 1-14.

⁷ A. Guttmann, *Games and Empires: Modern Sports and Cultural Imperialism*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1994, p. 36.

⁸ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 19.

⁹ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 19.

Apart from physical similarities and differences between Pakistan and Australia, it is also important to make comparisons in terms of culture. One of the major differences between the two countries is in the area of gender and religion. Pakistan is an Islamic state and therefore social and moral conditions are not conducive for women to perform sports or physical activities in public. Indeed, as Jennifer Hargreaves notes, in most Muslim nations there are restrictive dress codes and from an early age girls are trained to play a domestic role rather than indulge in any physical activity.¹⁰ This means that participation in sport and recreation in Islamic countries, such as Pakistan, has, until recently, been almost entirely dominated by men. Given that there has been a long history of marginalisation of women from sport in Australia,¹¹ some parallels may be drawn with the situation in Pakistan, however it is clear that the religious dimension surrounding this problem is not as prevalent in western countries such as Australia. Thus, while most women's sport has been confined to the periphery in Australia, it is also a fact, noted by such authors as Marion Stell and Dennis Phillips, that large numbers of women and girls in this country have participated in a wide range of sports over a long period of time, with some achieving notable success, especially at the Olympic level.¹²

In terms of political and economic structure, Pakistan has always struggled to develop a sustainable political system. With the premature death of its first head of state, Muhammad Ali Jinnah, and the assassination in 1951 of its first Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan, political instability and economic difficulties became prominent

¹⁰ J. Hargreaves, *Heroines of Sport: The Politics of Difference and Identity*, Routledge, London, 2000, pp. 51-52.

¹¹ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 85.

¹² M. K. Stell, *Half the Race: A History of Australian Women in Sport*, Angus and Robertson, North Ryde, 1991, p. vii, and D. H. Phillips, *Australian Women at the Olympics Games*, Kangaroo Press, Kenthurst, 1996, p. vi.

features of post-independence Pakistan. As early as 17 April 1953, Governor General, Ghulam Muhammad, in exercise of his 'inherent' powers, summarily dismissed Prime Minister Khawja Nazim-ud-Din, as the country lurched from one political crisis to another.¹³ As a consequence, very few stable economic policies were put into place, with the result that no suitable national sports policies were developed in the early years of the fledgling nation. A small number of erratic and temporary plans were initiated in terms of sport, but most of these were modified, altered or even reversed with the various changes of leadership.

In Australia, on the other hand, the post-war period was marked by a period of economic and political stability, with a conservative national Liberal government in power for 23 years. In fact, under the prime ministership of Robert Menzies during the 1950s and 1960s, Australia experienced a golden era in sports. Noting that Australia is one of just two countries (the other being Greece) that have taken part in every summer Olympic Games since 1896,¹⁴ the nation's athletic prowess was further acknowledged by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) when Melbourne was awarded the Olympic Games in 1956. It was the first time that the Games were held in the southern hemisphere and only the third time the Games were staged outside Europe. Performing on their home soil, Australian athletes won a total of 35 medals, with thirteen being gold, and the country finished in third position overall on the unofficial medal tally. During this period, Australian athletes won numerous gold medals at the Olympic Games, the Commonwealth Games and various world championships, and Australian sportsmen and sportswomen such as Dawn Fraser,

¹³ R. Raza, *Pakistan in Perspective: 1947-1997*, Oxford University Press, Karachi, 1997, p. 5.

¹⁴ H. Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1994, p. 13. Gordon adds that Great Britain also claims to have competed at every summer Olympic Games, but their claim is a disputed one.

Murray Rose, Marjorie Jackson, Ron Clarke, and Betty Cuthbert, became household names around the world. In summary, during the two decades between 1950 and 1970, Australia took part in five Olympic Games and won a total of 50 gold medals. Australia was always on the victory stand with at least one gold medal in every Olympics since World War II, except for the Montreal Games in 1976.¹⁵

Following a period of political instability in the years after the birth of the nation, Pakistan eventually developed a tradition and distinction of excellent sports performance at the international level, especially in cricket, hockey, squash, athletics, boxing and sailing. After analysing the results of different sports, it can be seen that hockey, for example, became the national game of Pakistan in the 1960s, and its record and achievement in the four major international hockey tournaments (that is, the Olympic Games, the Asian Games, the World Cup and the Champions Trophy) was enviable and contributed to the status and cultural acceptance of the sport. Pakistan also won three gold (in 1960, 1968 and 1984), three silver and three bronze medals at the Olympic Games, and it won the hockey World Cup four times between 1971 and 1994.¹⁶ In cricket, Pakistan also developed a proud track record, with favourable Test and one-day match results against all major cricket-playing nations. Moreover, many Pakistani players hold individual records and the team won the cricket World Cup in 1992.¹⁷ Pakistan's achievements in the field of squash were also unique with the country producing seven world champions between 1960 and 1997.¹⁸ In addition, Pakistan also won five gold, two silver and two bronze in sailing at the

¹⁵ Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, p. 466.

¹⁶ See Pakistan Sports Board (hereafter PSB in footnotes), <http://www.sports.gov.pk/index1.htm>, accessed on 18 July 2004.

¹⁷ M. Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports: A Gift of the New Century*, Bhatti Publications, Lahore, 1999, pp. 131-225 and 533-549.

¹⁸ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports: A Gift*, pp. 351-413 and 569-572.

Asian Games,¹⁹ and in the 1960s alone, Pakistan won two gold, three silver and two bronze medals in athletics at the Asian Games.²⁰

The sporting achievements listed above confirm that Pakistan has a reasonably good record of elite sporting performance, albeit in a limited number of sports. However, preliminary investigation of Pakistan's contemporary performance in elite sport (where 'elite' or 'high performance' sport can be taken to mean sporting activities of an accepted national or international standard), seems to indicate that there has been a gradual decline. This view is supported by Bhatti, who explains that Pakistan finished their athletics schedule in the 1982 Delhi Asian Games without securing a medal for the first time in the history of Asian Games. Following this, Pakistan could only win three gold medals in the Asian Games (one each of the Games in 1966, 1974 and 1990). It is these declining standards, analogous to Australia's Olympic medal nadir in 1976, that deserve further investigation.²¹

The purpose of this thesis, therefore, is to explore Pakistan's management of high performance sport programs, identifying, conceptualising and analysing the policy framework of governmental elite sport institutions. Due to certain similarities, and a number of key differences, peculiar to Pakistan and Australia, Australian efforts and achievements in this area will provide a valuable cross-cultural study between the two countries. These similarities and differences are explained in more detail in relevant sections throughout the thesis, with the underlying assumption being that the delivery of elite sport programs in Pakistan deserves the greatest amount of attention and analysis, albeit within the framework of a comparative methodology.

¹⁹ See PSB, <http://www.sports.gov.pk/index1.htm>, accessed on 18 July 2004.

²⁰ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, pp. 1-47.

²¹ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 21.

1.2 Literature Review

Substantive literature on the general sports history of Pakistan is scarce. While broad overview histories of the modern state of Pakistan are relatively extensive in number, in the main, the authors and editors of such material understandably tend to focus on political developments or religious themes, with partition looming large as a seminal event in the nation's history.²² Indeed, due to Pakistan's extraordinarily complicated political system, much of the literature, exemplified by Jaffrelot's *Pakistan: Nationalism Without Nation?*, continually struggles with certain key themes and issues, such as definitions of identity, the intersection of religious and ethnic factors, a deeply flawed institutionalisation of democracy, control of the state, and the sometimes potentially explosive cross impacts of regional and domestic politics.²³

In terms of the region's more ancient history, authors such as J. F. Richards trace the history of the Mughal empire from its creation in 1526 to its break-up in 1720. He explores notable features such as territorial expansion, institutional innovation in land revenue, coinage and military organization, ideological change, and the relationship between the emperors and Islam.²⁴ However, very few of these general studies mention historical developments in sport, although, as noted below, some discussion of ancient sporting practices and the later impact of British imperialism, does occur, although such topics are not treated in any sustained manner.

²² See, for example, F. Abbott, *Islam and Pakistan*, Cornell University Press, York, 1968, K. K. Aziz, *The Making of Pakistan: A Study in Nationalism*, Chatto and Windus, London, 1967, Talbot, *Pakistan: A Modern History*, and H. A. Rizvi, *Military, State and Society in Pakistan*, St Martin's Press, New York, 2000. In similar fashion, H. V. Hodson, *The Great Divide*, Oxford University Press, Karachi, 1993, narrates the story of the division of united India and independence of Pakistan and India.

²³ C. Jaffrelot (ed.), *Pakistan: Nationalism Without Nation?*, Zed Books Ltd, London, 2002.

²⁴ J. F. Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1993.

General histories of sport in Pakistan do exist, but they lack depth and are not marked by academic rigour. For example, a book by Bhatti, entitled *Pakistan Sports: A Gift of the New Century*, is available, but like most similar compendiums it only contains the results and names of participants of different teams and games in national and international competitions.²⁵

Of course, materials dealing with developments prior to partition are also relevant, and, in terms of sport and the military, Byron Farwell's, *Armies of Raj: From the Mutiny to Independence, 1858-1947*, is an excellent starting point. Concerned with the daily life of Indian Armies in a specified time period, Farwell critically analyses the behaviours of British soldiers. In particular, the chapter on military sports provides very useful information on the role and function of a number of different games, including polo, although the focus is generally on the activities of the officers.²⁶

As intimated above, religious issues are a hallmark of Pakistan's history, and books such as Iqbal's *Islamization of Pakistan*, concerned with the development of Islam, reveal the make-up of different religious groups in Pakistan.²⁷ Apart from constituting a useful document for ascertaining the religious background of the people of Pakistan, this book does provide some information on the effect of religious attitudes on sport. On a similar theme, but more directly concerned with sport, is Scott Fleming's book, *Home and Away: Sports and South Asian Male Youth*. Although dealing largely with the interests of Asian youth in the United Kingdom, it

²⁵ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*.

²⁶ B. Farwell, *Armies of the Raj: From the Mutiny to Independence, 1858-1947*, W. W. Norton and Company, London, 1989.

²⁷ Iqbal, *Islamization of Pakistan*.

has some valuable information on the culture and religion of Pakistan within a sporting context.²⁸

The general issue of women and Islam is explored in a number of works. For example, books by Utas, Klein, Chaudry, Afshar, and Ask and Tjomsland, all consider the rights of women under Islam, and provide useful background information on this contentious problem.²⁹ Another author who deals with gender issues is Muhammad Iqbal, who focuses on the rights of women in Islam as expressed in the Quran. He discusses the Quranic injunction, male/female relationships and the role assigned to women in its social order.³⁰ Such material can function as important cultural background for historians and sociologists in their discussion of gender and sport in an Islamic nation such as Pakistan. As mentioned above, it is Hargreaves in particular who looks closely at different groups of women whose stories have been excluded from previous accounts of women sports and female heroism. She focuses on five specific groups of women from different places in the world. These are South African women, Muslim women from the Middle East, Aboriginal women from Australia and Canada, and lesbian and disabled women from different countries worldwide. The section on Muslim women is particularly useful as it theorises about the relationship between Islam, gender and sport in a comparative manner.³¹ In a similar way, William Morgan also examines the

²⁸ S. Fleming, *Home and Away: Sport and South Asian Male Youth*, Ashgate Publishing Company, Vermont, 1995.

²⁹ See B. Utas (ed.), *Women in Islamic Societies*, Olive Branch Press, New York, 1988, H. G Klein, *Women in Pakistan*, Vanguard Books, Lahore, 1992, M. S. Chaudhry, *Women's Rights in Islam*, Adam Publishers and Distributors, Delhi, 1997, H. Afshar, *Islam and Feminisms*, Macmillan Press, London, 1998, and K. Ask and M. Tjomsland (eds), *Women and Islamisation*, Berg, Oxford, 1988.

³⁰ M. Iqbal, *Women in Quran*, Aziz Publishers, Lahore, 1985.

³¹ Hargreaves, *Heroines of Sport*, pp. 51-52.

experiences of one particular elite Islamic female athlete from a postmodern perspective. Both these works are discussed elsewhere in the thesis.³²

The political literature on Pakistan is also extensive, and it is not surprising that Pakistan's relationship with India has received much scholarly attention.³³ Foreign policy looms large in the literature, and while Mahmood, for example, concentrates on this aspect, he also discusses the different political regimes, including those of a military nature.³⁴ In a similar fashion, H. A. Rizvi endeavours to study the changing pattern of civil-military relations in Pakistan with the object of understanding its causes and dynamics, its impact on the society as well as the military itself. He also examines the methods adopted by various military regimes to extricate themselves from direct rule, while still exercising political influence from the sidelines.³⁵ In a recent study, Stephen Cohen places Pakistani politics in the context of the foreign policy of the United States, and in doing so he provides, in one dedicated chapter, a highly perceptive analysis of the role and ethos of the Pakistan military forces, which tend to dominate the nation's political life.³⁶ He also discusses the army's historic role as either ruler or power-broker, a matter that is raised elsewhere in this thesis.³⁷ As noted above, the role of the military is very important in Pakistan, and therefore studies such as this assist in conceptualising the relationship between sport, government, politics and policy development.

³² W. J. Morgan, 'Hassiba Boulmerka and Islamic Green: International Sports, Cultural Differences, and their Postmodern Interpretation', in G. Rail (ed.), *Sport and Postmodern Times*, State University of New York, New York, pp. 345-365.

³³ See, for example, E. Sridharan (ed.), *The India-Pakistan Nuclear Relationship: Theories of Deterrence and International Relations*, Routledge, London, 2007.

³⁴ S. Mahmood, *Pakistan Political Roots & Development, 1947-1999*, Oxford University Press, Karachi, 2000.

³⁵ Rizvi, *Military, State and Society in Pakistan*, 2000.

³⁶ S. P. Cohen, *The Idea of Pakistan*, Brookings Institution Press, Washington, 2004, pp. 97-130.

³⁷ Cohen, *The Idea of Pakistan*, p. 131.

More substantive in terms of general background and the structure of sport in Pakistan are two academic theses. The dissertation by Skina Sial, entitled 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors of Pakistani Society Influencing Physical Education', is very helpful in terms of outlining the religious, cultural and historical dimensions of Pakistan in respect to sport and physical education.³⁸ Similarly, M. A. Javed, in his thesis entitled 'Developing a Strategic Plan for the Pakistan Sports Board Using the Delphi Technique', discusses Pakistan's sports system, along with some relevant historical background.³⁹ Both works, and the findings contained therein, are discussed in subsequent chapters of this dissertation.

As expected, the government body responsible for sport in Pakistan has published a range of relevant material. The Pakistan Sports Board (PSB) once published its own sports journal, but this magazine focused on activities that were arranged by the PSB itself. Results of different events and some material regarding the coaching of different games were also noted, but this journal is no longer published, apparently due to a shortage of funds. The publication wing of the PSB also produces annual reports of its activities. These reports contain, for example, the Board's annual budget allocations, audited reports, and overviews of the participation and performance of Pakistani teams in international events. Such documents are very useful for comparative purposes, especially in terms of similar material published by the Australian Sports Commission (ASC). Copies of some reports submitted by different managers of the Pakistan contingent taking part in some international games, including the Olympic Games, are also available, and they contain details on

³⁸ S. A. Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors of Pakistani Society Influencing Physical Education', Masters thesis, Department of Physical Education, Brigham Young University, 1972.

³⁹ M. A. Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan for the Pakistan Sports Board Using the Delphi Technique', Doctor of Philosophy in Education thesis, University of New Mexico, 1994.

the strength of contingents, the number of officials, and evaluations of performances. Apart from the PSB, other relevant material relating to sport can be found in the documents of the Pakistan Army and the Pakistan Air Force, although access to this body of data is not as readily available (and therefore was not utilised in this thesis).

Some books are also available on particular sports, such as squash and cricket, but in many cases they tend to focus on biographical details or family dynasties. Somewhat typical of the genre is Rutnagur's *Khan's Unlimited: A History of Squash in Pakistan*, which contains biographical information on a famous squash-playing family in Pakistan.⁴⁰ Similarly, a journal, *Sportstimes*, was once published in the 1970s and 1980s, and articles on the history of particular sports, such as '34 Years of Pakistan's Sports', though limited in scope and short on analytical rigour, are useful for relevant historical background.⁴¹

Academic literature on specific sporting activities in Pakistan is, as indicated previously, quite sparse, and therefore it is appropriate that other related material should also be considered. For example, in Allen Guttmann's *Games and Empires*, there is a chapter on cricket that describes how cricket diffused throughout India by means of 'Rajas and Maharajas'. It also describes the participation of different ethnic groups, including Muslims, in the game of cricket.⁴² Similarly, in a general anthology of sport history, Richard Cashman provides a chapter on the phenomenon of Indian cricket. He discusses the development of cricket in India, and how it affects other games, media coverage and participation by various ethnic groups, including

⁴⁰ D. Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited: A History of Squash in Pakistan*, Oxford University Press, Karachi, 1997.

⁴¹ Anonymous, '34 Years of Pakistan's Sports', *Sportstimes*, vol. 26, no. 9, September 1981, pp. 13-15, 20.

⁴² Guttmann, *Games and Empires*, pp. 32-40.

Muslims.⁴³ In Jeremy MacClancy's *Sport, Identity and Ethnicity*, there are two chapters devoted to Pakistan. One chapter discusses indigenous polo, including its development and its history in different regions of the subcontinent. It also tells of the enthusiasm of local participants. The other chapter is more contemporary in outlook, but it has some worthwhile commentary on aspects of Islam, nationalism and sport in the British context.⁴⁴ Also of relevance is the material in the anthology by Noel Dyck. In one particular chapter, a writer discusses the history and rules of 'kabaddi', which is an indigenous sport of both India and Pakistan.⁴⁵ Material such as this will supplement those studies that deal specifically and directly with elite sporting practices in Pakistan.

Regarding the literature relevant to Australia, there is a plethora of books available on sport, including a number of general descriptive histories such as those written and/or edited by Keith Dunstan, T. D. Jacques and G. R. Pavia, Reet and Max Howell, Geoff Prenter, and Richard Cashman, all of which provide an essentially chronological overview of sport and its development in this particular country.⁴⁶ Several biographical studies have also been completed, of which the compilation by Michael

⁴³ R. Cashman, 'The Phenomenon of Indian Cricket', in R. Cashman and M. McKernan (eds), *Sport in History: The Making of Modern Sport History*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1979, pp. 180-204. For expansive treatments of cricket in India, see M. Bose, *A History of Indian Cricket*, revised edition, Deutsch, London, 2002, and B. Majumdar, *Twenty-Two Yards to Freedom: A Social History of Indian Cricket*, Viking, New Delhi, 2004.

⁴⁴ See, respectively, P. Parkes, 'Indigenous Polo and the Politics of Regional Identity in Northern Pakistan', in J. MacClancy (ed.), *Sport, Identity, and Ethnicity*, Berg Publishers, Oxford, 1996, pp. 43-67, and P. Werbner, "'Our Blood is Green": Cricket, Identity and Social Empowerment Among British Pakistanis', in J. MacClancy (ed.), *Sport, Identity, and Ethnicity*, Berg Publishers, Oxford, 1996, pp. 87-111.

⁴⁵ J. S. Alter, 'Kabaddi, a National Sport of India: The Internationalism of Nationalism and Foreignness of Indianness', in N. Dyck (ed.), *Games and Sports and Cultures*, Berg, Oxford, 2000, pp. 83-115. See also

⁴⁶ K. Dunstan, *Sports*, Sun Books, South Melbourne, 1981, T. D. Jacques and G. R. Pavia (eds), *Sport in Australia: Selected Readings in Physical Activity*, McGraw-Hill, Sydney, 1976, R. Howell and M. Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, Shakespeare Head Press, Sydney, 1987, G. Prenter (ed.), *The Greatest Games We Ever Played*, Ironbark, Chippendale, 1997, and R. Cashman (ed.), *Australian Sport Through Time*, Randomhouse, Sydney, 1997.

McKernan is probably the best.⁴⁷ Cashman's *Paradise of Sports: The Rise of Organised Sports in Australia*, is also very comprehensive for general background on the history of sport in Australia, and is much more analytical in style. The section on 'Politics', for example, is particularly worthwhile.⁴⁸ Also more analytical in style and format is *One-Eyed: A View of Australian Sport*, in which Douglas Booth and Colin Tatz provide some valuable critical commentary on aspects of national sports policy.⁴⁹ It should also be noted that nearly all of the above studies attempt to cover aspects of the Aboriginal experience of sport, but this theme is dealt with more extensively in Colin Tatz's *Obstacle Race*, and also in *Black Gold: The Aboriginal and Islander Sports Hall of Fame*.⁵⁰

These general books can be complemented by an extensive array of literature that considers sport, government and politics in more detail. Nearly 20 years ago, for example, Darwin Semotiuk published a very informative article about the creation of the two peak bodies in Australian sport, namely the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and the ASC. He also described the subsequent decentralisation of the AIS when facilities, staff and funding for field hockey, for example, were moved to Perth and squash was re-located to Brisbane. The author observes and comments on the strong political interest and involvement of a number of federal politicians, including Bob Ellicott (Liberal-Country Party) and John Brown (Australian Labor Party).⁵¹ Prior to this study, Richard Baka also provided a brief overview of government involvement

⁴⁷ M. McKernan (ed.), *The Makers of Australia's Sporting Traditions*, Melbourne University Press, Carlton, 1993.

⁴⁸ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*.

⁴⁹ D. Booth and C. Tatz, *One-Eyed: A View of Australian Sport*, Allen & Unwin, St Leonards, 2000.

⁵⁰ C. Tatz, *Obstacle Race: Aborigines in Sport*, UNSW Press, Sydney, 1995, and C. Tatz and P. Tatz, *Black Gold: The Aboriginal and Islander Sports Hall of Fame*, Aboriginal Studies Press, Canberra, 2000.

⁵¹ D. Semotiuk, 'Commonwealth Government Initiatives in Amateur Sport in Australia, 1972-1985', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 3, no. 2, May 1987, pp. 152-162.

in Australian sport, characterising it as ‘a delayed, eclectic approach’.⁵² More recently, John Daly, in a commissioned history, took a closer look at the achievements of the AIS, suggesting that the Institute had been through ‘ten turbulent years’.⁵³ Bob Stewart and his co-authors for *Australian Sport: Better by Design? The Evolution of Australian Sports Policy*, bring the narrative up to date, and in a sophisticated analysis they dissect current Australian sports policy and, in an historical overview, also describes the methods of government involvement in sport since 1920. The book critically examines the policy shift and also identifies the political, economical and cultural context in which the policies were set. There are number of case studies that provide a strong theoretical foundation by discussing the underlying principles of policy formulation, and the rationale for the government intervention in national sport.⁵⁴ Thus, despite the sporting successes of elite Australian athletes since 1976, a number of studies have taken a critical stance in terms of explaining the sometimes-problematic relationship between sport and politics.

In terms of describing and analysing specific government policies on sport, there are also a variety of studies that take a comparative approach to the task. Indeed, the field of comparative sports studies is something of a growth area, with an international society devoted to the discipline, regular conferences held throughout the world, and an increasing number of publications in the area.⁵⁵ In an anthology by Laurence

⁵² R. S. Baka, ‘Australian Government Involvement in Sport: A Delayed, Eclectic Approach’, in G. Redmond (ed.), *Sport and Politics*, Human Kinetics, Illinois, 1984, pp. 27-32.

⁵³ J. A. Daly, *Quest for Excellence: The Australian Institute of Sport*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1991. For other views of Australian elite sport, from ‘the inside’, as it were, see J. Bloomfield, *Australia’s Sporting Success: The Inside Story*, UNSW Press, Sydney, 2003, and J. Ferguson, *More Than Sunshine and Vegemite: Success the Australian Way*, Halstead Press, Sydney, 2007.

⁵⁴ B. Stewart et al., *Australian Sport: Better by Design? The Evolution of Australian Sport Policy*, Routledge, London, 2004.

⁵⁵ For an overview of activities in this field, see R. Baka, ‘The International Society for Comparative Physical Education and Sport’, *Bulletin of Sport and Culture*, no. 28, September 2007, pp. 8-9. See

Chalip, Arthur Johnson and Lisa Stachura, sports policies of different countries, including Australia, are compiled and discussed, and although the book does not include material from Pakistan this is a valuable text for comparative purposes.⁵⁶

Given Australia's reputation as a sporting nation, it is not unusual for Australia to feature in comparative studies of sport, and the most recent example of this occurs in the work of Mick Green, where he provides a highly effective three way comparison of sport policies in three Commonwealth nations, namely Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom.⁵⁷ In a similar way, Barrie Houlihan takes a systematic look at government, sport and policy development by employing a case study approach, and although Pakistan is not included as a case study, Houlihan does offer a worthwhile analysis of the situation in Australia and some other Commonwealth nations.⁵⁸ More importantly, perhaps, he introduces his work with a chapter devoted to discussion of the value of comparative studies. As Houlihan explains (relying on Rose), policy makers themselves are attracted to comparative analysis because there is the prospect that their government may 'borrow policies or institutions from another country for use in resolving domestic problems'.⁵⁹ Moreover, Houlihan acknowledges that these comparative works may also help avoid 'culture bound generalisations'.⁶⁰

also, N. A. Bergsgard, B. Houlihan, P. Mangset, S. I. Nodland and H. Rommetvedt, *Sport Policy: A Comparative Analysis of Stability and Change*, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 2007, p. vii, for a short overview of the field, by way of introduction to their book.

⁵⁶ L. Chalip, A. Johnson, and L. Stachura (eds), *National Sports Policies: An International Handbook*, Greenwood Press, London, 1996. In a similar vein, see the section on comparative sports studies in R. C. Wilcox (ed.), *Sport in the Global Village*, Fitness Information Technology, Morgantown, 1994.

⁵⁷ M. Green, 'Olympic Glory or Grassroots Development? Sport Policy Priorities in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, 1960-2006', *International Journal of the History of Sport*, vol. 24, no. 7, July 2007, pp. 921-952. See also M. Green and B. Houlihan, *Elite Sport Development: Policy Learning and Political Priorities*, Routledge, London, 2005, where similar comparisons are made.

⁵⁸ B. Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics: A Comparative Analysis*, Routledge, London, 1997.

⁵⁹ Rose in Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 7.

⁶⁰ Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 7. Also useful in this respect is P. Bramham, P., 'Sports Policy', in K. Hylton, P. Bramham, D. Jackson, and M. Nesti (eds), *Sports Development: Policy, Process and Practice*, Routledge, London, 2001, pp. 19-36, and P. Bramham, K. Hylton, D. Jackson

Theories surrounding comparative studies of sport and physical education are also discussed by Roland Renson, who suggests that the major problem in all cross-national research is how to adequately conceptualise and operationalise all the variables involved. Such variables can relate not only to national sport structures and infrastructures, but also to specific religious and political considerations, as well as ethnic and demographic aspects of the population.⁶¹ In this vein, as noted above, it is William Morgan who points out that the reason why non-dominant nations compete in international competitions is that they wish to be recognised by the rest of the world as a legitimate sporting nation. Therefore, in order to achieve this recognition, they have to copy the prevailing sporting systems that suit western nations. But usually after a long struggle by which time they might achieve a little success, their identity and culture has been diminished.⁶² This is perhaps best exemplified by nations such as India and Pakistan. Both countries had a strong local tradition of sports such as kabaddi and polo. But when they started to copy or emulate the practices of western style sports like cricket, hockey and squash, they achieved some success but seemed to effectively lose or de-emphasise some of their own cultural activities and sports along the way. The pity is that non-western nations are not regularly or systematically utilised in comparative studies of sport policies, and many investigations, such as the recent book by Bergsgard *et al.*, which focuses on Canada, England, Germany and

and M. Nesti, M., 'Introduction', in K. Hylton, P. Bramham, D. Jackson, and M. Nesti (eds), *Sports Development: Policy, Process and Practice*, Routledge, London, 2001, pp. 1-6.

⁶¹ R. Renson, 'Sport Historiography in Europe: A Comparative Perspective and Heuristic Model', *Sport History Review*, vol. 29, no. 1, May 1998, pp. 30-43. For an early pioneering work in this vein, see, for example, D. N. Semotiuk, 'Theoretical and Methodological Considerations for Comparative and International Sport and Physical Education', in R. Howell, M. L. Howell, D. P. Toohey and D. M. Toohey (eds), *Methodology in Comparative Physical Education and Sport*, Stipes Publishing Company, Champaign, Illinois, 1979, pp. 41-59.

⁶² W. J. Morgan, 'Patriotic Sports and the Moral Making of Nations', *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport*, vol. xxvi, 1999, especially pp. 52-66. In a similar vein, see also K. Bhattacharya, 'Non-Western Traditions: Leisure in India', in C. Rojek, S. M. Shaw and A. J. Veal (eds), *A Handbook of Leisure Studies*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York, 2006, pp. 75-89.

Norway, tend to compare and contrast developments in economically developed countries.⁶³

Other single-study comparative works on sports systems have also been completed, and for the purpose of this project those which use Australia as a point of comparison are especially useful. Some of the most relevant of these include a chapter by Richard Baka, comparing Canada and Australia,⁶⁴ a thesis by Chun Gao, entitled 'Systems for the Development of Athletic Talent in Australia and China: A Comparative Analysis',⁶⁵ and a recent study by Klaus Gebel, entitled 'Physical Activity as a Medium for Health Promotion in Australia and Germany'.⁶⁶ One chapter from an anthology on the history of the Olympic Games is also relevant in the context of previously published works that make a comparison between Australia and Pakistan.⁶⁷ Apart from this aforementioned study, which involved the author and supervisors of this thesis, it should be strongly emphasised that no studies have ever been completed comparing the development of sport in Pakistan and Australia.

Finally, it should be acknowledged that due to a decided lack of directly pertinent secondary source material, primary sources are integral to examining the elite sport

⁶³ Bergsgard, Houlihan, Mangset, Nodland and Rommetvedt, *Sport Policy: A Comparative Analysis of Stability and Change*.

⁶⁴ Baka, 'Australian Government Involvement in Sport', pp. 27-32. For more specific work on western Canada, see R. S. Baka, 'A History of Provincial Government Involvement in Sport in Western Canada', Doctoral thesis, Department of Physical Education, Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, Edmonton, Alberta, 1978.

⁶⁵ C. Gao, 'Systems for the Development of Athletic Talent in Australia and China: A Comparative Analysis', Masters thesis, Department of Physical Education and Recreation, Victoria University of Technology, Melbourne, 1991.

⁶⁶ K. Gebel, 'Physical Activity as a Medium for Health Promotion in Australia and Germany', Minor Masters thesis, School of Human Movement, Recreation and Performance, Victoria University, Melbourne, 2001.

⁶⁷ See R. S. Baka, R. Hess and M. A. Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport in Australia and Pakistan: A Comparison and Analytical Overview of the Olympic Games, 1948-2004', in K. B. Wamsley, S. G. Martyn and R. K. Barney (eds), *Cultural Transitions Old and New: The Transitory Olympic Ethos*, International Centre for Olympic Studies, London, 2004, pp. 167-184.

programs in Pakistan, especially in areas such as government funding. Most sources of this nature are held with officials of different departments related to sports. They include budget allocations, development projects details, steps for the promotion of sports in Pakistan, the involvement of different agencies in sports activities, and so on. Some of the documents are also held in private collections and include personal diaries, magazines and correspondence. Given that much of the relevant material does not even exist in printed form, it was therefore necessary that a small number of interviews with prominent sports personalities and sports administrators supplemented the extant written material. In contrast, a large amount of both primary and secondary source material dealing with Australian sporting institutions (particularly the AIS) is available, including comprehensive annual reports, official government reviews (for example, Sport 2000 Task Force, *Shaping Up: A Review of Commonwealth Involvement in Sport and Recreation in Australia*,⁶⁸ and Australian Sports Commission, *Beyond 2000*,⁶⁹ newspaper files and media releases, thus somewhat negating the need to undertake comprehensive interviews with Australian informants.

It is obvious that there is a relatively diverse range of literature on sport in both Pakistan and Australia, although in the former case it is fair to say there is a lack of depth and quality. The range of material includes print sources such as newspapers and magazines, audio-visual material such as television and radio, and electronic multimedia such as the Internet, CD-ROMs and digital videodiscs. The introduction and establishment of the Internet, a new, converged form of media, has had a significant influence on the development of sport information. Almost all the sports-

⁶⁸ Sport 2000 Task Force, *Shaping Up: A Review of Commonwealth Involvement in Sport and Recreation in Australia: A Report to the Federal Government*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra, 1999.

⁶⁹ Australian Sports Commission (hereafter ASC in footnotes), *Beyond 2000*, Australian Sports Commission, Canberra, 1999.

related organisations have their own websites, and the peak bodies as far as this dissertation is concerned, namely the Australian Sports Commission, Australian Institute of Sports and Pakistan Sports Board, are no exception.⁷⁰ It is, however, not surprising that Australia is more advanced in this technology and there are many more sport-related websites in Australia than there are in Pakistan.⁷¹ In fact, many of Pakistan's websites are incomplete or inoperative. One notable example in this regard is the website of the Pakistan Cricket Board, which currently has no information about its organisational set up, the history of the game in Pakistan, and so on.⁷² In a similar vein, although relatively informative, the Pakistan Sports Board website does not yet feature the latest news or have a section devoted to press releases. In terms of the history of particular sports, some sites are useful, such as the website of international polo, and hockey in Pakistan.⁷³ Regarding education systems in Pakistan and Australia, which are discussed later in the thesis, both countries have official websites for their respective ministries of education. They contain the latest information on education policies and in the case of Pakistan it also has information on physical education.⁷⁴ More generally, there are also some useful websites regarding the organisation of mega sporting events, including sites devoted to the Asian Games, the

⁷⁰ ASC, www.ausport.gov.au, Australian Institute of Sports, www.ais.org.au, and PSB, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 30 January 2005.

⁷¹ Some of the better, and most popular, Australian sport websites include those of Cricket Australia, www.cricket.com.au, and the Australian Football League, www.afl.com.au, accessed on 2 January 2005.

⁷² Pakistan Cricket Board, www.pcboard.com.pk, accessed on 30 January 2005.

⁷³ See, Federation of International Polo, www.fippolo.com, and Pakistan Hockey Federation, www.phf.com.pk, accessed on 30 January 2005.

⁷⁴ See for example Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, Education Division, www.gov.pk/education-ministry, and Australian Government, Department of Education, Science and Training, www.dest.gov.au, accessed on 30 January 2005.

Commonwealth Games Federation, Australian University Sport, and the Olympic Council of Asia.⁷⁵

1.3 Methodology

In order to answer the proposed research questions and achieve the expected research aims, both primary and secondary sources are analysed in this thesis using a qualitative approach. Triangulation, a method used to verify, support or attest contradictions between sources, is the main methodological tool that is used.⁷⁶ Data sources include books, magazines, event programs, official documents and interviews. As there is an enormous disparity in the amount of material available in the two countries under consideration, as noted above, interviews were only necessary in the case of Pakistan, where the information was less accessible and often not in published form.

In this context, it is important to note the caveats on comparative research and methods of triangulation that are discussed by Houlihan. In his view:

Despite the attractiveness and potential value of a comparative approach there are a number of significant theoretical and methodological problems that need to be overcome, or at least taken account of, before a credible strategy for the comparison of sport and recreation policy can be developed.⁷⁷

⁷⁵ See Asian Games 2006, www.doha-2006.com, Commonwealth Games Federation, www.thecgf.com, Australian University Sports, www.unisport.com.au, and Olympic Council of Asia, www.ocasia.org, accessed on 30 January 2005.

⁷⁶ For a concise explanation of this research technique in relation to studies of sport, see H. Haag, 'Triangulation: A Strategy for Upgrading Comparative Research Methodology in Sport Science', in R. C. Wilcox (ed.), *Sport in the Global Village*, Fitness Information Technology, Morgantown, 1994, pp. 501-507.

⁷⁷ Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 3.

Some of the problems identified by Houlihan are addressed immediately below (and elsewhere in the thesis).

In terms of oral data collected, a range of semi-structured interviews was conducted. A focused style of interviewing was appropriate for this study as it allowed a variety of questions to be asked within the topic rather than being restricted to written questionnaire-style questions where individuals may not be able to supply the required background information for in-depth examination.⁷⁸ There was also a range of age groups involved, with an emphasis on the older population, who were able to draw on their career or life experiences. This emphasis was due to a lack of previous research and the danger of 'losing' information that the older interviewees might be able to provide. In all, thirteen interviews of different duration were arranged. The participants were contacted through mail, telephone and in some cases personally. The interviewees included a range of key personnel, namely one former and head of the PSB, three long serving members/officers of the PSB, a member of the Pakistan Olympic Association (POA), the former Associate Secretary of the Pakistan Amateur Athletic Federation (PAAF), three former national male and female elite athletes, two female sports administrators/organisers and two sports journalists. The above-mentioned interviews, therefore, represented the Pakistan government, national sports federations, administrators and the media. There were obviously some limitations to the interviews, which helps explain the small sample size. The limitations included difficulties with location, position, access and the current occupations of the

⁷⁸ V. Minichiello *et al.*, *In-Depth Interviewing: Researching People*, Longman, South Melbourne, 1988.

interviewees. The interviews were followed by correct ethical procedures as outlined by University policy and documented in Appendices 1 and 2.⁷⁹

In respect to data analysis, secondary sources (especially academic writing related to gender, politics and sport), were used to triangulate the primary sources. In this context it should be noted that secondary sources constituted the bulk of information that was analysed. The compilation and analysis of this un-coded data helped to discover and supplement the missing links in the literature, and to the formation of an historical narrative and the creation of an understanding of the history and development of elite sport programs in Pakistan. The interviews were a useful tool in generating some data to work with, as they tapped into previously unrecorded memories of people involved in different aspects of elite sport in Pakistan. In addition, the interviews assisted in providing details of specific events, their dates of occurrence and other missing links. Information provided by the participants may have a reduced validity due to personal bias and opinion, memory lapses and errors, but despite these possible deficiencies, the information will hopefully give direction to future researchers, perhaps clarifying discrepancies and revealing many intricacies of elite sport programs in both countries. Validation occurred through triangulation, which is, as noted above, a research technique that complements and compares information obtained from all sources.

The final descriptive narrative thus adds to the body of knowledge on elite sport programs in Pakistan, and the project has also provided research that can be used for comparative analysis in future studies. In addition, this research has aided in the

⁷⁹ Appendix 1 is Information to Participants. Appendix 2 is Certification by Participants.

development of archives for elite sport programs in Pakistan and in itself will be a valuable educational and research document for those interested in the sports system of Pakistan and Australia.

It should be noted, however, that there were some limitations to the overall study, as there has been little research into this area of comparative study and much of the information is held in private collections and/or the private memory of some Pakistanis. Moreover, it needs to be recognised that while interviews were sought and sometimes undertaken with long-serving officers of the PSB with the expectation that they would tell about the influence of political change on the Board's activities, few were ready to reveal the whole truth. In a similar vein, efforts to discover the working relationship of the Pakistan Sports Board and the Pakistan Olympic Association were difficult, as sometimes informants were conscious that their statements might put them in an adverse situation with colleagues or other government officials. It should also be noted that some interviews were conducted in a native language (Urdu) and then those interviews were first written in Urdu and then translated into English and transcribed. A planned interview with the current Director General of the Pakistan Sports Board did not occur due to his busy timetable. Also, the headquarters of the POA is in Lahore and the representative of the Pakistan Olympic Association was, at the time when interviews were conducted, busy in a sports medicine course in Karachi, therefore he had to be interviewed by telephone. For a similar reason, and in the same way, telephone interviews were conducted with a prominent sports journalist from the daily press in Pakistan, and one female sports organiser.

1.4 Conclusions

Pakistan is a sport loving country and takes immense pride in the achievements of its athletes. Contrary to popular sentiment, the nation's elite athletes have either fallen short of, or failed, public expectations, which has often led to anger, criticism and recriminations. In the absence of an objective and scientific analysis of sports management techniques, no effective solution can be suggested for the improvement of sports in Pakistan. The proposed project therefore has a number of benefits.

First and foremost, this project will help combat the deficiency in scholarly literature concerning the development and management of elite sport programs in Pakistan. Given that the context for the study is a comparison of elite sport in Australia and Pakistan, it is clear that the thesis will also have the potential to provide important insights into the historical, social, cultural, economic and political dimensions of sporting policies and practices in Pakistan and Australia.

This project therefore has the capability to be significant for a number of different reasons. At one level, the information in the thesis could be of popular interest to a wide range of people, media, athletes and officials who may wish to know something about the historical development and current standing of Pakistan and Australian sports. Secondly the Pakistan government may be able to use this research not only to appraise and evaluate current policy but to initiate a collection or index of historical material which should ultimately create incentives to produce local, club and even national histories. Finally, the thesis will be able to raise the public profile of sport and help to nurture a protective environment, which will minimise the risk of losing important information or archives for future generations. It is not unrealistic to

believe that the thesis will be a pioneering work on the subject and may attract the interest and initiative of the policy planners, sports managers and promoters in Pakistan to pause, ponder and then promote sport by way of the informed historical perspective that this thesis intends to provide.

By way of explaining the structure and providing a brief overview of the remainder of the thesis, the following format will apply. The second chapter of the thesis constitutes an overview of Australian history, with a particular emphasis on sporting developments, especially prior to World War II. Chapter Three is something of a mirror, as it comprises an historical overview of Pakistan in a similar format. The fourth chapter of the thesis discusses government involvement in the delivery of Australian sport, with an emphasis on more recent developments, while the fifth chapter does the same for Pakistan. The final chapter is devoted to comparisons, conclusions and recommendations, and a number of relevant appendices are also attached.

Chapter Two

An Overview of Historical and Political Developments in Australia

2.1 Introduction

In order to provide some appropriate general background for the thesis, this chapter will outline the broad development of sporting culture in Australia. Also discussed, albeit briefly, will be a number of specific themes and issues, notably Australia's involvement at the Olympic and Commonwealth Games, and the role of educational institutions and the media as they relate to the development of sport. The major focus will be on developments prior to World War II, as the post-war decades, particularly in the context of the government delivery of sport, are given much fuller treatment in Chapter Five. As noted in the literature review of the previous chapter, more comprehensive overviews of Australian sport have been attempted by other writers, but the intention here is to highlight particular aspects of Australian sporting culture that will bear comparison with Pakistan. To this end, similar themes and issues will be addressed in the next chapter on Pakistan's sports history, forming the basis for comparisons to be undertaken in later chapters of the thesis.

2.2 Aboriginal Culture and Society

A vast island continent, Australia has been inhabited by Aborigines for at least 40,000 years. As Adair and Vamplew note, there were disputes over territory between various tribes, and therefore, in their view, over this period of habitation it was vital for Aboriginal men to be strong and fit in order for them to participate in frequent

inter-tribal battles.⁸⁰ In order to acquire the necessary physical fitness and strength, a number of physical pursuits were engaged in, and there is evidence of participation in activities such as hunting, tree climbing, swimming and throwing. Indeed, according to Howell and Howell, many of these activities were more than just informal pursuits, and some were apparently governed by certain rules and traditions.⁸¹

In Cashman's summary of this period, he claims that on the eve of inter-tribal gatherings, physical contests and competitions were frequently arranged in activities such as wrestling, spear throwing, sham fighting, primitive forms of football (involving a possum-skin ball), disc spinning and stick games. Moreover, he points out that Aborigines who were living near coastal areas were also experts in fishing and canoeing. As Cashman explains, although there were frequent contests and competitions, the activities cannot really be considered as organised sports.⁸² Indeed, Cashman cites Michael Salter's view that Aboriginal 'sports' were primarily a pursuit of pleasure and enjoyment.⁸³

Thus, although physical survival was the principal feature of Aboriginal society, cultural customs and religious rites were also an essential part of lifestyle, and the pastimes and the games of the Aborigines reflected their main societal concerns. Both boys and girls were instructed in the skill of climbing trees, for example, while both the young and the old refined their throwing skills in informal target and distance

⁸⁰ D. Adair and W. Vamplew, *Sport in Australian History*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1997, p. 1.

⁸¹ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, pp. 6-7.

⁸² Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 16. For a fuller exposition and description of 'marngrook', an Aboriginal kicking game, and a debunking of the myth that it was somehow connected to the evolution of Australian Rules football, see G. de Moore, 'Tom Wills, Marngrook and the Evolution of Australian Football', in R. Hess, M. Nicholson and B. Stewart (eds), *Football Fever: Crossing Boundaries*, Maribyrnong Press, Hawthorn, 2005, pp. 5-15.

⁸³ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 16.

competitions, where one of the most common games was ‘spearing the disc’.⁸⁴ In essence, indigenous physical activities, unlike the games that Anglo-Saxon settlers imported during the late eighteenth century, were not separate from other ceremonies, rituals, or pursuits. Instead, they were an integral part of daily life, played for enjoyment and governed by relatively few rules.⁸⁵

With the arrival of Europeans, however, the lifestyle of Aborigines suffered adverse and serious setbacks. Thousands of Aborigines were either killed in the clashes against settlers, or died due to small pox or other diseases brought by Europeans to the Australian continent. The Aborigines also suffered as they were driven away from their natural habitat and hunting areas.⁸⁶ As Cashman notes, and as is re-iterated below, there was also very little continuity between Aboriginal games and the imported games of European origin.⁸⁷

2.3 Early European Settlement

After the ‘discovery’ of Australia by Captain James Cook in April 1770, it was, in hindsight, perhaps inevitable that this isolated, but potentially strategically important, continent would become the solution to some of Britain’s political and domestic problems. As the noted historian Manning Clark explains, at this time prisons in England were over-crowded and the British Government were compelled to find a solution for the problem. Eventually, in 1784, Lord Sydney, on behalf of the British

⁸⁴ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, pp. 6-7.

⁸⁵ R. Hess and M. Nicholson, ‘Australia’, in D. Levinson and K. Christensen (eds), *Berkshire Encyclopedia of World Sport*, vol. 1, Berkshire Publishing Group, Great Barrington, Massachusetts, 2005, p. 123. For a fuller treatment of indigenous sport, see the discussion in Tatz, *Obstacle Race*.

⁸⁶ Adair, and Vamplew, *Sport in Australian History*, p. 64.

⁸⁷ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 17.

government, announced that Australia would be colonised as a penal settlement.⁸⁸ However, it should be noted that some historians do contend that colonising Australia as a dumping ground for prisoners was not the sole purpose of colonisation, but rather the Australian continent had a special strategic importance whereby the British government could oversee their interests in the Indian subcontinent, as well as the broader Pacific region.⁸⁹

In order to implement the plans of the British government, Arthur Phillip left Britain for Australian shores on 13 May 1787, leading a fleet of eleven ships with 1,373 people on board, including 732 convicts, food stocks and supplies. Eventually the fleet anchored at Port Jackson on 26 January 1788, the day Australia officially became a colony of Great Britain.⁹⁰ Governor Phillip encountered innumerable problems in developing the colony, not the least of which were to do with often unskilled and inept convict labour. It was not long before the administration had to resort to strict punishments, including flogging, in order to regulate convict labour and impose necessary discipline.⁹¹ The problems of Phillip were also aggravated due to resistance at the hands of the indigenous population, which only really subsided when, as noted above, the Aborigines contracted European diseases such as small pox and measles.⁹² However, it is acknowledged by historians such as A. G. L. Shaw that the resistance from the local population was not as fierce as experienced in other colonial

⁸⁸ M. Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, William Heinemann, London, 1964, p. 7.

⁸⁹ F. G. Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political and Social History*, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Sydney, 1992, p. 33.

⁹⁰ M. Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, Melbourne University Press, Carlton, 1997, p. 19.

⁹¹ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 42. Ward notes that the convicts were also averse to discipline and hard work. R. Ward, *Australia: A Short History*, Ure Smith, Sydney, 1975, p. 25.

⁹² Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 44.

outposts, such as New Zealand and the Indian subcontinent.⁹³ Even so, in general, there was mutual mistrust between the colonised and the British colonial powers.⁹⁴

Phillip's departure from the colony in 1792, due to illness, was followed by a period of instability under a succession of short-term governors. This was a period characterised by conflict between powerful military personnel and government officials.⁹⁵ Eventually, Lachlan Macquarie was appointed Governor in Chief in 1809, however his own Regiment also accompanied him, which replaced the troublesome New South Wales Corps, who had neglected their military duties, were profiteering through the sale of rum, and destabilising other authorities.⁹⁶ Macquarie's tenure, between 1809 and 1821, was marked largely by stability and progress, with the building of new barracks, hospitals, roads and bridges.⁹⁷ He also worked for the welfare of the Aborigines and tried to 'civilise' them.⁹⁸ By 1817 the first New South Wales bank was established, and exports, especially wool, to Great Britain provided an economic boost to the colony.⁹⁹ Under Macquarie's successor, governor Brisbane, economic power also shifted from officers to settlers and traders, who assumed the role of political and social leadership.¹⁰⁰ As a result, between 1831 and 1850 a large number of people migrated to Australia under the government and bounty scheme.¹⁰¹

It is not the purpose of this chapter to outline the entire political and economic history of Australia, but the previous sections are a sufficient base from which to set the

⁹³ A. G. L. Shaw, *The Story of Australia*, Faber and Faber, London, 1967, p. 17.

⁹⁴ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political and Social History*, p. 12.

⁹⁵ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 18.

⁹⁶ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political*, p. 61. See also Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 20.

⁹⁷ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 32.

⁹⁸ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, pp. 37-38.

⁹⁹ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 45.

¹⁰⁰ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 53.

¹⁰¹ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 76.

background for a discussion of early colonial sporting practices, based as they were on the initial patronage of the military and the colonial administration. Not every region of Australia can be covered in detail, and indeed no general comparative history of Australian sport has been published, but the generalisations made are applicable to most major towns and cities.¹⁰²

2.4 Sport in the Early Colonial Period

By the time of white settlement in Australia, sport was starting to become a prominent aspect of the lives of many people in Great Britain. In Australia, sports that were closely associated with the activities of gambling and drinking quickly took hold, including 'disorderly' activities such as bare-knuckle boxing, wrestling and cock-fighting.¹⁰³ The sport of horse racing was well patronised by the military, with the first formal race meeting taking place in 1810.¹⁰⁴ Soldiers also took part in other recreational pursuits that required little or no equipment in the harsh and very restrictive environment of a penal colony. Indeed, as elsewhere in the Empire, the British military were obliged to engage in sporting activities as part of their tours of duty and they were often provided with elementary sports equipment, basic facilities and a crude form of infrastructure. Military governors allotted land for free or at a nominal charge, for the development of such facilities. As noted above, free settlers came to Australia in good number from the 1820s and organised sport was already in

¹⁰² As noted in Chapter One, the best general overview of Australian sport is Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*. Differences between sport in Melbourne and Sydney are covered in R. Cashman and T. Hickie, 'The Divergent Sporting Cultures of Sydney and Melbourne', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 7, no. 1, November 1990, pp. 26-46. Sport in early colonial South Australia is covered in J. A. Daly, *Elysian Fields. Sport, Class and Community in Colonial South Australia, 1836-1890*, J. A. Daly, Adelaide, 1982. For the colonial period in particular, see T. C. Arnold, 'Sports in Colonial Australia, 1788-1850', Doctoral thesis, Department of Human Movement Studies, University of Queensland, 1979.

¹⁰³ See Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 31, and B. Stoddart, *Saturday Afternoon Fever: Sport in the Australian Culture*, Angus & Robertson, North Ryde, 1986, p. 16.

¹⁰⁴ R. Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination: Australian Sport in the Federation Decades*, Walla Walla Press, Sydney, 2000, p. 35.

existence in Australia at this time.¹⁰⁵ The convict population was also overwhelming comprised of Anglo-Saxons, and although their free-time was limited, they were under the control of British troops, who patronised and encouraged participation in familiar sports such as cricket, boxing and horse racing.¹⁰⁶ As Matthew Nicholson and Rob Hess explain, when sport was introduced more formally into convict ranks as both a recreational pastime and character-building exercise, 'it was adopted with fervour by a seemingly opportunity-starved community'.¹⁰⁷

The public hotel also played an important role in the development of this sporting culture, and also served to strengthen the links between masculinity and sport in a population where men outnumbered women by a ratio of three to one.¹⁰⁸ In fact, a remarkably wide range of sports, including cricket, foot-races, billiards, bowling, quoits, skittles, pigeon-shooting, boxing, wrestling and trotting, all took place at or within close proximity of 'pubs' during the first half of the nineteenth century.¹⁰⁹ In essence the sporting values and preferences of European settlers moulded the cultural practices of sport in Australia, fuelling a cult of athleticism throughout the antipodes.¹¹⁰

The pursuit of sport was widely encouraged throughout the early part of the nineteenth century in Australia, with colonial values supporting the notion that sport contributed to a better society. According to colonial administrators, sport developed

¹⁰⁵ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 21.

¹⁰⁶ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, pp. 17-19.

¹⁰⁷ M. Nicholson and R. Hess, 'Australia's Sporting Culture: Riding on the Back of its Footballers', in B. Stewart (ed.), *The Games are not the Same: The Political Economy of Football in Australia*, Melbourne University Press, Carlton, 2007, p. 25.

¹⁰⁸ See Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p.17, who notes that although this initial imbalance was reduced after the 1820s, men outnumbered women throughout the nineteenth century.

¹⁰⁹ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 23.

¹¹⁰ Hess and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 123.

character and as an activity it came to be seen as socially productive.¹¹¹ By contrast, gaming and betting became important pastimes during the early colonial period, particularly among ex-convicts.¹¹² Public house gaming practices were also popular, while other forms of betting evolved with the establishment of colonial sport. Along with the development of gaming, betting, and drinking habits, was a sometimes lively comradeship that helped to bond the men of the colonies together, especially when the inhabitants participated in sporting pursuits against British-bred opposition, something that occurred with more regular frequency in the second half of the nineteenth century.¹¹³

2.5 Impact of Gold and Developments in the Late Colonial Period

Gold was discovered in Australia in 1851 and by the end of year the news had spread around the entire world. People from the British Isles, the United States, Germany, and especially China, began to flood into the country in large numbers.¹¹⁴ As attested to by a number of authors, the discovery of gold had a great effect on daily life in Australia.¹¹⁵ The cities virtually became deserted as almost everybody was caught up in the lust for wealth. In short, the influx of migrants from different corners of the world not only doubled the population of Australia within the decade, but made the nation a much more multicultural society, although a strong Anglo-Saxon ethos still prevailed.¹¹⁶

¹¹¹ Stoddart, *Saturday Afternoon Fever*, pp. 22-23.

¹¹² See Adair and Vamplew, *Sport in Australian History*.

¹¹³ Nicholson and Hess, 'Australia's Sporting Culture', p. 25.

¹¹⁴ Ward, *Australia: A Short History*, p. 69.

¹¹⁵ See for example, Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 30, where he asserts that the discovery of gold 'had a dramatic effect on both Australian society and culture and the economy'.

¹¹⁶ Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 30.

In Victoria especially, according to Clark, the government used the discovery of gold as a spur to develop its communication system, and set about improving road conditions, laying railway lines and building bridges. Some of the private sector also came forward, when a company named 'Cobb and Company' started a coach service between Melbourne and the gold fields. The same company also worked for the postal services of the colonial government.¹¹⁷ The introduction of the steam engine made journeys easier between coastal cities, and the Victorian government introduced a railway line between Melbourne and the Ballarat and Bendigo gold fields.¹¹⁸ The electric telegraph was introduced in 1862, and the major cities of the colonies were interlinked with it. As discussed later, these new technologies not only affected Australian life generally, but in many cases they had a direct impact on sport and leisure, with the electric light bulb, for example, making it possible for different sports to be played at night.¹¹⁹ Thus the economic development and social status of sport was bolstered by the gold rushes of the 1850s. Successful miners, with their newfound wealth, created substantial demand for goods and services. With the influx of capital came substantial social infrastructure development, which had a generative effect on the already firm social institution of sport. Following a burst in population, an influx of wealth, and cities booming in size, a critical mass for sporting organisations was thereby created.

Some of the earliest sport clubs centred on bathing, cricket, football, horse racing, lawn bowls and rowing, and in many cases they attracted a strong supporter base. While it is not within the purpose and scope of this thesis to outline the history of every major sport in detail, it is important to note the salient features of the

¹¹⁷ Ward, *Australia: A Short History*, p. 75.

¹¹⁸ Clark, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 129.

¹¹⁹ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 33.

development of a selected range of sports. Thus, as Cashman notes, it is worthwhile to recognise that many of the sports mentioned above had their organisational and structural genesis in ‘the prosperity and new society created during Victoria’s golden decade’.¹²⁰ For example, Australian Rules football was invented in 1858, when a group of Melbourne cricketers developed a football game they could play to keep fit in winter. By 1877 a district league (the Victorian Football Association) was formed and soon attracted single game attendances of up to 20,000, with the game and its culture deeply embedded in most of the southern states of Australia. It should be noted that the literature on the history of this code, one of Australia’s few ‘home-grown’ sports, is very extensive, and although this sport is very much an important and unique part of Australia’s sporting culture, a narrative overview is not provided and its history and development is not dealt with in any great detail. As an aside, though, it should be acknowledged that the code has received very little direct federal government support throughout its 150 years of existence.¹²¹ Moreover, except for brief mentions below, the other codes are also not extensively discussed in this thesis, although as Cashman explains, unlike other countries:

One of the intriguing features of Australian sport is that, by the first decade of the twentieth century, there were four competing football codes: Australian Rules football, the two rugby codes and soccer.¹²²

The sport of horse racing is also another useful example in terms of Melbourne’s growing pre-eminence as a sporting hub. In 1859 a crowd of almost 60,000 was

¹²⁰ Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 32.

¹²¹ For more detailed information on the code and its history, see T. Hogan (ed.), *Reading the Game: An Annotated Guide to the Literature and Films of Australian Rules Football*, Australian Society for Sports History, Melbourne, 2005, and R. Hess and B. Stewart (eds), *More Than a Game: An Unauthorised History of Australian Rules Football*, Melbourne University Press, Carlton, 1998. For discussion of how the early development of the code reflected Melbourne’s ‘brash’ gold rush culture, see especially Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, pp. 42-51.

¹²² Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 51.

reported at Flemington Racecourse in Melbourne, which by the 1880s was hosting crowds of more than 100,000 for the running of the Melbourne Cup, a handicap event. Horse racing in Melbourne was a direct beneficiary of the gold rushes, with a strong increase in the stakes offered and the size of crowds during the 1850s. By 1866, a half day holiday for the event confirmed its status, as well as the city of Melbourne's new found importance.¹²³ The significance of the Cup is also reflected in the fact that Australia had a remarkably high rate of horse ownership. Indeed, Cashman claims that 'between 1860 and 1900 the increase in the number of horses in Australia was greater than the growth in the human population'.¹²⁴

Throughout the latter half of the nineteenth century local sport contests were transformed into regional or inter-colonial competitions. This created the need for greater sport administration and bureaucratisation, with the result that a number of umbrella organisations were formed in order to formalise and regulate sport. For example, the New South Wales Cricket Association was formed in 1858, the New South Wales Rugby Union in 1874, and the Queensland Rugby Union in 1879. Apart from inter-colonial contests, a further impetus was the arrival of international touring teams and athletes, and the fact that some Australians claimed world titles in other countries, some examples of which are discussed below.¹²⁵

The sport of cricket has a long history in Australia, but unlike Australian Rules football, a locally invented game, and the activity of horse racing, it has a particularly strong international dimension. According to Cashman, the first 'fully recorded match' took place in Sydney on 7 May 1832, thanks principally to the support of the

¹²³ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 42, and Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 32.

¹²⁴ Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 34.

¹²⁵ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 41.

military.¹²⁶ He also notes that the game expanded in the 1860s when a number of English teams toured Australia. Importantly, these first English teams were made up of professional cricketers, and Cashman believes ‘it was the professionals rather than amateurs who did most to promote the game’.¹²⁷ In 1861, a catering firm in Melbourne sponsored the first cricket team from England to play matches in Australia, although as a measure of local inferiority all games were played ‘at odds’ with home teams able to have more batsmen and fieldsmen than the opposition. Just over a decade later, the first official cricket Test match between Australia and England was played in 1877 at the Melbourne Cricket Ground, where the home side won by 45 runs. That victory was considered a significant turning point in the history of Australia sport, and resulted in a chain reaction of international victories for the home side, eventually leading to defeat of the English on their home soil in 1888.¹²⁸

The symbolic role of cricket in Australian nationhood is also recognised by Cashman (and others), perhaps most notably by the fact that the very first Australian sporting team to tour internationally was a cricket side made up of Aboriginal players.¹²⁹ Their 1868 tour has been explored in detail, as has the strong rivalry in Test cricket between Australia and England.¹³⁰ However, while the sport of cricket is a shared passion in Australia and Pakistan, and these two nations regularly compete against each other on the international stage, with their first match against each other taking place in 1956-

¹²⁶ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 20.

¹²⁷ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 48.

¹²⁸ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 42.

¹²⁹ Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, pp. 133-135.

¹³⁰ For the 1868 tour, see J. Mulvaney and R. Harcourt, *Cricket Walkabout: The Australian Aboriginal Cricketers on Tour*, Macmillan, London, 1988. For the rivalry with England, see various entries in R. Cashman *et al.* (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Cricket*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1996.

57, it is not the intention of the thesis to focus on this activity as a basis for comparison.¹³¹

Another sport in which international success was achieved was in the area of aquatics. As Rachel Winterton has noted, ‘the beach has traditionally loomed large in both the consciousness and iconography of the nation’.¹³² Indeed, according to Douglas Booth, ‘no other country is so beach-bound’.¹³³ It is not surprising, then, that notable successes have been achieved in rivers and in pools, with medals won in swimming events at the Olympic Games (as mentioned below), far outnumbering all other sports. Cashman also points out that Australia produced a succession of world champions (both male and female) in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and these athletes helped to pioneer a revolution in swimming technique with the introduction of a stroke that came to be called the ‘Australian crawl’.¹³⁴

Given these various achievements (described above), it was perhaps not surprising, according to Stoddart, that in the late nineteenth century sport also developed as a ‘social metaphor for national development’, with sporting accomplishments synonymous with social improvement.¹³⁵ This attitude was crucial in the eventual disposition of Australian attitudes

¹³¹ For information on the cricketing relationship between Australia and Pakistan, see M. Coward, *Cricket Beyond the Bazaar; Australian on the Indian Subcontinent*, Allen & Unwin, Sydney, 1990, and Cashman *et al.* (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Cricket*.

¹³² R. Winterton, ‘The Kieran Legacy: The Development of Competitive Swimming in Melbourne, 1900-1908’, in R. Hess (ed.), *Making Histories, Making Memories: The Construction of Australian Sporting Identities*, Australian Society for Sports History, Melbourne, 2006, p. 23.

¹³³ D. Booth, *Australian Beach Cultures: The History of Sun, Sand and Surf*, Frank Cass, London, 2001, p. 3.

¹³⁴ Cashman, *Sport in the National Imagination*, p. 175. While a mild climate and the attractiveness of the beach have served the development of aquatics in Australia, the same is partially true for Pakistan, where, as mentioned earlier in Chapter One, a number of provinces are well irrigated by the Indus river and its tributaries. In this context, almost every person living near these waterways has learnt to swim as part of their daily routine, so this area of sporting activity is one of similarity in terms of general comparisons that are made later in the thesis.

¹³⁵ Stoddart, *Saturday Afternoon Fever*, p. 27.

towards sport.¹³⁶ Perhaps the most influential catalyst of this social metaphor lay in private school education, where British traditions of fair play, amateurism, and character building through sport were strictly upheld. Rowing, cricket, football and rugby were especially cultivated as ‘character building sports’.¹³⁷ In addition, in all schools, physical education became compulsory, which stimulated many schools to measure their success on the field rather than in the classroom. On the other hand, females were explicitly discouraged from participation in any type of vigorous activity that would diminish their femininity, and were relegated to spectator and supporter roles.¹³⁸

In terms of industrial relations, it is worth noting that the size of the working class increased in the long boom that followed the gold rush, largely due to the creation of new jobs in different fields. Ernest Scott has noted that it was this sector of the labour force that ultimately led to the formation of the Labor party in the early 1890s. Indeed, it was the great maritime strike in 1890 that proved to be the catalyst for subsequent industrial actions and the birth of Australia’s oldest political party (as discussed further below).¹³⁹ In this heightened political atmosphere, where all six colonies were forced to consider their economic and political similarities and differences, some politicians began to think about the need for unity among colonies. The idea of federation thus began to take shape.

¹³⁶ Although in the light of such very broad generalisations it should be recognised that there were some significant class and gender differences in the sports and games played in the various colonies of Australia during the nineteenth century. Daly, for example, is masterful in his discussion of how South Australia was both similar and different to the other colonies in this respect. See Daly, *Elysian Fields*.

¹³⁷ Stewart, ‘Athleticism Revisited’, pp. 40-45.

¹³⁸ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 61, and Stoddart, *Saturday Afternoon Fever*, p. 19. For more detail on women’s involvement in Australian sport, see Stell, *Half the Race*.

¹³⁹ E. Scott, *A Short History of Australia*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1947, p. 284.

2.6 The Federation Period

At the turn of the century the Australian population numbered 3.7 million people, however the nation was still divided into separate and distinct colonies.¹⁴⁰ In 1897, after some years of public discussion, a federal convention with representatives from all the colonies started work on a draft constitution. Following a referendum, both houses of the British parliament passed the Commonwealth of Australia Act, and ultimately, on 17 September 1900, Queen Victoria issued a proclamation signifying that the Commonwealth of Australia would come into being on 1 January 1901.¹⁴¹ The Duke of York opened the parliament in Melbourne on 9 May 1901 and Edmond Barton became the first Prime Minister of Australia.¹⁴²

Clarke has summarised the rapid growth of Australia around this period and noted that economic development gathered pace from 1901 to 1916. Industry grew rapidly due to the easy availability of jobs in factories, and the rural sector continued to prosper. In essence, this was a period of political and economic stability.¹⁴³ In terms of physical activity and recreation, Australian sporting culture during the early part of the twentieth century became increasingly formalised, as on-field rules and off-field management became increasingly standardised, consolidating the foundation for a local club system of sport participation that is still a hallmark of the Australian sport today. Indeed, Booth and Tatz have argued that 'for the first half of the twentieth century, Australia remained a comfortable sporting dominion'.¹⁴⁴ At this time, Australians and their sportspeople looked towards their British ancestry for their identity, as well as competition, and it was only the development of mass

¹⁴⁰ P. Kelly, *100 Years: The Australian Story*, Allen & Unwin, St Leonards, 2001, p. 5.

¹⁴¹ Kelly, *100 Years: The Australian Story*, p. 5 and Scott, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 328.

¹⁴² Scott, *A Short History of Australia*, p. 328.

¹⁴³ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political*, pp. 192-193.

¹⁴⁴ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 109.

communication technologies and an increasing awareness of the economic value of sport that later began to alter the orientation of Australian sport.

With the advent of the federation of six Australian states in 1901, national organisations in a range of sports gradually developed despite the tyranny of distance. Most sporting bodies were club-based, and by 1910 there were national governing bodies for sports such as Australian Rules football, cricket, cycling, golf, lawn bowls, and rifle shooting.¹⁴⁵ Australia was also increasing prominent on the world's sporting stage, with, for example, the Australian rugby team touring England in 1907 and winning 13-3 against the hosts, Norman Brookes winning Wimbledon in 1908 and again in 1914, and a number of cricket Test match victories against England.¹⁴⁶ However, a major disruption to society and sport occurred when Australia was embroiled in its first major international military conflict.

2.7 World War I and its Aftermath

The conservatives were in power when the World War I broke out in 1914, and the ruling government promised to help the British government in this military conflict against Germany and its allies by assisting them with 20,000 army personnel, as well as the resources of the Australian navy. This was an election year in Australia, and both major political parties were committed in their support for Britain. The Labor Party won the election and was bound to fulfil existing promises when it took office.¹⁴⁷ However, a radical group of trade unions in Australia called the 'International Workers of the World' opposed the government's decision. In this

¹⁴⁵ D. Shilbury, J. Deane and P. Kellett, *Sport Management in Australia: An Organisational Overview*, third edition, Strategic Sport Management, Bentleigh East, 2006, pp. 47-48, and Hess and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 123.

¹⁴⁶ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, pp. 66-71.

¹⁴⁷ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political*, p. 193.

way, the Australian people, for perhaps the first time in the Australian history, became significantly divided on the basis of ideology.¹⁴⁸

The majority of the Australian population, which had migrated from Great Britain and generally had a strong sentimental attachment to the 'Mother Country', by and large supported the war effort, although bitter conscription debates were to leave deep scars on the national psyche.¹⁴⁹ The historian Mark Peel, for instance, has noted that Prime Minister Billy Hughes referred to this war as 'the gravest crisis of Australian history'.¹⁵⁰ In response to this crisis, Clarke states that 416,809 people registered in the army, 331,781 participated in the war, and 59,342 were killed, with a further 152,171 wounded, leaving an indelible impact on the Australian psyche.¹⁵¹

As Booth and Tatz explain, the war had a divisive impact on sport. Much of this discordance was on class lines, with many of the working classes insisting on their right to view and play masculine sports such as Australian Rules football and rugby, despite the fact that middle class administrators were being urged to close down these codes, and other sporting activities, in the light of increasingly heavy recruitment needs as the war dragged on.¹⁵² Booth and Tatz also indicate that the war 'did help liberate women from the shackles of the home, and open up more opportunities and choices, and broaden their horizons'.¹⁵³ In their view, this liberation was a factor in a 'broadened gender base' during the booming 1920s, with the result that many women formed new sports clubs and associations, and became involved in local, regional and

¹⁴⁸ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political*, p. 194.

¹⁴⁹ Molony, *The Penguin History of Australia*, p. 218.

¹⁵⁰ Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, p. 49.

¹⁵¹ Clarke, *Australia: A Concise Political*, p. 188.

¹⁵² Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, pp. 100-102.

¹⁵³ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 103.

national sporting events. They go on to suggest that in this period, sport continued to develop as an entertainment industry in Australia, and started to become more entrepreneurial in nature, if not more entwined with the economy.¹⁵⁴

The economy of Australia had always largely depended on exports. Therefore, when the collapse of the New York stock exchange occurred in 1929, the Australian economy was shattered. Businesses collapsed, banks closed, and the majority of Australians became unemployed.¹⁵⁵ In the midst of this deprivation, as explained further below, it is acknowledged that mass spectator sport flourished, and a number of individuals and teams achieved great success in this period.¹⁵⁶ Another sporting success at the international level was the 1934 London Empire Games, where Australia won eight gold medals.¹⁵⁷

During this period, three 'heroes' gained almost iconic status in the history of Australian sport. While many books have been written about them, a swimmer, a horse and a cricketer respectively, only a brief overview of their careers can be provided here. Andrew 'Boy' Charlton was a great swimmer. He defeated Arne Borg of Sweden, a world champion in Sydney at the age of sixteen and became the hero of the country.¹⁵⁸ The horse was Phar Lap, who participated in 51 races, achieving victory in 37 of them. While his successes in Australia were memorable, his death in the United States was the cause of deep suspicion, followed by national mourning.¹⁵⁹

The cricketer, Don Bradman, was a great name in the history of cricket. Besides his

¹⁵⁴ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, pp. 102-107.

¹⁵⁵ Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, pp. 58-59.

¹⁵⁶ Shaw, *The Story of Australia*, p. 252.

¹⁵⁷ Head and Lester, *200 Years of Australian Sports*, p. 336.

¹⁵⁸ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 87.

¹⁵⁹ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 88.

other achievements, he had a phenomenal record of 6996 runs with an average of 99.4, nearly twice that of his nearest rival.¹⁶⁰

In the end, although sport enjoyed something of a boom in this period due to the rise of mass spectator sports, the acclaim of sporting ‘celebrities’, and the use of new technologies such as radio broadcasts, economic gridlock was only broken by the circumstances that eventually led to the outbreak of World War II. While government involvement in the delivery of sport is discussed in more detail in Chapter Four, it worth concluding this section by noting that for the first 40 years of federation, neither the federal nor state governments had policies that articulated how sport might contribute to national or community development, however, local governments were an important contributor. They traditionally provided playground facilities, which comprised slides, swings, hoops, and bars. These facilities were usually located in public parks and gave children the opportunity to not just play, but also to develop their confidence and motor skills. In addition, local governments constructed sports grounds and pavilions. As Cashman explains, Australia’s community sporting infrastructure in the interwar years was therefore dependent upon local councils, rather than direct federal government intervention or support, particularly when large open space was required for the activity.¹⁶¹

2.8 Sporting Developments After World War II

It is generally acknowledged that the Australian nation did not necessarily show the same ‘enthusiasm’ for World War II as it initially did in World War I. Robert Menzies became the Prime Minister of Australia on 3 December 1931. He elaborated

¹⁶⁰ Howell and Howell, *A History of Australian Sport*, p. 90.

¹⁶¹ See Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, pp. 37-38, 114.

the ties of Australia with England, stating that it was the nation's moral obligation to safeguard the interests of Great Britain. He emphasised that if Britain was in a state of war, then Australia was also in a state of war.¹⁶² The beginning of World War II was therefore marked by a shift in the impetus of federal government thinking about the place of sport and physical activity in Australian life. Under Prime Minister Menzies, the ruling United Australia Party established the National Co-ordinating Council for Physical Fitness (NCCPF) in 1939, which was subsequently given legislative stability in 1941 through the *National Fitness Act*.¹⁶³ The NCCPF was established with the aim of creating a national fitness movement and one of its many recommendations was that more professionally trained physical education instructors were required.

In 1941, Japanese forces, which had previously attacked the United States, bringing them into the war for the first time, reached Papua New Guinea, and became a direct threat to Australia. There were also air raids on Darwin, and a Japanese submarine entered Sydney Harbour. The historian Peel, among others, has noted that when Australia asked for help from Britain, the response suggested that defeating Hitler was a priority, rather than defending Australia.¹⁶⁴ Obviously in such conditions Australia felt herself alone and accordingly asked for military assistance from the United States of America. This was a major turning point in the on-going development of Australia's foreign policy. By 1945, 500,000 Australians had taken part in the war and 30,000 had been killed in the conflict.¹⁶⁵ On the domestic front, as in the Great

¹⁶² Kelly, *100 Years: The Australian Story*, p. 21.

¹⁶³ See Stewart *et al.*, *Australian Sport*, p. 40.

¹⁶⁴ Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, p. 63.

¹⁶⁵ Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, p. 65.

War, civilians were left to perform essential duties, and opportunities for females to undertake what were traditionally seen as male activities presented themselves.¹⁶⁶

Other historical developments in Australia will be discussed further elsewhere, although in terms of chronology the end of World War II is a useful point of comparison with Pakistan as it co-relates to important developments in that nation. In the next section, the focus turns to the political history of the Australia, mirroring the approach taken in the chapter on Pakistan.

2.9 The Emergence of Political Parties

With a view to examining the evolution and development of sport, it is appropriate to revisit the political history of Australia, focusing on the evolution of political parties, institutions and the functioning of systems. Therefore, this section of the chapter briefly examines the emergence of the two major current political parties, the Labor party and the Liberal party. This obviously involves some overlap with the narrative history outlined above, but the focus is much more on political developments.

In essence, the Australian political system is based on three tiers. These tiers are comprised of a single federal (or commonwealth government) level, the various state governments, and local governments. The federal system is based on a democratic system, and political authority rests with the prime minister and a cabinet that is chosen from the party that makes up the parliamentary majority. In line with Houlihan's view that federal governments have the potential to make a deep impact

¹⁶⁶ Peel, *A Little History of Australia*, p. 65.

on the daily life of the general public, this thesis does tend to focus on developments at that level of government.¹⁶⁷

In many ways, the operations of the state government resemble those of the federal government. Similarly to the prime minister, the premier is chosen from the party claiming the majority in a general election. Obviously, the government has the power of jurisdiction limited to its own state. The third pillar of governance is the local or the council level, headed by a mayor. In terms of the focus of this thesis, it is important to note that each state and territory also appoints ministers for sports and recreation, and in order to enhance cooperation and collaboration between the states, and to encourage unanimity in sports affairs, frequent meetings are held. The sports ministers of New Zealand and Papua New Guinea occasionally participate in such meetings as observers.¹⁶⁸

The Labor party is the oldest political party in Australia and was founded in 1890 in order to safe guards the rights of miners and workers in various colonies.¹⁶⁹ The first Labor party government was formed in 1904 and Watson was its first Prime Minister. The conservative Liberal party did not emerge until after World War II, and, as discussed later, its initial leader and first prime minister was Robert Menzies. These two parties essentially represent the left and right wings of the political spectrum in Australia, although both parties, when in government, have tended to be fairly conservative in nature. Their policies and philosophies in respect to sport and recreation are discussed in much more detail in Chapter Four.

¹⁶⁷ Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 23.

¹⁶⁸ P. J. Farmer and S. Arnaudon, 'Australian Sports Policy', in L. Chalip, A. Johnson and L. Stachura (eds), *National Sports Policies: An International Handbook*, Greenwood Press, London, 1996, p. 3.

¹⁶⁹ L. Overacker, *Australian Parties in a Changing Society: 1945-67*, Cheshire Publishing, Melbourne, 1968, p. 33.

2.10 Australia and the Olympics Games

Australia's involvement in the Olympic Games has been the subject of a number of books and a multitude of journal articles.¹⁷⁰ It is not the purpose of this section to provide an expansive narrative of Australian performances at the Games, but a brief overview will be provided. This will be sufficient to enable some later comparisons with Pakistan, and to provide a focal point for later discussions concerned with the government delivery of sport.

Australia is one of only two countries which has participated in every summer Olympic Games since their inception in 1896.¹⁷¹ This record of continuous participation has been established due to the initial and somewhat fortuitous involvement of Edwin Flack, who took a break from his employment with Price Waterhouse in London, and accompanied the English team to Athens, competing on behalf of Australia.¹⁷² He won two gold medals, although according to noted Olympic historian, Harry Gordon, it was not until 1936 that his medals were officially credited to Australia.¹⁷³

In the period between 1896 and 1936, Australia performed creditably, if unevenly, at the Games. Table 2a below summarises medal results in this period, and it is clear that Australian performances in the pool were of world-class standard, reflecting the

¹⁷⁰ See, for example, Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*,

¹⁷¹ Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, p. 13. This is despite a claim that Australia was not officially a 'nation' when the first Olympic Games were held in 1896. Indeed, Australia's sole competitor at those Games, Edwin Flack, was born in England and was living in London when he decided to participate in Athens. See T. Magdalinski, 'The Reinvention of Australia for the 2000 Olympic Games', in J. A. Mangan and J. Nauright (eds), *Sport in Australasian Society: Past and Present*, Frank Cass, London, 2000, pp. 314-315.

¹⁷² Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, p. 13.

¹⁷³ Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, p. 9.

strength of aquatic activities throughout the nation. It is worth noting that in 1908 and 1912 Australia and New Zealand participated in the Olympic Games as one unified team, reflecting the relatively close ties between the countries at this time, a relationship that also resulted in a joint military force, the ANZACS, participating in World War I. Like many other countries, however, Australia's participation in the Games during this period was hampered by the costs involved in sending teams to northern hemisphere locations, a situation exacerbated during the Depression of the 1930s.

Table 2a: Summary of Medals Won by Australia at the Olympic Games, 1896-1936.

Source: Compiled from information in Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*.

Year	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1896	2	0	0	2
1900	3	0	4	7
1904	0	0	0	0
1908	1	2	1	4
1912	2	2	2	6
1920	3	0	2	5
1924	3	1	2	6
1928	1	2	1	4
1932	3	1	1	5
1936	0	0	1	1
Total	18	8	14	40

After the hiatus caused by World War II, the Olympic Games resumed in 1948. During the next two decades, sometimes referred to as a 'golden era' in Australian sport, the nation not only achieved remarkable international success in a range of non-Olympic sports, but it also made its mark by successfully bidding for, and organising, the 1956 Olympic Games, the first Games to be held in the southern hemisphere. These Games were successful not only in term of medals won, but also in terms of

how, despite some initial setbacks, they were managed and organised. The following Tables (Tables 2b and 2c) summarise Australian performances.

Table 2b: Summary of Medals Won by Australia at the Olympic Games, 1948-2004.

Source: ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/info/topics/olympics/stats.asp>, accessed on 30 October 2007.

Year	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1948	2	6	3	11
1952	6	2	3	11
1956	13	8	14	35
1960	8	8	6	22
1964	6	2	10	18
1968	5	7	5	17
1972	8	7	2	17
1976	0	1	4	5
1980	2	2	5	9
1984	4	8	12	24
1988	3	6	5	14
1992	7	9	11	27
1996	9	9	23	41
2000	16	25	17	58
2004	17	16	16	49
Total	106	116	136	358

It is also worth noting, especially in terms of some comparisons that are made later in the thesis, and in terms of government funding, that Australia has won Olympic medals in a total of 25 sports (as listed in alphabetical order in the Table below).

Table 2c: List of Sports in which Australia has Won Medals at the Olympic Games, 1896-2004.

Source: ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/info/topics/olympics/sport.asp>, accessed on 31 October 2007.

	Name of Sport		Name of Sport
1	Archery	14	Rugby
2	Athletics	15	Sailing
3	Baseball	16	Shooting
4	Basketball	17	Softball
5	Boxing	18	Swimming

6	Canoeing	19	Taekwondo
7	Cycling	20	Tennis
8	Diving	21	Triathlon
9	Equestrian	22	Volleyball
10	Gymnastics	23	Water Polo
11	Hockey	24	Weightlifting
12	Judo	25	Wrestling
13	Rowing		

In short, from 1952 to 1968 Australia participated in five Olympics Games. A total of 961 athletes competed, and they won 42 gold medals, 27 silver medals and 38 bronze medals. Clearly, there was a peak performance in Melbourne, where Australia won 35 medals including thirteen gold medals, and an even higher peak in Sydney in 2000, as discussed briefly below and in more detail in Chapter Five.

As discussed later in the thesis, Australia's Olympic nadir was in Montreal in 1976, when Australia won only five medals, none of them gold. This represented the continuation of a slump from the peak achieved at the 1956 Games, and was the cause of national soul-searching, eventually resulting in moves to set up a national institute of sport, as discussed in Chapter Four.¹⁷⁴ Australian performances have improved markedly following an upsurge in federal government funding in the last quarter of the twentieth century. While this funding and government involvement will later be discussed in more detail, and comparisons made with the same period in Pakistan, it is worthwhile to highlight the fact that Australia, with a population of just 20 million, has continued to 'punch above its weight' in the Olympic arena. At the Barcelona Olympic Games, Australian athletes won 27 medals including seven gold, finishing tenth on the medal table.¹⁷⁵ Australian athletes improved their performance levels in 1996 by winning 41 medals, including nine gold, at the Atlanta Olympic Games,

¹⁷⁴ Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic*, p. 475; Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, pp. 1-12.

¹⁷⁵ M. Andrews, *Australia at the Olympics*, ABC Books, Sydney, 2000, p. 35.

finishing seventh on the medal table.¹⁷⁶ With sustained efforts and increased funding in the lead up to Sydney hosting the Games in 2000, a high watermark was achieved, with Australia winning 58 medals, including sixteen gold. In terms of specific sports, the highest number of the medals have been won in swimming with 156 medals (52 gold, 51 silver, 53 bronze), athletics with 64 medals (eighteen gold, 22 silver, 24 bronze) and cycling with 41 medals (thirteen gold, fifteen silver, thirteen bronze).

Table 2d: Total Medals Won by Australia at Each Olympic Games - Broken Down into Gold, Silver, Bronze, Male and Female, 1896-2004.

Source: ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/info/topics/olympics/sport.asp>, accessed on 31 October 2007.

Note: A single asterisk (*) indicates that two medals were won by mixed teams; Two asterisks (**) indicate that the total does not include the medal won by Australian Stan Rowley, who competed on a British athletics team for one event.

Year	Total Medals	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Male	Female
1896	2	2	0	0	2	0
1900	7**	3	0	4	7	0
1908	4	1	2	1	4	0
1912	6	2	2	2	4	2
1920	3	0	2	1	3	0
1924	6	3	1	2	6	0
1928	4	1	2	1	4	0
1932	5	3	1	1	3	2
1936	1	0	0	1	1	0
1948	13	2	6	5	8	5
1952	11	6	2	3	7	4
1956	35	13	8	14	22	13
1960	22	8	8	6	17	5
1964	18	6	2	10	11	7
1968	17	5	7	5	10	7
1972	14	8	7	2	7	10
1976	8	0	1	4	5	0
1980	9	2	2	5	7	2
1984	24	4	8	12	17	7
1988	14	3	6	5	9	5
1992	27*	7	9	11	16	10
1996	41*	9	9	23	23	17
2000	58	16	25	17	36	22
2004	49	17	16	16	26	23

¹⁷⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 205.

Total	398	121	126	151	255	141
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2.11 Participation in the Commonwealth Games

Although the literature on the Commonwealth Games is not as extensive as that pertaining to the Olympic Games, it is still possible to provide a brief overview of Australian performances. In order to contextualise these performances, a brief history of the Commonwealth Games is outlined below.¹⁷⁷

The inaugural British Empire (later Commonwealth) Games were held in Hamilton, Canada, in 1930, where eleven countries sent 400 athletes to take part in six sports and 59 events. There had been antecedents to these first Games, and the honour of having conceived a scheme for a British Empire Sports Festival belongs to an Englishman, J. Astley Cooper, who in August 1891, in the magazine *Greater Britain*, outlined a plan for what he described as a ‘Pan-Britannic Festival’. This proposal attracted a great deal of attention throughout Great Britain and the colonies, and was elaborated by Cooper in a lengthy letter to the London *Times* of 30 October 1891. In Australia, the idea was taken up principally by Richard Coombes, who was President of the Amateur Athletic Union of Australia for 35 years, and presiding over this organisation when Cooper’s letter was written. However, despite all the discussion there was little action. Some athletic events were held as part of the ‘Festival of Empire’ in 1911, but after further years of negotiation it was really only in 1930, when the City of Hamilton agreed to provide \$30,000 to help cover the travelling costs of the participating nations, that the embryonic event finally became reality. Support was forthcoming from England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, with the result that strong teams were sent to Canada. Teams also came from Australia, New

¹⁷⁷ The growth of the Commonwealth Games is also outlined in Appendix 12.

Zealand, Bermuda, British Guiana, Newfoundland and South Africa. The events at this inaugural meeting comprised track and field athletics, swimming, rowing, boxing, wrestling, and lawn bowls.¹⁷⁸

Since then, the Games have been conducted every four years (except for 1942 and 1946 due to World War II) and the event has seen many changes, not least in its name. From 1930 to 1950 the Games were known as the British Empire Games, from 1954 until 1966 the British Empire and Commonwealth Games and from 1970 to 1974 they took on the title of British Commonwealth Games. It was the 1978 Games in Edmonton that saw this multi-sports event, always in the shadow of the Olympic Games, change its name to the Commonwealth Games.¹⁷⁹

Often referred to as the 'Friendly Games', only single competition sports had been on the program from 1930 up to and including the 1994 Games in Victoria. The 1998 Games in Kuala Lumpur saw the introduction of team sports with nations taking part in cricket, hockey (men's and women's), netball (women) and rugby 7s (men). In Manchester in 2002 hockey, netball and rugby 7s featured on the program again and at the 2006 Games in Melbourne basketball accompanied hockey, netball and rugby 7s on the program. In Delhi in 2010 hockey, netball and rugby 7s will again be included.¹⁸⁰

¹⁷⁸ For more detailed overviews of this material, see Commonwealth Games Federation, www.thecgf.com/games/2006.asp, accessed on 8 December 2006, and also Shilbury, Deane and Kellett, *Sport Management in Australia*, pp. 213-214.

¹⁷⁹ Commonwealth Games Federation, www.thecgf.com/games/2006.asp, accessed on 8 December 2006.

¹⁸⁰ Commonwealth Games Federation, www.thecgf.com/games/2006.asp, accessed on 8 December 2006. For more detail on the role of Richard Coombes, see G. Henniker and I. Jobling, 'Richard Coombes and the Olympic Movement in Australia: Imperialism and Nationalism in Action', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 6, no. 1, November 1989, pp. 1-15.

In terms of Australian achievements at the Commonwealth Games, a number of highlights can be mentioned. Australia's most successful Games were the Melbourne Games in 2006, when the largest ever Australian team (425 competitors) won a record 221 medals, consisting of 84 gold, 69 silver and 68 bronze. The largest ever gold medal tally was 87 gold, won by the 1994 Commonwealth Games team. In respect to the most gold medals won at a single Games, swimmers Susan O'Neill and Ian Thorpe won six gold medals at the 1998 Kuala Lumpur Commonwealth Games and the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games respectively. The most medals won by a female competitor is fifteen medals, achieved by swimmer Susan O'Neill (ten gold, five silver) at the 1990, 1994 and 1998 Games.

The fact that four Australian cities have hosted the Games is also noteworthy, and as the Table below reveals, it is clear that there is a direct relationship between the hosting of the Games and a high medal count, as manifested at Sydney (1938), Perth (1962), Brisbane (1982), and Melbourne (2006), all of which helps to add cachet to Australia's continued reputation as a sporting nation.

Table 2c: Australia at the Commonwealth Games.

Source: http://www.thecgf.com/games/tally_country.asp, accessed on 30 October 2007.

Year	Host City and Country	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1930	Hamilton, Canada	3	4	1	8
1934	London, England	8	4	2	14
1938	Sydney, Australia	25	19	22	66
1950	Auckland, New Zealand	34	27	19	80
1954	Vancouver, Canada	20	11	17	48
1958	Cardiff, Wales	27	22	17	66
1962	Perth, Australia	38	36	31	105
1966	Kingston, Jamaica	23	28	22	73
1970	Edinburgh, Scotland	36	24	22	82
1974	Christchurch, New Zealand	29	28	25	82
1978	Edmonton, Canada	24	33	27	84

1982	Brisbane, Australia	39	39	29	107
1986	Edinburgh, Scotland	40	46	35	121
1990	Auckland, New Zealand	52	54	56	162
1994	Victoria, Canada	87	52	43	182
1998	Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	80	61	57	198
2002	Manchester, England	82	62	63	207
2006	Melbourne, Australia	84	69	68	221
	Total	731	620	556	1907

2.12 Sport and Educational Institutions in Australia

In terms of the aims of this thesis it is important to very briefly outline the Australian education system, and the role of sport in it. Once again, the intention is not to provide a comprehensive overview, but to highlight certain aspects that have implications for the government delivery of sport, and that will bear later comparison with Pakistan.

As was the case in other British colonies, it was private individuals and religious organisations that were responsible for setting up the first schools in Australia. It is important to note that from 1848 onwards a dual system of schools was established. Under this system, there were government funded and controlled schools as well as church or denominational schools, which also received some funding. Between 1872 and 1895 all of the Australian colonies passed public education laws, which established a system of government primary schools, administered by departments of education, and at the same time the colonies started to withdraw what had been intermittent funding from denominational schools. It was not until 1964 that the Australian Parliament passed legislation formally authorising financial assistance to non-government schools. Secondary education developed much more slowly than primary education, particularly in the public sector, remaining the prerogative of non-government schools until the early twentieth century. It was not until the 1950s that

government schools became the main providers of secondary education.¹⁸¹ It is worth noting that after the creation of the Commonwealth of Australia, school education remained a State and Territory responsibility and no significant constitutional role was given to the federal government. However, the federal government, through the Department of Education, Science and Training does provide supplementary funding to support certain strategies and priorities such as literacy and numeracy programs, and is responsible for higher education. Vocational education and training is shared between the state and territory and federal governments.¹⁸²

Although each State and Territory exercised responsibility for its own education system, the structure that emerged was almost uniform in nature. By 1939 schooling was compulsory between the ages of six and fifteen in nearly all states, but the majority of young people received only two or three years of secondary school education.¹⁸³ As Van Dalen and Bennett note, the 'Commonwealth Office of Education' was established in 1945, which supplemented the work of the states but did not supervise their activities.¹⁸⁴ During the 1950s and 1960s secondary education expanded rapidly. Until recently the last years of secondary education was seen as primarily a preparation for tertiary study and the curriculum was academically oriented. In essence, the Australian education system can be divided into five areas,

¹⁸¹ See Australian Government, Australian Education International, http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/QualificationsRecognition/CountryEducationProfiles/CEP_Aus_EdSys.htm#HistoricalDevelopment, accessed on 9 November 2004.

¹⁸² Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, <http://www.immi.gov.au/settle/education/system.htm>, accessed on 15 November 2004.

¹⁸³ Australian Government, Australian Education International, http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/QualificationsRecognition/CountryEducationProfiles/CEP_Aus_EdSys.htm#HistoricalDevelopment, accessed on 9 November 2004. See also *Alochona Magazine*, issue 2 April 2002, <http://alochona.org/magazine/2002/april/special2.htm>, accessed on 9 November 2004.

¹⁸⁴ D. B. Van Dalen and B. L. Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education: Cultural, Philosophical, Comparative*, second edition, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, 1971, p. 632.

namely preschool, primary school, high school/secondary colleges, career and vocational training, and university or other tertiary institutions.¹⁸⁵

There are three main types of secondary schools in Australia, namely, public schools, non-religious private school and religious (mainly Catholic or Anglican) private schools. Most public schools have co-education, however there are a few public same-sex high schools in the larger cities like Sydney and Melbourne. Most of the private schools, on the other hand, are same-sex schools.¹⁸⁶ Education at public schools is free in most states, although most schools do have a small voluntary annual fee to cover extra activities.¹⁸⁷ The independent school setting is also diverse and services a range of different communities. Many independent schools provide a religious or values-based education. Others promote a particular education philosophy or interpretation of mainstream education. Independent schools include schools affiliated with larger and smaller Christian denominations (for example, Anglican, Lutheran, and Presbyterian schools), non-denominational Christian schools, Islamic schools, Jewish schools, Montessori schools, Rudolf Steiner schools, Aboriginal community schools, and schools that specialise in meeting the needs of students with disabilities.¹⁸⁸ The last few decades in particular have seen a diversification of education available in secondary education and an expansion of technical and vocational education in both the secondary and tertiary sectors.

¹⁸⁵ Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, <http://www.immi.gov.au/settle/education/system.htm>, accessed on 15 November 2004.

¹⁸⁶ Alochona Magazine, issue 2 April 2002, <http://alochona.org/magazine/2002/april/special2.htm>, accessed on 9 November 2004.

¹⁸⁷ Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, <http://www.immi.gov.au/settle/education/system.htm>, accessed on 15 November 2004

¹⁸⁸ Independent School Council of Australia, <http://www.isca.edu.au/> accessed on 15 November 2004.

In terms of tertiary education, the first Australian university was the University of Sydney, established in 1850 in New South Wales. Three years later the colony of Victoria founded the University of Melbourne, and by 1912 a university had been founded in each State, as follows: the University of Adelaide in South Australia (1874), the University of Tasmania (1890), the University of Queensland (1909) and the University of Western Australia (1911). The decades since World War II have seen a substantial expansion of Australian higher education, and today there are 43 such institutions. A full range of academic and professional disciplines is offered with awards ranging from associate diplomas to doctorates.¹⁸⁹ Chapter Four outlines in a more specific manner how and why the federal government has been involved in the provision of physical education, particularly after 1945.

2.13 Media and Sport in Australia

As a recent thesis has attested, the nexus between sport and the media in Australia has strengthened considerably in the last two decades.¹⁹⁰ The level of sports media coverage in Australia has always reflected the national interest in sport, and according to Lenskyj, Australia's mass media reflects and reinforces the role of sport as a key component of popular culture. Indeed, it would be hard to imagine an Australian newspaper or news broadcast that did not include extensive coverage of sporting events.¹⁹¹ In this context, it should also be noted that Australian sports has always

¹⁸⁹ See Australian Government, Australian Education International, http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/QualificationsRecognition/CountryEducationProfiles/CEP_Aus_EdSys.htm#HistoricalDevelopment, accessed on 9 November 2004.

¹⁹⁰ See K. M. Lange, 'Sport and New Media: A Profile of Internet Sport Journalists in Australia', Masters thesis, School of Human Movement, Recreation and Performance, Faculty of Human Development, Victoria University, March 2002, p. 1.

¹⁹¹ H. J. Lenskyj, *The Best Olympics Ever? Social Impacts of Sydney 2000*, State University of New York Press, Albany, 2002, p. 13.

been a male dominated activity and this is reflected in the relatively poor coverage media of women sports across all forms of media.¹⁹²

In a brief historical overview of Australian sports media, Brian Stoddart has noted that the newspaper was sport's major media source in Australia between settlement and World War I, with all the major daily newspapers having special spaces devoted to sports coverage. Radio technology was then introduced, and by 1939 radio commentary on sports was very popular among listeners. Television broadcasting was introduced in 1956 during the coverage of 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games, and became even more popular when colour broadcasting was introduced in 1972.¹⁹³

Australia has a highly concentrated ownership of media companies. Although the media landscape is constantly changing, it is possible to map out the contours of the press, television and radio, as will be done with Pakistan. Two companies, News Corporation and John Fairfax Holdings, dominate the press. News Corporation publishes the only daily national newspaper, the *Australian*, as well as a daily newspaper in every capital city except Perth. News Corporation's current holdings include the *Daily Telegraph* (Sydney), the *Herald Sun* (Melbourne), the *Courier-Mail* (Brisbane) and the *Advertiser* (Adelaide). News Corporation was founded in Adelaide and its first newspaper was the *News*, which was later merged with the *Advertiser*. John Fairfax Holdings owns the *Sydney Morning Herald*, the *Age* (Melbourne) and the most prominent financial newspaper, the *Financial Review*.

¹⁹² L. Bryson, 'Gender', in W. Vamplew, K. Moore, J. O'Hara, R. Cashman, and I. Jobling (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Sport*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, pp. 178-179.

¹⁹³ B. Stoddart, 'Media', in W. Vamplew, K. Moore, J. O'Hara, R. Cashman, and I. Jobling (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Sport*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, p. 282. See also J. McKay, 'Broadcasting', in W. Vamplew, K. Moore, J. O'Hara, R. Cashman, and I. Jobling (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Sport*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, p. 78.

Rural Press Limited dominates rural and regional media, with significant holdings in all states and territories. Titles include the *Canberra Times* as well as the *Land* (New South Wales), Queensland's *Country Life*, *Stock and Land* (Victoria), *Stock Journal* (South Australia) and *Farm Weekly* (Western Australia). Rural Press also has significant holdings in New Zealand and the United States.¹⁹⁴ Newspapers served increasingly as the medium for directing and reflecting public opinion on the sports matters as well as providing information on the latest results and forth-coming sports events.¹⁹⁵

In terms of television, Australia has three major commercial networks, namely the Nine Network, the Seven Network, and the Ten Network. It also has two public broadcasters, the Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC) and the Special Broadcasting Service (SBS), as well as some cable television stations such as Foxtel.¹⁹⁶ In the late twentieth century, one of the major means of introducing 'foreign' (non-British) sports into Australia was television, and a key example of this was basketball.¹⁹⁷ In the early days of the radio, sporting organisations had to pay for the event to be put to air. But now the trend is virtually reversed, with sporting bodies now selling broadcasting right and earning millions of dollars. Media companies are, in turn, making their profits by advertisements and commercials.¹⁹⁸ The media is also a major means whereby 'celebrities' or 'stars' are created, as the press, radio and television combine to increase public awareness of athletes and their achievements.¹⁹⁹

¹⁹⁴ Lenskyj, *The Best Olympics Ever*, p. 14.

¹⁹⁵ I. Jobling, 'Technologies', in W. Vamplew, K. Moore, J. O'Hara, R. Cashman, and I. Jobling (eds), *The Oxford Companion to Australian Sport*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, 1994, p. 425.

¹⁹⁶ Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia, <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Australia#Media>, accessed on 2 January 2005.

¹⁹⁷ Stoddart, 'Media', p. 283.

¹⁹⁸ Stoddart, 'Media', p. 283.

¹⁹⁹ Stoddart, 'Media', p. 283.

The relationship between the media and sport is also recognised by the government. Media is one of the important factors for running sports programs and that is reflected by an ASC initiative which established a separated department named the Media and Issues Management Unit. This Unit promotes the profile, reputation and achievements of the ASC, as outlined in the Table below:

Table 2f: Services of the Media and Issues Management Unit.

Source: ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/media/index.asp>, accessed on 26 December 2004.

1	Fields and directs all national and international inquiries from print, television and radio media
2	Effectively manages critical issues and media and stakeholder relations for the ASC
3	Promotes key messages of the ASC
4	Arranges media interviews with ASC spokespeople
5	Provides media support for major ASC events
6	Keeps stakeholders informed about ASC activities and initiatives
7	Provides access to up-to-date, concise and credible facts and figures about Australian sport

2.14 Conclusions

As the above material demonstrates, Australia has an enviable track record in elite sports performance, not only at the Olympic and Commonwealth Games level, but in a variety of other sports. Moreover, the management and organisation of its only major indigenous sport, Australian Rules football, is also noteworthy. While some aspects of Australian sport are not beyond criticism, a long-term historical perspective seems to justify the nation's reputation as a 'paradise of sport', particularly given the supportive infrastructure of educational institutions and the media. Given that this chapter has focused largely on providing some essential historical and political background to Australia's sporting development, it is important for comparative

purposes that a similar overview be provided for Pakistan. With these two 'foundation' chapters in place, it will then be appropriate to examine the government's involvement in the delivery of elite sport programs in more detail in Chapters Four and Five.

Chapter Three

An Overview of Historical and Political Developments in Pakistan

3.1 Introduction

Although the people of Pakistan came to identify themselves as Pakistanis only in 1947, most scholars agree that the cultural and ethnic origins of the nation stretch back to at least 2000 BC.²⁰⁰ Thus, while this chapter will chiefly analyse developments in the 'new', politically identifiable Pakistan, some consideration will be given to important factors associated with the ancient history of the region. For instance, religion and/or spiritual beliefs have played a significant role in the life of the people of the subcontinent, and therefore, this chapter provides some details of the major religions of the region. The importance of such a background has been acknowledged in other surveys of subcontinental sport, with the result that there seems a general understanding that the realm of the spiritual can be affected by, and has an affect on, physical activities.²⁰¹ To this end, the religion of Hinduism will be discussed first, followed by Buddhism, and then, the story of the arrival of Islam and Muslim rule in India will be narrated. Since this thesis focuses mainly on Pakistan, where the vast majority of the population is Muslim, the religion of Islam, along with its prescribed code of conduct for life, will necessarily be discussed in more detail. Only the essential elements of other religions will be provided, most notably when they have some bearing on sporting practices.

²⁰⁰ R. V. Weekes, *Pakistan: Birth and Growth of a Muslim Nation*, D. Van Nostrand, Princeton, 1964, p. 47, and V. Narayanan, 'The Hindu Tradition', in W. G. Oxtoby and A. F. Segal (eds), *A Concise Introduction to World Religions*, Oxford University Press, Don Mills, Ontario, 2007, p. 261.

²⁰¹ See for example, M. L. Kamlesh, P. Chelladurai, and U. S. Nair, 'National Sports Policy in India', in L. Chalip, A. Johnson and L. Stachura (eds), *National Sports Policies: An International Handbook*, Greenwood Press, London, 1996, pp. 212-240.

As for other historical and political background, the arrival of the Europeans (first with the Portuguese in 1510 and then the British in 1613), the War of Independence in 1857, and the pre- and post-independence problems of Pakistan will be mentioned. The overarching focus of the chapter, however, will be devoted to a discussion of the history of sport in the region, both prior to, and after the declaration of Pakistan as an independent nation. A conclusion that summarises developments will be drawn at the end of the chapter.

Before a narrative overview of Pakistan's sport history can be constructed, it is pertinent to re-iterate some of the issues raised in the literature review provided in Chapter One. In particular, it is prudent at this stage to note problems of a general historiographical nature that were outlined in that chapter. As Wladimir Andreff explains, it is symptomatic of developing countries that much of their sporting history is not available in printed form.²⁰² In this context, it is clear that any analysis of the history of Pakistani sports is hindered by this deficiency. For instance, when the author Dicky Rutnagur wanted to write a book on the history of squash in Pakistan with the title of *Khans, Unlimited* he had to travel Pakistan for data collection in the form of interviews and other relevant material, as there was a dearth of printed material on the nation's sports.²⁰³ Even the available printed material sometimes has incorrect information, and therefore one comes across remarks by Rutnagur indicating that he is not sure of his evidence.²⁰⁴ Furthermore, a number of factual uncertainties are further exposed in a review of the book where Mason claims that Hashim Khan's participation in the British Open occurred in 1948, while both Bhatti and Rutnagur

²⁰² W. Andreff, 'Sport in Developing Countries', in W. Andreff and S. Szymanski (eds), *Handbook on the Economics of Sport*, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, 2006, p. 308.

²⁰³ See Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited*.

²⁰⁴ For example, in reference to a winner of the British Open in squash, there is some uncertainty about the year of Hashim's birth. Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited*, p. 9.

state that the year was 1951.²⁰⁵ Hence, even the published material sometimes suffers from being incomplete or unreliable, a factor that needs to be borne in mind given the attempt to provide something of a narrative overview below.²⁰⁶

3.2 Early History

The Indus Valley Civilization flourished around 2500 BC in the western part of South Asia, in what today is known as Pakistan and western India. It is often referred to as the Harappan civilization after its first discovered city, Harappa.²⁰⁷ It has been proved, from a decade-long excavation beginning in 1921, that the Indus Valley was home to the largest of the four ancient urban civilizations of Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China, and had a relatively mature society. Such archeological evidence testifies to the fact that the Indian subcontinent's history, as is generally believed, cannot be taken to begin with the coming of the Aryans in this part of the world.²⁰⁸ The excavation work reveals that the ancient people of the Indian region were, in fact, quite civilized and their cities were extremely well planned. For example, bricks were used for constructing the buildings, and there were bathrooms, pavements, wells and other necessities of life in these structures. Overall, the inhabitants of the Indus Valley had well-developed economic, social and religious systems.²⁰⁹ In addition, faith and religion seem to have influenced social life in these societies (and continues to do so). Kulkarni has noted that Hindus claim Aryans as remote ancestors, and there

²⁰⁵ See T. Mason, 'Reviews of S. Friskin, *Going for Gold: Pakistan at Hockey*, and D. Rutnagar, *Khans, Unlimited: A History of Squash in Pakistan*', *Journal of Sport History*, vol. 27, no. 3, Fall 2000, pp. 542-543, Rutnagar, *Khans, Unlimited*, p. xvi, and Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 351.

²⁰⁶ A problem given some attention in Andreff, 'Sport in Developing Countries', p. 308.

²⁰⁷ G. L. Possehl, 'Indus Valley Civilization', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 145, and Narayanan, 'The Hindu Tradition', p. 261.

²⁰⁸ K. Ali, *A New History of Indo-Pak up to 1526*, Naeem Publishers, Lahore, 1970, p. 3.

²⁰⁹ Ali, *A New History*, p. 4.

is evidence that the Aryans enjoyed participating in a number of different physical activities, including different forms of dance.²¹⁰

3.3 Ancient Religions

Scholars have verified that more than 2000 years ago the region of south Asia was the home of two major world religions, namely Hinduism and Buddhism. This area of the world is now home to many other religions, including Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Jainism, and Zoroastrianism.²¹¹ While these are all important spiritual disciplines, the scope of the thesis only permits a brief discussion of Hinduism and Buddhism, with a more substantial debate on Islamic beliefs, especially as they relate to the development of sport and physical education.

The predominant religion of the Indian subcontinent is Hinduism. When the Aryan race came to the region in 1500 BC, they gradually began to record their sacred writings (called Vedas) in Sanskrit. These writings depicted mystical pantheism, with pantheism being a belief that god is in everything be it animate or inanimate.²¹² This way of life incorporates a belief in the existence of the soul, and an understanding that the soul transmigrates from birth to birth, a process sometimes known as 'metempsychosis'. Hinduism holds that the Supreme Being is formless, yet it recognizes the worship of images. Most Hindus are vegetarians, and they consider the eating of meat as an inhuman act. Hindus have a number of gods for various purposes

²¹⁰ See V. B. Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan: Historical Survey of Hindu-Muslim Relations*, Jaico Publishing House, Bombay, 1973, p. 1, and Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 23.

²¹¹ F. Robinson, 'Preface', in F. Robinson (ed.), *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Bhutan and Maldives*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1989, p. 9.

²¹² C. H. Philip, *The Evolution of India & Pakistan*, Oxford University Press, London, 1962, p. 25.

and turn towards them for the fulfilment of their wishes.²¹³ Although increasing numbers of a new generation of Hindus are reluctant to accept the relevance of the caste system in their religion, most Hindus still strongly believe in such social stratification. Hinduism recognizes four castes, namely Brahmans (the priestly class), Kashtrias (the soldier class), Vaish (the farmer class) and Shudras (the lower class). Shudras are also considered as 'untouchables' in the class-dominated Hindu society.²¹⁴

In terms of the Hindu faith and involvement in physical activities, Narayanan has noted that Hindu festivals and physical activities such as yoga clearly required both mental and physical skills.²¹⁵ He further elaborates by noting that the Hindu religion stages festivals in almost every month of the year. Dance is the common characteristic found in every festival, and this is obviously an activity that requires a certain level of physical fitness.²¹⁶ As noted previously, Hinduism propounded a caste system and Kashtrias were assigned the responsibilities of war and were charged with the defence of their society. The above division of responsibility required each member of the Kashtrias caste to be strong and fit. Hence it obliged them to engage in training and physical activity to acquire high levels of strength and fitness.²¹⁷ The men of the military caste were trained for the infantry, cavalry, chariot, or elephant divisions. Archery was especially stressed, but soldiers also learned the use of spears, javelins, battle-axes, swords, and slings. During peacetime, when the army was idle,

²¹³ S. Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, G. Braziller, New York, 1967, pp. 421-422.

²¹⁴ Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, p. 199. Note that different spellings of some of these caste names exist.

²¹⁵ Narayanan, 'The Hindu Traditions', p. 283.

²¹⁶ Narayanan, 'The Hindu Traditions', pp. 302-303.

²¹⁷ Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 21.

the men pursued hunting and other sports as pastimes.²¹⁸ According to Van Dalen and Bennett, Hindus were fond of hunting and their favourite pastime was the hunting of lions, boars, buffaloes, deer and birds. Hindus participated in hunting as a pastime while it also helped them to maintain the fitness of their army in peacetime, rid the countryside of wild animals, and even capture beasts such as elephants for farm and military work.²¹⁹ Dancing was associated with the Hindu religion as 'Shiva', one of the trinity of Hindu gods, was a lord of the dance. In this respect, temple dancers, who were supposed to dance for their own sins as well as for the sins of others, had to start their systematic physical training at an early age.²²⁰

As noted above, the belief system of Buddhism is another one of the major religions of the subcontinent and its followers live in south east and east Asian countries such as Thailand, Indonesia and Japan, as well as in China and India, the latter being its birthplace. Gautama Buddha was the founder of Buddhism, and, as noted by Kulkarni, his true aim was to restore the importance of spiritual religion and to eliminate the dominating influence of 'sacrificial piety'.²²¹ According to Van Dalen and Bennett, Buddhism had a great influence on the subcontinent between 250 BC and 500 AD. As these authors attest, unlike Hinduism, Buddhism was a reform movement among the Hindu communities in general, and was specifically opposed to the caste system. The basic philosophy of Buddhism was and is one of non-violence

²¹⁸ Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 22.

²¹⁹ Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 22.

²²⁰ Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 23.

²²¹ Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, pp. 3-4.

and the achievement of peace within.²²² The followers of Buddhism, therefore, were not obliged to engage in any physical activity or sports.²²³

Buddha was born about the middle of the sixth century BC in the neighbourhood of Kapilavastu, situated at the foot of the Himalayas in India. At the age of 35, he came to be known as Buddha, or 'the enlightened one'. Buddha spent the remainder of his life preaching his religion and died at the age of 80 around 483 BC.²²⁴ In terms of physical activities, most disciples of Buddhism asked their pupils to rise early in the morning and do some physical work in addition to their studies and meditation, but these activities were not really of the recreational type.²²⁵

The third belief system to be outlined briefly is Islam. This is a religion that believes in one God (monotheism), and it originated with the teachings of Mohammad (PBUH).²²⁶ The word Islam means 'submission', namely the total surrender of oneself to God or Allah.²²⁷ A believer of Islam is known as a Muslim, and today there are around 1.5 billion people who claim to be Muslims, making Islam the second-largest religion in the world, after Christianity (2.1 billion).²²⁸

²²² Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, p. 19. See also R. C. Amore and J. Ching, 'The Buddhist Traditions', in W. Oxtoby and A. Segal (eds), *A Concise Introduction of World Religions*, Oxford University Press, Canada, 2007, p. 379.

²²³ However, it should be noted that in a later period yoga was taught in Buddhist monasteries, often attracting students from all over the world. Van Dalen and Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education*, pp. 18, 21.

²²⁴ I. H. Qureshi, *A Short History of Pakistan*, University of Karachi, Karachi, 1990, p. 115.

²²⁵ Amore and Ching, 'The Buddhist Tradition', p. 381.

²²⁶ J. L. Esposito, *Islam: The Straight Path*, Oxford University Press, New York, 2005, p. 1.

²²⁷ K. Ahmad, 'Islam: Basic Principles and Characteristics', in K. Ahmad (ed.), *Islam: Its Meaning and Message*, Islamic Council of Europe, London, 1976, p. 28, and D. Waines, *An Introduction to Islam*, Cambridge University Press, New York, 1995, p. 3.

²²⁸ See Wikipedia, 'Major Religious Groups', http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Major_religious_groups, accessed on 24 September 2007.

Muslims believe that God revealed the Qur'an (a holy book, similar in status to the Bible) to Muhammad, God's final prophet, and they regard the Qur'an and the Sunnah (the words and deeds of Muhammad) as the fundamental sources of Islam. According to Muslims, Muhammad is not the founder of a new religion, but is a restorer of the original monotheistic religions of Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and other prophets. Islam includes many religious practices and Muslims are required to fulfill five duties (the so-called 'Five Pillars') that unite Muslims into a world-wide community.²²⁹

At this point it is pertinent to make some mention of the importance of sports in the early period of Islam. Martin Stokes provides a useful summary of this particular aspect, and he outlines, for example, how the prophet Mohammad (PBUH) encouraged his followers to participate in such physical pursuits as archery, horse riding and making love to their wives.²³⁰ Stokes noted that after studying different hadiths (sayings of the prophet) it would appear that the prophet himself was a sports enthusiast. The prophet was a good sprinter and rider, and for evidence Stokes notes that a hadith from 'Bukhari' says that the prophet and his camel Adba were unbeaten in sprint races. A hadith from 'Abu Daud' also says that prophet was a fine wrestler.²³¹ Whether or not the prophet was an active sportsperson or not, it is worthwhile to examine how the religion and its beliefs spread throughout the subcontinent.

²²⁹ J. L. Esposito, 'Islam in Asia: An Introduction', in J. L. Esposito (ed.), *Islam in Asia: Religion, Politics, and Society*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1987, p. 11.

²³⁰ M. Stokes, "'Strong as a Turk': Power, Performance and Representation in Turkish Wrestling", in J. MacClancy (ed.), *Sports, Identity and Ethnicity*, Berg, Oxford, 1996, p. 23.

²³¹ Apparently he challenged a person named 'Rukane' and agreed on the prize of a sheep for the winner. The prophet defeated Rukane more than once and in response Rukane claimed that he was beaten by a 'spiritual power'. See Stokes, "'Strong as a Turk'", p. 23.

3.4 Muslim Rulers in India

Four different groups of Muslims introduced and promoted Islam throughout the subcontinent. Here, the Arabs first introduced the Muslim faith in 711 AD (as explained briefly below).²³² They were followed by subsequent influential ‘waves’, namely the Turks from Central Asia, then the Pathans from Afghanistan, and, finally, the Moghuls from Central Asia.²³³ Except for casual links, there was no permanent interaction between the people of the subcontinent and Muslims, up to the early part of the eighth century AD. Muslims would arrive for trade and commercial purposes, and then return to their native lands.²³⁴

According to Ikram, the first major conflict between Arabs and India took place in 711-712 AD. Some Arab sailors died near Ceylon, and the local ruler arranged to send their families, including women and children, back home with gifts. These families were attacked and held captive near Debul (now Karachi), which was under the rule of Raja Dahir. The Muslim Governor of Iraq requested that they hand over the captured Muslim women and children, but he was refused.²³⁵ Two expeditions were sent to free the families of Arab traders, but they failed and then the governor sent a third expedition under the command of his son-in-law, Muhammad Bin Qasim, who was only seventeen years old. The local ruler was defeated, and, for the first time in history, a Muslim flag was hoisted on the soil of the Indian subcontinent.²³⁶

Nizami has noted that Qasim assured all Indians that they were free in terms of religion and trade, and he acted in a most liberal and statesman-like manner. He gave

²³² A. Sattar, *Pakistan's Foreign Policy, 1945-2005: A Concise History*, Oxford Press, Karachi, 2007, p. 1.

²³³ Weekes, *Pakistan: Birth and Growth of a Muslim Nation*, p. 53.

²³⁴ S. M. Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, Columbia University Press, London, 1964, p. 6.

²³⁵ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, p. 6.

²³⁶ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, p. 7.

the Hindus privileges (which Muslim jurists traditionally reserve for Muslims), and he set up a precedent, which, in spite of its doubtful legal authority, became the norm during Muslim rule. By treating the local population well, Qasim won the cooperation of civic officials, and he was so loved by the people that they made statues of him for public display.²³⁷ In particular, Qasim's strategy of giving important jobs to officers who cooperated with him paid dividends in terms of administration and revenue collection.²³⁸ With the advent of Islam, the socio-cultural life of the subcontinent metamorphosed, and part of these changes included the introduction and popularization of Islamic sports and athletic pursuits.²³⁹

Subsequently, the Muslims were not able to expand their domain until after 300 years of occupation of Sind by the Arabs. The Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni staged attacks on the subcontinent between 1000 and 1027 AD.²⁴⁰ He attacked India seventeen times during that period, was never defeated, and every time took valuable resources from India back to Ghazni. He attracted great poets and scholars to his court and made it the equal of Baghdad. Importantly, at least in terms of the scope of this thesis, historians have noted that the sport of polo was played by the armies of Ghazni, and Ikram relates that when the successor of Mahmud appointed a governor to Lahore, he was ordered not to play polo with the Hindu officers.²⁴¹ Ikram also notes that the Ghaznavids introduced the Persian dialect, which was to be the official and literary language throughout India during Muslim rule in India.²⁴² After the death of Mahmud

²³⁷ F. A. Nizami, 'Muhammad Bin Qasim', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 49.

²³⁸ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, p. 10.

²³⁹ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, p. 28.

²⁴⁰ P. Jackson, *The Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2000, p. 6, and Sattar, *Pakistan's Foreign Policy*, p. 2.

²⁴¹ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, p. 28.

²⁴² Ikram, *Modern Muslim India*, p. 3.

there was little Muslim conflict in India for another one and a half centuries.²⁴³ In terms of an historical overview, it can be noted that the Muslim rulers in India during this period were the successors of Mahmud, who had established the Delhi Sultanate. Shams-ud-din Iltutmish and Ghiyas ud din Balban afterwards took over the Delhi Sultanate and remained rulers until the end of the thirteenth-century. Amir Timur then engineered the defeat of the Delhi Sultanate in 1399 before returning to Samarkand. As Sattar explains, ‘The Sayyids and Lodhi Afghans subsequently re-established the Delhi Sultanate and maintained their control up to 1526’.²⁴⁴

3.5 Downfall of the Delhi Sultanate and the Rise of the Mughal Empire

In Indian history, the Delhi Sultanate is the name given to those dynasties that ruled the country from 1210 to 1526. As earlier discussed, Iltutmish established the inaugural Delhi Sultanate in 1210, while the Mughal emperor, Babar, oversaw the end of the final Sultanate and began to establish the Mughal Empire in 1526.²⁴⁵ It was Babar who led a military force into India from Afghanistan, occupied Delhi and Agra, and extended his power eastward, founding the Mughal dynasty (as outlined in the Table below).²⁴⁶ Babar was a progressive ruler, who loved poetry, gardening, and books. He even wrote cultural articles on the Hindus and also took an interest in local flora and fauna.²⁴⁷

²⁴³ Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, p. 39. While wishing to avoid a mere list of Muslim rulers and their exploits, a further sport-related anecdote is worth relating. Jackson notes that Qutb Ud Din Aibak, a former slave and later general, became the ruler of Delhi. According to Jackson, Aibak died in 1211 as the result of an accident while playing polo (Jackson, *The Delhi Sultanate*, p. 29).

²⁴⁴ Sattar, *Pakistan's Foreign Policy*, p. 2.

²⁴⁵ K. A. Nizami, ‘Delhi Sultanate’, in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 376.

²⁴⁶ Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 6, Nizami, ‘Dehli Saltanate’, p. 376, and Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 15.

²⁴⁷ Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, p. 90, and R. Mukhia, ‘Bubur’ in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London 1988, p. 120.

Table 3a: List of Prominent Mughal Emperors.

Source: Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, *passim*.

Note: 'M' signifies the name 'Muhammad'.

Emperor	Date of Birth	Period of Reign	Date of Death
Zahiruddin M. Babur	14 February 1483	1526-1530	26 December 1530
Nasiruddin M. Humayun	6 March 1508	1530-1540	January 1556
Jalaluddin M. Akbar	November 1542	1556-1605	27 October 1605
Nuruddin M. Jahangir	October 1569	1605-1627	1627
Shahabuddin M. Shah Jahan	5 January 1592	1627-1658	1662
Moinunddin M. Aurangzeb Alamgir	21 October 1618	1658-1707	1707
Bhadur Shah Zafar	1775	1837-1857	1862

After an ineffectual second emperor Humayan ruled for a few years, Akbar took the position at the age of twelve in 1556.²⁴⁸ Akbar became more of a warrior than a scholar, and he eventually extended the empire as far south as the Krishna River. Akbar had particularly good relations with local religions, and Robinson notes that Hindus were recruited into the Mughal nobility.²⁴⁹ Akbar's son, Jahangir, succeeded Akbar in 1605, and then Jahangir's son Shah Jahan succeeded Jahangir in 1627. Shah Jahan was especially fond of architecture and he left behind the enormous monuments of the Mughal Empire, including the Taj Majal, the Pearl Mosque, the Royal Mosque, and the Red Fort.²⁵⁰ His son, Aurangzeb succeeded him, becoming emperor in 1658 and remaining in that position until 1689.²⁵¹ It was Aurangzeb who tried to eliminate indigenous traditions, and was more predisposed towards Islam. Although Aurangzeb

²⁴⁸ Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 12.

²⁴⁹ Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 20.

²⁵⁰ Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 123.

²⁵¹ Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 165.

expanded the empire, and tried to dominate the entire subcontinent, it was the Mahrattas of the Deccan, who were able to resist him, until his death in 1707.²⁵²

3.6 The Medieval Period: Physical Activities on the Indian Subcontinent

Most of the evidence for sport and physical activity during the medieval period indicates that these pursuits were used for military preparation, and, as discussed earlier in the chapter, polo can certainly be cited as one of the sports that was used for the fitness and training of troops. A review of Muslim history in India indicates that these sports and games received quite a deal of patronage and encouragement during the Mughal period (1526-1858).²⁵³ The activity of chess was also a favourite pursuit, which was patronised by all the emperors and nobles belonging to the Mughal Court, along with other sports. It is also to be noted that chess had more than one form of play. Besides chess, cards were also another popular pastime of the period.²⁵⁴

The Mughals also patronised the activities of falconry and pigeon breeding, and the Great Akbar (1556-1606) was reported to have had an extensive aviary of falcons and pigeons, keeping at least 25,000 pigeons of different breeds and varieties. In addition to pigeons, the Mughals were also fond of birds of prey, and there is evidence that the Mughals bred and developed falcons in a significant way that was hitherto uncommon in the subcontinental region.²⁵⁵

²⁵² Richards, *The Mughal Empire*, p. 253.

²⁵³ J. A. Cuddon, *The Macmillan Dictionary of Sports and Games*, Macmillan Press, London, 1980, p. 840.

²⁵⁴ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

²⁵⁵ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

Along similar lines, the Mughals also had a keen interest in big game, and were keen on hunting wild beasts such as tigers and lions, taking pride in the number of trophies that they scored. Indeed, as Robinson notes, there are numerous miniature paintings in which there are scenes of big game and a proud Mughal standing beside a killed tiger or lion.²⁵⁶ The Mughals, in particular, were also keen marksmen and hence they often indulged in archery contests. Moreover, as Robinson explains, the tradition of big game hunting, and the involvement of Mughals, was later to continue in the British colonial period.²⁵⁷

The history of the subcontinent also includes references to horseracing, camel racing and even elephant races, which were traditional sporting pursuits across a number of periods.²⁵⁸ These sports not only provided entertainment but they had relevance to the martial profession as horses and elephants were used in battle. Therefore, the above contests of horse, camel and elephant races were patronised by the local rulers, and they also provided interesting spectacles for the general public. The indigenous culture also indulged in dogfights, cockfights and even quail fights (which are still common today on the subcontinent).²⁵⁹

Notwithstanding the individual indulgences discussed above, the foreign Muslim invaders also introduced certain organised team games, such as polo and wrestling.²⁶⁰ Needless to say, the Muslim invaders were warriors and followed a tough lifestyle, requiring fitness and horse riding skills. According to Chehabi and Guttmann, 'polo

²⁵⁶ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁵⁷ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁵⁸ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

²⁵⁹ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

²⁶⁰ H. E. Chehabi and A. Guttmann, 'From Iran to All of Asia: The Origin and Diffusion of Polo', *International Journal of the History and Sport*, vol. 19, nos. 2-3, June-September 2002, p. 392.

was a way to achieve proficiency in the art of warfare'.²⁶¹ It has been found that polo (known as chowgan) was originated and being played in Persia in 500 BC.²⁶² Chehabi and Guttmann further state that 'Tamer Lane (1336-1405) seems to have promoted polo as well as Islam in his domain, which extended from Russia through Iran and Central Asia to India'.²⁶³ But according to Robinson, Mughals brought a sport similar to 'chowgan' to the subcontinent.²⁶⁴ In addition, originating from Afghanistan, 'buzkashi', a similar sport to polo involving other types of horse riding, was also brought to the subcontinent by the invaders, and it should be noted that this particular activity is still popular in some parts of Afghanistan and adjoining border areas of Pakistan.²⁶⁵

Polo is also commonly depicted in the miniature paintings of the Mughal period.²⁶⁶ Viney and Grant noted that the Mughal Emperors, Babar and Akbar, were fans of polo and they also designed the rules of the game.²⁶⁷ Although polo was popular among royalty and the notables of Mughal Court,²⁶⁸ as it required owning horses, its popularity also reached the masses.²⁶⁹ The armies of both England and India continued to patronize polo on account of its cavalry traditions.²⁷⁰ During the British period, it is reported that the sport of polo particularly impressed the British rulers. In Manipur, for example, a polo team comprising of British tea planters was raised,

²⁶¹ Chehabi and Guttmann, 'From Iran to All of Asia', p. 386.

²⁶² R. Hickok, *New Encyclopedia of Sports*, McGraw Hill, New York, 1977, p. 326.

²⁶³ Chehabi and Guttmann, 'From Iran to All of Asia', p. 386.

²⁶⁴ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁶⁵ J. MacClancy, 'Sports Identity and Ethnicity', in J. MacClancy (ed.), *Sports Identity and Ethnicity*, Berg Publisher, Oxford, 1996, p. 3, and Chehabi and Guttmann, 'From Iran to All of Asia', p. 385.

²⁶⁶ Chehabi and Guttmann, 'From Iran to All of Asia', p. 392.

²⁶⁷ N. Viney and N. Grant, *An Illustrated History of Ball Games*, Book Club Association, London, 1978, p. 67.

²⁶⁸ Cuddon, *The Macmillan Dictionary of Sports*, p. 612.

²⁶⁹ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁷⁰ J. Arlott (ed.), *The Oxford Companion to Sports and Games*, Oxford University Press, London, 1975.

which used to have polo matches against the local teams.²⁷¹ In fact, according to Viney and Grant, it was a British cavalry regiment, the Tenth Hussars, that first introduced polo to England.²⁷² The British took a keen interest not only in the local promotion of polo but they also introduced polo in their homeland with just a few slight modifications to its rules.²⁷³

In terms of global diffusion, it should be recognized that polo is now played the world over and international tournaments and matches are quite common.²⁷⁴ In certain parts of the subcontinent, like Manipur (India) and Gilgit (Pakistan), polo is very popular among local communities and still being played in its original form.²⁷⁵ In Pakistan today there is still an annual traditional polo event called the Shandur Polo Festival in the north of Pakistan. The Festival attracts international participation on account of its unique venue, with the Shandur polo ground at the highest plateau (37,000 metres above sea level) of the world in the Karakoram range.²⁷⁶

Robinson provides a useful summary of the early development of wrestling when he explains that Mughals introduced aspects of professionalism to the sport of wrestling by sponsoring 'wrestling competitions'.²⁷⁷ Over time, the subcontinent produced many wrestlers of international fame. Some examples of prominent wrestlers are Mohammad Aziz, the father of Gamma (who also achieved world renown in the

²⁷¹ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁷² Viney, and Grant, *An Illustrated History of Ball Games*, p. 67.

²⁷³ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 158.

²⁷⁴ For details, see The Federation of International Polo, www.fippolo.com, accessed on 11 January 2005, and also Viney, and Grant, *An Illustrated History of Ball Games*, pp. 68-69.

²⁷⁵ Arlott (ed.), *The Oxford Companion to Sports and Games*, p. 788, also Parks, 'Indigenous Polo and the Politics', p. 46.

²⁷⁶ See MacClancy, 'Sports Identity and Ethnicity', p. 6, and O. R. Qurashi, 'Severe Setback to Tourism', *Dawn*, 16 June 2004.

²⁷⁷ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

sport), and ‘Sadika’, who achieved wrestling notoriety as far back as 1840.²⁷⁸ Later many of the rajahs and princes of the Indian subcontinent followed the tradition of sponsorship and became enthusiastic patrons of the sport. In particular, the Maharajas of Patiala, Jodhpur and Datia were among the heads of princely states that took a special interest in the activity.²⁷⁹

Subsequently another Muslim clan produced two wrestlers named ‘Gamma’ and Imam Bux, who were brothers and earned international fame in the early twentieth century.²⁸⁰ During his career, Gamma competed against 1200 wrestlers and was apparently undefeated. Victories of note were his two defeats of the European champion, Stanislus Zbyszko, firstly in London in September 1910, and again in Patiala (India) in 1928, in a bout that lasted only 31 seconds.²⁸¹ The above-mentioned wrestling family migrated to Pakistan in 1947.²⁸² The later members of the clan included Munzor Hussain (‘Bholu’), Mohammed Aslam and Mohammed Akram, who were also wrestlers of world fame.²⁸³

In this context, it worth mentioning kabaddi, a sport which combines aspects of wrestling and athletics in its execution. A highly popular activity on the subcontinent, kabaddi is played in rural regions and to some extent in the urban areas of India and Pakistan. Indeed, folk festivals in both countries usually include a traditional match

²⁷⁸ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

²⁷⁹ I. Beg, ‘Leading Exponents of Traditional Wrestling’, *Dawn*, 28 February 2000.

²⁸⁰ F. G. Meneke, *The Encyclopedia of Sports*, A. S. Barnes and Company, London, 1977, p. 1097. It was common for wrestlers to be known by a single name.

²⁸¹ J. S. Alter, *The Wrestler’s Body: Identity and Ideology in North India*, University of California Press, Los Angeles, 1992, cited in Noel Dyck (eds), *Games, Sports and Cultures*, p. 97. Choudry provides details of the Zbyszko defeats in one of the leading Urdu daily newspapers of Pakistan. See J. Chaudhry, ‘Deemak’, *Daily Jang*, 16 May 2003 [Urdu].

²⁸² Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 395.

²⁸³ Beg, ‘Leading Exponents of Traditional Wrestling’.

of kabaddi.²⁸⁴ Other aspects and further information about kabaddi are discussed below.

3.7 The Arrival of Europeans and the Introduction of British Sports

The explorer Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut in 1498 and by 1510 the Portuguese had conquered Goa. The splendour and wealth of the Mughal Empire also soon attracted British, Dutch, and French interest in the region.²⁸⁵ The British East India Company, which established trading stations at Surat in 1613, Bombay in 1661, and Calcutta in 1691, soon became the dominant power in the area.²⁸⁶ Initially, the Mughal Empire had only peaceful trading relations with the East India Company. However, in the eighteenth century, when the Mughal Empire became weakened due to internal revolts (as discussed earlier), Great Britain and France seized the opportunity to increase their trade and influence in the country.²⁸⁷ Both nations tried to oust each other by aligning themselves with as many native rulers as possible from 1746 to 1763, making India something of a battlefield, as exemplified by a number of military conflicts that took place in the Carnatic region. Ultimately, the French had to 'pack up' and leave the subcontinent, reducing their holdings to minor enclaves, and thus allowing the British to capitalise on the situation.²⁸⁸

The arrival of Europeans in the subcontinent was the major factor behind the introduction of European sports to this region. Hence cricket, which became very popular in India and Pakistan, was introduced by British troops, who organised the

²⁸⁴ Robinson, *The Encyclopedia of India*, p. 396.

²⁸⁵ M. N. Pearson, 'Portuguese in India', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 3, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 273.

²⁸⁶ K. N. Chaudhuri, 'East India Company', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 414.

²⁸⁷ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 15.

²⁸⁸ See Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, p. 244, and Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 26.

first non-British cricket club, the Oriental Cricket Club, in 1848 in India.²⁸⁹ The Oriental Cricket Club was comprised of local 'Parsi' communities who were in close social contact with the British community. With the success of the 'Parsi' cricket club, the other communities, namely Hindus, Sikh and Muslims, followed suit. The first Hindu Cricket club, the Bombay Union, was established in 1866.²⁹⁰ The Muslim community formed their first cricket club in 1880, which was later amalgamated to form the Islam Gymkhana in 1892.²⁹¹ These communities were engaged in cricket, and organised and played matches among themselves. The common factor in the above local cricket clubs was that its members belonged to the local elite despite religious differences.²⁹² Although cricket is not the major focus of this thesis, and a detailed historical treatment is not provided, some aspects of its history are discussed elsewhere in the dissertation.

In terms of foreign influence, a similar background also applies to hockey where India reigned as Olympic champion from 1928 to 1956.²⁹³ Europeans in India introduced hockey but it flourished beyond expectations on Indian soil. Hockey soon became a sport of the masses and due to mass participation and interest the Indians evolved a peculiar style of hockey. The Indian style was characterised by stick-work, ball retention and short passes that were different and distinct from the European style. The triumph of Indian hockey was amply demonstrated at international level, until

²⁸⁹ B. Majumdar 'Cricket in Colonial India: The Bombay Pentangular, 1892-1942', *International Journal of History of Sports*, vol. 19, nos 2/3, June-September 2002, p. 164.

²⁹⁰ Majumdar, 'Cricket in Colonial India', p. 165.

²⁹¹ Majumdar, 'Cricket in Colonial India', p. 165. See also Majumdar, *Twenty-Two Yards*, pp. 3, 204-205.

²⁹² For more on the patronage of subcontinental cricket by native princes and other elites, see Majumdar, *Twenty-Two Yards*, pp. 21-26, 78-80.

²⁹³ Hockey was first included at the Olympic Games in 1928. Meneke, *The Encyclopedia of Sports*, p. 379.

Pakistan challenged their international standing at the 1960 Olympic Games, and won a gold medal.²⁹⁴

Another sport worthy of note is badminton, which was originally played in India where its local name was 'poona'. British officers offered their patronage to the activity in 1860 and the sport was introduced to Britain around 1871-72, with certain modifications and improvements.²⁹⁵ However, Viney and Grant do suggest that badminton was first devised in 1870 by the Duke of Beaufort in Gloucestershire, primarily as a pastime for country weekends, so the precise origins of the game are somewhat clouded.²⁹⁶

3.8 Aligarh and British Sports

It is significant that David Lelyveld also comments on the role and development of sports at Aligarh College, a worthwhile case study of the intersection between sport, politics and religion. Syed Ahmad Khan himself was an active sportsman in his early years, and his appreciation of sport was evident at the College he founded. In his book (little used by sport historians), Lelyveld suggests that sporting activities such as cricket enabled the young students to learn skills for both cooperation and competition, and these skills were directly transferable to any political roles that they might play in the world beyond sport.²⁹⁷ A cricket club was formed at the College in 1878 and by 1881 there were moves to make sport a compulsory part of the

²⁹⁴ Meneke, *The Encyclopedia of Sports*, p. 379.

²⁹⁵ Meneke, *The Encyclopedia of Sports*, p. 47, and W. Liponski, *World Sports Encyclopedia*, MBI Publishing Company, St Paul, USA, 2003, p. 60.

²⁹⁶ Viney and Grant, *An Illustrated History of Ball Games*, p. 130.

²⁹⁷ D. Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation: Muslim Solidarity in British India*, Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1978, p. 319.

curriculum, with boarders at the school required to pay a 'cricket fee'.²⁹⁸ With the arrival of Theodore Beck, an educator from England, sports, particularly cricket, assumed even greater importance. In his first year, as principal, Beck led the cricket team on a tour of the Punjab, and as Lelyveld notes 'spectators could see what Aligarh was all about whenever a match stopped for prayers'.²⁹⁹ Beck himself believed that Aligarh had a distinct role in 'fostering a spirit for manly games and manly sentiments' and he claimed that the reputation of the College depended 'to a very large extent, on the success of our cricket and foot-ball elevens'.³⁰⁰

But sport at the College was not without its opposition, with some critics suggesting that Aligarh was winning games at the expense of providing a good education.³⁰¹ Even Lelyveld himself questions why cricket was so attractive to both headmasters and students. In seeking to answer his own question, he observes that:

In a match with a British regiment team, it became temporarily irrelevant that they were in India as an army of occupation. The only relevant mark of status was athletic skill. Obviously, this was a major motivation for playing cricket: it was the game of India's rulers, and there was something to be said for playing them at their own game – especially if you could win.³⁰²

Lelyveld also makes the point that cricket differed from Indian games like kabaddi in terms of the elaboration of the rules and the differentiation of roles among players. As he states, other sports required perpetual alertness and continual movement, but

²⁹⁸ Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, p. 254.

²⁹⁹ Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, p. 255.

³⁰⁰ Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, pp. 255-56. The College also fostered athletics and equestrian sports, as well as compulsory drill. For a brief comment of Beck and the running of the college cricket club, see Majumdar, *Twenty-Two Yards*, p. 96.

³⁰¹ See especially the criticisms of Khvajah Yusef, as noted in Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, p. 257.

³⁰² Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, p. 258.

cricket unfolded with slow, well-considered deliberation, perhaps more in keeping with the Indian climate and environment.³⁰³ Whatever the case might be, it is clear that sport at Aligarh in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century was a precursor to much more extensive Muslim involvement in such activities, as explained later in the thesis.

3.9 The War of Independence and its Repercussions

According to Farwell, after the death of the sixth Moghul emperor, Aurugzzeb, in 1707, 'India began a slide into anarchy'.³⁰⁴ Many governors of different states became independent and called themselves 'rajahs'. In this condition, the East India Company tried to maintain its influence over the subcontinent as conveniently as it could. During this process, the Company faced competition and resistance both within and without India. Therefore, the company's officers had to become involved in Indian politics.³⁰⁵ It is noteworthy that Robert Clive, who defeated the Nawab of Bengal in 1757, was considered to be the founder of the British Empire in India. The East India Company controlled the government's India Office, while the rest of India remained under the supervision of Indian princes, with British residents in effective control. Eventually, the British extended their control over Sind in 1843 and Punjab in 1849.³⁰⁶

The involvement of the British on the subcontinent came to a head with the so-called Indian 'Mutiny' of 1857. The literature on this event is extensive, but a brief summary of this significant turning point in history will suffice for the purposes of

³⁰³ Lelyveld, *Aligarh's First Generation*, pp. 258-59.

³⁰⁴ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 15.

³⁰⁵ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, pp. 15-16.

³⁰⁶ For further details see, D. Judd, *The Lion and the Tiger: The Rise and Fall of the British Raj, 1600-1947*, Oxford University Press, New York, 2004.

this chapter. As the East India Company employed local Indians in their army, the seeds of the rebellion against the Company were sown at an early stage. The incident, which eventually led to the rebellion, was the issuance to the native forces of cartridges greased with the fat of cows (a sacred animal for Hindus) and pigs (a forbidden practice for Muslims), with pins that were to be taken out by mouth before firing of the rifles.³⁰⁷ Understandably, Muslim and Hindu soldiers of the Royal Indian Army refused to follow this practice. The first serious incident took place in the Meerath cantonment, when 85 soldiers refused to use those cartridges, an event which, according to Farwell was 'a stupid administrative mistake'. The soldiers were subsequently court-martialled and paraded before the whole garrison. The remaining soldiers of the Third Light Cavalry, the Eleventh and Twentieth Bengal Native Infantry, then mutinied.³⁰⁸ Emotions soared and rebellion broke out throughout India. The rebels captured Delhi and Bahadar Shah Zafar was installed as the King of all India. However, forces, led by Sir John Shore, soon recovered Delhi. Two sons of Zafar, the last Mughal Emperor, were shot dead, and Zafar himself was imprisoned and transported to Rangoon, where he later died.³⁰⁹

After the failure of the attempt to restore Moghul rule by the rebels, the Muslims had to bear the brunt of the retaliatory British actions. The British believed that the Muslims were behind the mutiny and they took revenge by having troops occupy most of the prominent mosques.³¹⁰ The most important outcome of this 'Mutiny' was that in 1858 India came under the direct control of the British Crown when Queen Victoria issued a proclamation taking upon herself 'the government of territories of India', and

³⁰⁷ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 39.

³⁰⁸ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 40.

³⁰⁹ M. A. Ali, 'Mughal Empire', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 44.

³¹⁰ Ikram, *Muslim Civilization in India*, pp. 287-288.

Lord Canning, the last Governor General under the East India Company, took charge as the first Viceroy of India.³¹¹ The appointment of Indian councillors, to advise the Viceroy, and the establishment of provincial councils with Indian members in 1861, thus became the first steps taken towards self-government in British India.³¹²

Tension with the Muslim population of India quickly began to simmer, as Muslims now felt deprived of their right to political leadership in India. Hatred of the British began to fester, and confrontations with the British occurred, notably with Sayyid Ahmad instituting the Rai Bareilly movement against the British.³¹³ Some writers have suggested that a lack of education and proper leadership meant that Muslims failed to join the mainstream of Indian life.³¹⁴ However, it seems that Muslims were not ready to undertake western forms of education and, compared to Muslim students, it was Hindu students that had good attendance rates in most of the schools.³¹⁵ The percentage of Muslims in government services was also very low when compared to Hindus.³¹⁶ It was Syed Ahmad Khan, who tried to redress this situation by providing an environment in which the Muslims of India could receive a western education alongside their Islamic education. In 1875, he established the Muhammadan Anglo Oriental College in Aligarh,³¹⁷ which ultimately became a university in 1920, as

³¹¹ Farwell, *Armies of the Raj*, p. 45.

³¹² H. Tinker, 'Government of India', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 515.

³¹³ The Wahabi movement also gave the British a tough time but they were eventually crushed. Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, pp. 146-7.

³¹⁴ Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, p. 142.

³¹⁵ For example, there were only 77 Muslim students compared to 736 Hindu students in the government institutions of the Bombay Presidency in 1871-72 undertaking the subjects of law, medicine, engineering, teaching, and industrial art. Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, pp. 149-150.

³¹⁶ Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, p. 151.

³¹⁷ Lelyveld has summarized the key role of Syed Ahmad Khan, noting that when the conditions of the Muslims of India became very poor in the context of education and politics, it was Khan who accepted the challenge of rebuilding political and educational opportunities for Muslims. Khan himself had very cordial relations with the British due to his help in saving some of their lives during the mutiny. He tried to bridge the sometimes wide gulf between Muslims and the British, and stressed upon the former their need to get a modern education in order to be on a par with the Hindus. Then, according to Khan,

previously discussed above.³¹⁸ The feelings of the common Muslim at this time have been well described by Rabbani. He maintains that Indian political culture took a new twist with the establishment of a new political party, the Indian National Congress, in 1885. The Muslims already understood the ulterior motives of both Hindus and British as they were exposed to them in the War of Independence/Mutiny of 1857 and the Hindi Urdu language controversy of 1867, when Hindu enthusiasts tried to replace Urdu with Hindi as the preferred language. Therefore, Muslims, on the directives of their leaders, kept aloof from this party as they watched a clear tilt in its policies towards Hindus.³¹⁹

3.10 Muhammad Ali Jinnah, the Muslim League and the Birth of Pakistan

There is a long list of people who sacrificed their time and energy and sometimes physical health for the independence of India. Below is a brief introduction to three prominent leaders who were active in the freedom movement in the years leading up to 1947. Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru were the leaders of the Hindus, while Muhammad Ali Jinnah (who is discussed in considerably more detail below) represented the Muslim community at this time. The common thing among these men was that they were all educated in Britain, where they had completed their studies in the field of law. Gandhi was considered as the father of modern India, and was the leader of the so-called Indian freedom movement. Nehru came from a family of Kashmiri Brahmans. In contrast to Gandhi, Nehru held that non-violence had no place in any defence against aggression and thus he believed India should support

with the weapon of education, they could actively participate in politics. With this purpose in mind, he initiated the Aligarh Movement and opened English language schools and colleges at various locations. It is thus difficult to deny the fact that the graduates of Aligarh played a pivotal part in the creation of Pakistan.

³¹⁸ Kulkarni, *India and Pakistan*, p. 152.

³¹⁹ I. Rabbani, *A Comprehensive Book on Pakistan*, Feroze Sons, Lahore, 2001, pp. 70-78, and Jaffrelot, 'Introduction', p. 8.

Britain in a war against Nazism, but only as a free nation.³²⁰ Another important point is that while Gandhi refused to accept the partition of India, Nehru reluctantly but realistically acquiesced. On 15 August 1947, India and Pakistan emerged as two separate, independent countries, and Nehru became independent India's first Prime Minister.³²¹

Muhammad Ali Jinnah first entered political life in India by participating in the 1906 Calcutta session of the Indian National Congress, the party that had called for dominance status and later for independence for India. Jinnah, widely acknowledged as the founder of Pakistan, joined the Muslim League in 1913 and remained the member of both the Muslim League and Congress till 1920. Jinnah resigned from Congress due to his differences with Gandhi over the issue of non-cooperation against the government.³²²

In response to this report, Jinnah announced fourteen points for the resolution of political differences, and his ideas aroused much discussion. For instance, Allama Muhammad Iqbal, a poet philosopher, in his address at the annual meeting of the All India Muslim League at Allahbad, suggested a 'Two Nation Theory'. He clearly laid down the cultural, religious, social and political differences between Hindus and Muslims and urged the British government to divide India on the basis of Muslim and Hindu majority areas.³²³ The Lahore Resolution, popularly known as the Pakistan Resolution, was eventually passed on 23 March 1940 at Lahore in the annual meeting

³²⁰ On Nehru's life, see B. R. Nanda, *Gokhale, Gandhi, and the Nehrus: Studies in Indian Nationalism*, St Martin's Press, New York, 1974, and G. Harold and W. H. Burchett, *Nehru of India*, Burke Printers, Essendon, 1942.

³²¹ Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, pp. 638-639.

³²² M. Hassan, 'All India Muslim League', in A. T. Embree (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Asian History*, vol. 1, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1988, p. 47.

³²³ Hassan, 'All India Muslim League', p. 48.

of the All India Muslim League under the presidency of Jinnah. The resolution demanded the creation of Pakistan on the basis of Islamic ideology and a proposed 'Two Nation Theory'.³²⁴

On 3 June 1947, after seven years of controversy surrounding this resolution, Lord Mountbatten, the last Viceroy of India, announced his partition plan. Therefore, on 14 August 1947, two new nations emerged on the global map, namely India and Pakistan. Jinnah became the first Governor General of Pakistan, and Lord Mountbatten became the first Governor General of India.³²⁵ Pakistan, under the leadership of Jinnah, had to face many challenges soon after its creation, including the rehabilitation problems of refugees, the hostile attitude of India, financial constraints, lack of officials and official machinery, canal water disputes, the accession of the princely states and many other constitutional cum political problems.³²⁶

3.11 The Administrative and Political History of Pakistan

As it is evident from the above discussion, the Islamic Republic of Pakistan emerged in 1947 when British India was partitioned into two sovereign states – India and Pakistan.³²⁷ This ideological state came into existence on the basis of religion. Since independence, the military has been a major player in national affairs and for around half of its life the country has been under martial law and is presently under military rule for the fourth time.³²⁸ The country stretches over 1,600 kilometres from north to

³²⁴ Weekes, *Pakistan: Birth and Growth of a Muslim Nation*, p. 85.

³²⁵ Bhattacharya, *A Dictionary of Indian History*, p. 495.

³²⁶ Weekes, *Pakistan: Birth and Growth of a Muslim Nation*, pp. 93-94.

³²⁷ The word Pakistan is the combination of two words; *Pak* (pure) and *Istan* (land); meaning 'the land of the pure'.

³²⁸ In October 1999, in a bloodless military coup, General Pervez Musharraf (Chief of Army Staff) removed the civilian government on charges of incompetence and corruption and declared himself the

south and about 885 kilometres across from east to west, covering a total area of 796,095 square kilometres. The population of the country has increased from 32.5 million in 1947 to 156.8 million in 2006, with an average growth rate of 2.6 percent.³²⁹ Pakistan's population growth rate was actually 3.0 percent in 1981, but it decelerated to 2.4 percent by the middle of 1998 and to 2.1 percent by the first quarter of 2001.³³⁰ The vast majority of the people are Muslim and Islam plays a very dominant role in the daily life of ordinary people. Urdu is the national language and is used as the medium of communication throughout the country. Administratively and culturally, the country is divided into four provinces. Punjabi is spoken in the province of Punjab, Sindhi in Sind, Pushto in North West Frontier Province (NWFP), and Baluchi in Baluchistan.³³¹ All the four provinces are composed of districts and each district consists of tehsils or ta'llukas.³³² At the lowest level there are union councils.³³³ Since 2001, these administrative units have been controlled by democratically elected local councils, each headed by a nazim (administrator). Women have been allotted a minimum of 33% seats in these councils; there is no upper limit to the number of women in such councils.³³⁴

'Chief Executive' of the country. His rule was legalised by a Supreme Court verdict which allowed him three years to amend the constitution if necessary. In June 2001, he also removed President Rafiq Tarar and appointed himself as the President of Pakistan. Parliamentary elections were held in October 2002. A State of Emergency was declared by Musharraf in November 2007.

³²⁹ See Government of Pakistan, *Economic Survey, 2006-2007*, at www.finance.gov.pk/survey/main.html, accessed 5 July 2007.

³³⁰ Government of Pakistan, *Economic Survey, 2000-2001*. The reasons for a decrease in the population growth rate include the overall economic situation of the country, an increase in poverty, an increase in unemployment and later marriages. In addition, slowly and gradually, the literacy situation is also improving and due to mass awareness, more people are inclined to use family planning devices.

³³¹ On the basis of its geographical location, NWFP was the name was given to the province when it was separated from Punjab during British rule in India.

³³² These are the basic administrative units.

³³³ The present military government has initiated a devolution plan. However, as this program is still in incubation it is hard to predict its success or failure, particularly given current events.

³³⁴ See Wikipedia, 'Nazim', <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nazim>, accessed on 13 November, 2007.

In addition to serious economic hardships and high debt burden, the country is also facing several other problems, particularly the high level of corruption, mismanagement, political instability and future uncertainty. Such a negative view of the situation is supported by a number of observers, including popular sports star, turned political aspirant, Imran Khan. Almost two decades ago, Khan noted in his biography that corruption in Pakistan was ‘more or less institutionalised’. He claimed that because wages were so low and inflation was so high, even ordinary police officers could not support a family unless they indulged in accepting bribes. As a result, reasoned Khan, the ‘menace’ of corruption had simply become a part of the way of life in Pakistan.³³⁵

Being situated in a troubled region, the country is surrounded by problems relating to national and regional security, some of which include the Kashmir dispute with India, civil war in Afghanistan, jihadism, and sectarianism. The internal economic crises, the role of and the ill-advised conditionalities imposed by international donors and, above all, mass illiteracy, high human deprivation and human insecurity, make the process of human development extremely difficult and complicated.³³⁶ Since Pakistan’s inception, different governments have pursued various socio-economic policies to bring about an improvement in the country's overall condition, but in spite of the above problems, its economy has shown a reasonable growth in the past, averaging over six percent from the mid-1970s to the end of the 1980s, prompting allusions to the economic miracles of the south-east Asian ‘tigers’.³³⁷ In 1993, an eminent intellectual drew the picture of Pakistan’s development experience in the following way:

³³⁵ I. Khan, *All Round View*, Chato and Windus, London, 1988, p. 184.

³³⁶ For discussion of some of these problems, see Dent, ‘Islam’s Fault Line’.

³³⁷ Government of Pakistan, *Statistical Indicators*, 1997, p. 33.

Pakistan is a unique country. Born with its two halves more than a thousand miles apart, it was the only modern nation of its size whose very identity was based on religion. The country experienced a massive and violent exchange of population with India. It began its national existence short of any manufacturing industries, bankers and entrepreneurs. There has been much trauma in the country's political history – three wars with India, three full-scale military coups, political instability, a bloody civil war resulting in the separation of Bangladesh and, since 1979, the influx of three million refugees from Afghanistan. For all the apparent disadvantages regarding the country's development, Pakistan's economy has grown more rapidly than the economies of its South Asian neighbors. Moreover, compared with the parallel experience of other low-income countries, there has been a fair continuity of growth through Pakistan's successive regimes. ... In spite of this commendable growth, there are some very serious anomalies and drawbacks in the country's economy. No Asian country with nearly its growth record has had its bleak record in the development of its social sectors, i.e., education, including literacy, health, population programmes and participation of women in the modernisation process.³³⁸

However, this economic development could not be sustained mainly due to the neglect of the social sector and human development process. Resultantly, the country is facing serious economic problems which are further complicating the overall process of human development. Unfortunately, these economic problems are closely linked with the volatile political history of the country, which in fact is the story of personal gains over state interests, as well as continued political confrontations and agitations. The fast and rapidly changing politico-historical scenarios of the country can be judged from a list of political leaders and the varying lengths of their terms of office, as indicated in the Table below. Important to note is the sometimes very quick turnover of political leadership, the prevalence of 'caretaker' positions, the accusations of corruption and incompetence against key office-holders, and the

³³⁸ E. A. Naik, *Pakistan: Economic Situation and Future Prospects: South Asia as a Dynamic Partner*, Vanguard Books, Lahore, 1993, pp. 1-2.

frequent instigation of martial law, all of which help to de-stabilise and limit effective government. Thus, while the focus of the thesis is not devoted exclusively to the political history of Pakistan, factors that impact on its political history must be borne in mind throughout any discussion of the government delivery of sport. While the lengthy Table below could perhaps have relegated to an Appendix, it is important to highlight just how politically unstable the situation in Pakistan has been over many years.

Table 3b: Important Political Changes and Events in the History of Pakistan, 1947-2007.

Source: Information compiled from various sources.

Year	Head of State		Important Events
	Governor Generals (GG)/Presidents	Prime Ministers (PM)	
1947	Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah (First GG, 1947-48)	Liaqat Ali Khan (First PM, 1947-51)	1947 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • August: Creation of Pakistan • October: First Indo-Pak war over sovereignty of Kashmir
1948 ↓ 1951	Khawaja Nazimuddin (GG, 1948-51)		1948 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Death of Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah 1949 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Nations arranges cease-fire in Kashmir
1951 ↓ 1954	Ghulam Mohammad (GG, 1951-55)	Khawaja Nazimuddin (1951-53)	1951 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Liaqat Ali Khan assassinated
1955 ↓ 1956	Iskandar Mirza (GG, 1955-56)	Muhammad Ali Bogra (1953-55) Choudhry Mohammad Ali (1955-56)	1953 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anti-Qadiani riots and Martial Law 1954 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National assembly dissolved 1955 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ghulam Mohammad (GG) resigned • One Unit plan implemented

<p>1956 ↓ 1958</p>	<p>Iskandar Mirza (First President, 1956-58)</p>	<p>H. S. Suharwardy (1956-57)</p> <p>I.I. Chundrighgar (1957)</p> <p>Feroz Khan Noon (1957-58)</p>	<p>1956</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First constitution promulgated • Federal parliamentary system • Country was officially declared the Islamic Republic of Pakistan <p>1957</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iskandar Mirza dismissed the Prime Minister • Feroz Khan Noon formed the government <p>1958</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iskandar Mirza abrogates the constitution
<p>1958 ↓ 1969</p>	<p>General Muhammad Ayub Khan (Chief Martial Law Administrator and then President, 1958-69)</p>	<p>1962</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Second constitution • Presidential system promulgated • China-India war <p>1963</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • China-Pakistan border pact <p>1965</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Second war between India and Pakistan 	
<p>1969 ↓ 1971</p>	<p>General Yahya Khan (Chief Martial Law Administrator and President, 1969-71)</p>	<p>1970</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General election • Political unrest <p>1971</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Civil war in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) • Third war between India and Pakistan • Independence of Bangladesh 	
<p>1971 ↓ 1973</p>	<p>Zulifquar Ali Bhutto (New civilian Chief Martial Law Administrator and President, 1971-73)</p> <p>Nurul Amin (PM: 1971)</p>	<p>1972:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shimla agreement between India and Pakistan 	
<p>1973 ↓ 1978</p>	<p>Fazal-i-Ilahi Choudhry (1973-78)</p>	<p>Zulifquar Ali Bhutto (1973-77)</p>	<p>1973</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Third constitution promulgated <p>1974</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government nationalised industries

<p>1977 ↓ 1984</p>	<p>General Muhammad Zia ul Haq (Chief Martial Law Administrator, 1977 and then President, 1978)</p>		<p>1977</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General election and civil unrest <p>1979</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pakistan joined Non-Aligned Movement • Soviet intervention in Afghanistan <p>1980</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United States pledged military assistance to Pakistan against the Soviet threat • General Zia ul Haq introduces plan to Islamise Pakistan <p>1984</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Referendum on Islamisation
<p>1985 ↓ 1988</p>	<p>General Zia ul Haq (1978-88)</p>	<p>Mohammad Khan Junejo (1985-88)</p>	<p>1985</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Islamic Banking introduced • Non-party election <p>1986</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Movement for restoration of democracy
<p>1988 ↓ 1993</p>	<p>Ghulam Ishaq Khan (1988-93)</p>	<p>Benazir Bhutto (1988-90)</p>	<p>1988</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Junejo's government dismissed • Zia ul Haq dies in an air crash • Election held
		<p>Ghulam Mustafa Jatoi (Care-Taker PM, 1990)</p>	<p>1990</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethnic trouble increases in the province of Sind • Benazir Bhutto (PM) dismissed • National Assembly dissolved • Ghulam Mustfa Jatoi became Care-Taker PM for three months
		<p>Nawaz Sharif (1990-93)</p> <p>Balkh Sher Mazari (Care-Take PM, 1993)</p> <p>Nawaz Shrif (1993)</p>	<p>1990</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New election • Nawaz Shrif becomes PM <p>1993</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nawaz Sharif dismissed on charges of corruption and incompetence • National Assembly dissolved • Nawaz Sharif re-instated by the Supreme Court • Both Nawaz Sharif and Ghulam Ishaq Khan step-down under military pressure
<p>1993 ↓ 1997</p>	<p>Wasim Sajjad (Acting President, July 1993)</p> <p>Farooq Ahmad</p>	<p>Moeen Qureshi (Care-Taker PM, July 1993)</p> <p>Benazir Bhutto</p>	<p>1993</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New election • Benazir Bhutto becomes PM <p>1996</p>

	Khan Leghari (1993-97)	(Second term, 1993-96) Malik Miraj Khalid (Care-Taker PM, 1996-97)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benazir Bhutto's government dismissed by the President on charges of corruption and incompetence • Malik Miraj Khalid appointed as Care-Taker PM for a period of three months
1997 ↓ 2001	Mohammad Rafiq Tarar (1998-2001)	Nawaz Sharif (Second term, 1997-99)	1997 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General election • Nawaz Shrif becomes Prime Minister 1998 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pakistan conducted nuclear tests
		General Parvez Musharraf (Chief Martial Law Administrator/Chief Executive, 1999)	1999 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social unrest and mass-demonstrations against the government • Military take-over
2001 ↓ 2007	General Parvez Musharraf (Chief Martial Law Administrator, later President of Pakistan, June 2001 to present day)		2001 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mohammad Rafiq Tarar removed from the Presidency • General Parvez Musharraf assumed the position of President • 11 September - Terrorist attacks in America affected the politico-economic situation of Pakistan. November 2002 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Zaffarullah Khan Jamali becomes PM June-August 2004 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shujaat Hussain becomes PM August 2004 to present <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shaukat Aziz becomes PM

3.12 Sports in Pakistan after 1947

This section of the chapter will provide a substantive overview of the history of sport in modern (post-partition) Pakistan, with a particular focus on Pakistani performances at the elite level. Based on the review of literature discussed in Chapter One, it is worth noting that no such synopsis has ever been published before. This section will also examine how the newly-born country of Pakistan adopted certain western sports, and be followed by sections dealing with the role of educational and media institutions in the development of sporting pursuits. A more specific discussion of

sport policy, and the role of the government in delivering sport at the elite level, is offered in Chapter Five.

After partition, there is a common perception that the nation brimmed with emotion and people from all walks of life were prepared to sacrifice anything and everything for the development of the newborn country. The spirit at the time of independence was somewhat different than the national feeling that exists in Pakistan today. Despite a poor national health quotient, low fitness standards, a great level of poverty, and the absence of training and sports infrastructure, Pakistan was still able to record a number of achievements at the international level in individual and team sports. Some of these achievements are outlined below (with a primary focus on the Olympic Games), although it should be recognised that even the continuation and maintenance of sport at a grassroots level was in itself a significant and worthy objective.³³⁹

Before discussing Pakistan's performances at the Olympic Games, it is worthwhile to note some of the nation's achievements in a range of non-Olympic sports. For instance, the British in India introduced the sport of squash, but it is Pakistan that has produced about a dozen world champions.³⁴⁰ Moreover, Rutnagur has stated that before partition, at least two Muslim players, Hashim Khan and Abdul Bari, were well known in Indian squash. Overall though, achievements by Pakistan players are unsurpassable. After partition, Hashim Khan, representing Pakistan, won the British Open Championship seven times, while Azam Khan won the world title four times in the 1970s. Later, Jahangir Khan retained the world title for six years to be followed by Jansher Khan who created a unique world record by winning the World Open title

³³⁹ Personal communication with J. A. Khan, March 2006.

³⁴⁰ For details on how squash flourished in Pakistan, see Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited*.

eight times. It is interesting to note that all the above named squash legends belonged to one family, situated in a small village in a north-western frontier province of Pakistan, indicating that family ties are a factor in the level of success achieved in some sports.³⁴¹

Kabaddi, as discussed earlier, is one of several traditional sports still practiced in Pakistan. With certain modifications, kabaddi was included in the Beijing Asian Games in 1990.³⁴² It is also pertinent to note that in 1936 an Indian organization named Hanuman Vayam Prasarak Mandal was formed in order to promote indigenous games. This organisation arranged to send a kabaddi team to the Berlin Olympic Games in order to demonstrate various Indian indigenous games.³⁴³ More recently, in Pakistan, the Prime Minister's Kabaddi Cup has been instituted. Kabaddi teams from Canada and England participated in the Prime Minister's International Kabaddi Tournament first held at Islamabad in 1999.³⁴⁴

3.13 Pakistan's Participation in the Olympic Games

There has been a limited amount of information published on Pakistan's participation in the Olympic Games. As noted earlier, Baka, Hess and Nawaz have summarised some of this information in their brief comparative overview of developments in Australia and Pakistan, and the material below expands on their work.³⁴⁵ In this presentation of the information, different sports are dealt with separately, as their development differs slightly according to particular circumstances. In this context, it

³⁴¹ Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited*, p. xv.

³⁴² S. S. Ghosh, 'The Origin of Games in India', *Olympic Review*, December 1995-January 1996, p. 17.

³⁴³ Alter, 'Kabaddi, a National Sport', p. 94.

³⁴⁴ Personal communication with A. M. Khawaja, President of the Pakistan Kabaddi Federation, 2 February 2005.

³⁴⁵ See Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', pp. 167-184.

should be noted that National Games were held for the first time in Pakistan in 1948 and this event was to serve as an important precursor to participation in the forthcoming Olympic Games, which were due to resume after a war-time hiatus in London later that year.³⁴⁶

Hockey is one of Pakistan's most popular sports and it could, in fact, as noted earlier, be considered the national game. The sport of hockey also serves as something of a useful case study or template in terms of how it evolved and was managed at the elite level in the decade after partition. Immediately after independence some of the stalwarts of the game, such as Colonel A. I. S. Dara, Aziz Malik, Niaz Khan and Abdul Hameed Hameedi, who had all already represented India at Olympic level, formed the mainstay of a relatively strong team which participated in the 1948 Olympic Games and finished fourth.³⁴⁷ Another strong squad was sent to Helsinki in 1952, but again no medal success was achieved. In response, the government set up an inquiry (headed by Riazuddin Ahmad) to specifically investigate the failure of the team, and to make recommendations for improving the elite level of the sport in Pakistan.³⁴⁸ It was not until the next Games in 1956 that the team eventually won a medal, finishing second at the tournament in Melbourne, and then winning gold at the Rome Olympic Games in 1960.³⁴⁹ Listings of all medals won by Pakistan at the summer Olympic Games and listings broken down by particular sports are provided below and listed in Appendix 7.

³⁴⁶ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 173.

³⁴⁷ Pakistan Sports Board, www.sports.gov.pk/hockey, accessed on 17 September 2003.

³⁴⁸ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 281. See also Pakistan Sports Board, *Annual Report 1972/73*, p. 20, and discussion in Chapter Five of the thesis.

³⁴⁹ A. Kabir, 'The Rise and Fall of Pakistan Hockey', *Dawn*, 22 September 2002.

The success of Pakistan hockey was thus partly due to historical factors, whereby a number of former Indian hockey players like Feroze Khan, Mohammad Jaffer, Lal Shah, Masud Minhas and Ali Iqtadar Shah formed the core of the team.³⁵⁰ However, it is also clear that a pattern of government inquiries following poor international sporting performances was also now set, and such strategies, or policy initiatives, were to be common re-occurrences at other times and for other sports.³⁵¹

Table 3c: Pakistan Olympic Medals, 1948-2004.

Source: PSB, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 14 November 2007.

Note: Pakistan did not compete in the 1980 Olympic Games. Pakistan has never competed in the winter Olympic Games.

Year	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1948	0	0	0	0
1952	0	0	0	0
1956	0	1	0	1
1960	1	0	1	2
1964	0	1	0	1
1968	1	0	0	1
1972	0	1	0	1
1976	0	0	1	1
1980	-	-	-	-
1984	1	0	0	1
1988	0	0	1	1
1992	0	0	1	1
1996	0	0	0	0
2000	0	0	0	0
2004	0	0	0	0
Total Medals	3	3	4	10

As the medal table reveals, Pakistan had no real success at the Olympic Games in the immediate post-World War II period, but it did participate in hockey, athletics and boxing, gaining considerable exposure and experience in these international sports. The Rome Olympic Games of 1960 were something of a watershed, as Pakistan, with

³⁵⁰ Pakistan Sports Board, www.sports.gov.pk/hockey, accessed on 17 September 2003.

³⁵¹ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 282.

better preparation and a passionate zeal to de-throw India in hockey (who had been Olympic champions since 1928), won not only a gold medal in that event, but also a bronze medal in wrestling. But the failure of Pakistani athletes to follow up their success at the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games had major repercussions. In December 1967, the government set up a National Sports Committee, including a military officer as the secretary, to investigate whether or not the poor Olympic performance was representative of an overall deterioration of national standards in sports and games.³⁵² The methodology of the investigation involved a comprehensive survey and interviews with key sports personnel, athletes, educationalists, and even some fans.³⁵³ Two years later, the conclusion of the Committee was that there had been a decline in sporting standards (especially since 1962), that there were probably fewer numbers of people actually participating in sport, and that there had been a reduction in the number of sports spectators.

In terms of recommendations, it should be noted that a national sports institute was proposed, a talent identification program (by means of national junior sports tournaments) was mooted, a series of conferences on high performance sport were scheduled, and a Pakistan Women's Sports Board was recommended.³⁵⁴

Pakistan has subsequently participated in all summer Olympic Games, except for the heavily boycotted Moscow Olympics in 1980. As outlined in Table 3c, Pakistan has so far won three gold medals, three silver medals and two bronze medals in hockey (and two bronze medals in boxing and wrestling), a modest return at best. Due largely

³⁵² Pakistan Sports Board, *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 1.

³⁵³ Pakistan Sports Control Board, *Report of the National Sports Committee*, Frontier Exchange Press, Rawalpindi, Pakistan 1968, pp. 148-163.

³⁵⁴ For details of the recommendations, see the appendices to Pakistan Sports Control Board, *Report of the National Sports Committee*.

to unstable political circumstances, and minimal financial investment, not all of the recommendations of the National Sports Committee were enacted, but there is still a widespread recognition by various parties that Pakistan has generally underperformed in the Olympic arena.

Table 3d: Breakdown by Sport of Medals Won by Pakistan at the Olympic Games.

Source: PSB, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 14 November 2007.

Sport	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Boxing	0	0	1	1
Hockey	3	3	2	8
Wrestling	0	0	1	1
Total	3	3	4	10

3.14 Pakistan's Participation in the Commonwealth Games, Asian Games and South Asian Games

While much of the focus and analysis of elite sport is directed at the Olympic Games, it is important that achievements and problems in other international sporting events be taken into account. Accordingly, this section provides a brief overview of Pakistan's involvement in the Commonwealth Games, the Asian Games and the South Asian Games. A number of tables summarise Pakistan's performances at these events in terms of medals won.

Pakistan was initially a regular participant in the Commonwealth Games. However, the imposition of martial law in the country from 1974 to 1986 led to Pakistan's expulsion from the Commonwealth community. With the advent of more stable political regimes, Pakistan has since been restored to membership of the Commonwealth. Even so, it should be admitted that the performance of Pakistan in

this lesser international competition has been relatively poor, with the high point being the 1962 Commonwealth Games when the nation won seven gold medals and one silver medal in wrestling, and one gold medal in athletics. In total, Pakistan has won 61 medals, including 22 gold, at the Commonwealth Games. It is noteworthy that the majority of its Commonwealth medals have been won in the sport of wrestling, a traditional and indigenous sport widely patronised by the people of Pakistan.³⁵⁵

Table 3e: Detail of Medals Won by Pakistan in Commonwealth Games.

Source: www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 20 September 2007.

Note: The asterisk (*) indicates that Pakistan did not compete at these particular Games.

Year	Venue	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1954	1 st Vancouver (Canada)	1	3	2	6
1958	2 nd Cardiff (Wales)	3	5	2	10
1962	3 rd Perth (Australia)	8	1	-	9
1966	4 th Kingston (Jamaica)	4	1	4	9
1970	5 th Edinburgh (Scotland)	4	3	3	10
1974	6 th Christchurch (New Zealand)	*	*	*	*
1978	7 th Edmonton (Canada)	*	*	*	*
1982	8 th Brisbane (Australia)	*	*	*	*
1986	9 th Edinburgh (Scotland)	*	*	*	*
1990	10 th Auckland (New Zealand)	-	-	-	-0
1994	11 th Victoria (Canada)	-	-	3	3
1998	12 th Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia)	-	1	-	1
2002	13 th Manchester (England)	1	3	4	8
2006	14 th Melbourne (Australia)	1	3	1	5
	TOTAL	22	20	19	61

The Asian Games were first organized at Delhi, India, in March 1951. A total of 500 athletes from eleven countries competed across six events.³⁵⁶ This can be compared to the most recent Games where, according to the website of the Olympic Council of Asia, the 2006 Doha Asian Games, attracted 9520 athletes, 45 nations, and there were

³⁵⁵ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 178.

³⁵⁶ Olympic Council of Asia, www.ocasia.org/1AG.asp, accessed on 12 January 2005.

competitions in 39 events. The nation of Japan dominated the Games between 1951 and 1978, but they were later usurped by China.³⁵⁷

Pakistan has been a regular participant at the Asian Games since 1954. As the Table below indicates, its performance peaked in 1962, when it was ranked fourth, winning 28 medals (in athletics, boxing, wrestling and hockey), including a total of eight gold medals. Pakistan has so far won 186 medals, including 40 gold, 61 silver and 85 bronze, at the Asian Games.³⁵⁸

Table 3f: Detail of Medals Won by Pakistan in the Asian Games.

Source: www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 20 September 2007.

Note: The asterisk (*) indicates that Pakistan did not compete at these particular Games.

Year	Venue	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1951	1st Asian Games at New Delhi	*	*	*	*
1954	2nd Asian Games at Manila	5	6	2	13
1958	3rd Asian Games at Tokyo	6	11	9	26
1962	4th Asian Games at Djakarta	8	11	9	28
1966	5th Asian Games at Bangkok	2	4	2	8
1970	6th Asian Games at Bangkok	1	2	7	10
1974	7th Asian Games at Tehran	2	-	8	10
1978	8th Asian Games at Bangkok	4	4	9	17
1982	9th Asian Games at New Delhi	3	3	5	11
1986	10th Asian Games at Seoul	2	4	3	9
1990	11th Asian Games at Beijing	4	1	7	12
1994	12th Asian Games at Hiroshima	-	4	6	10
1998	13th Asian Games at Bangkok	2	4	9	15
2002	14th Asian Games at Busan	1	6	6	13
2006	15 th Asian Games Doha Qatar	0	1	3	4
	TOTAL	40	61	85	186

The South Asian Federation (SAF) Games, now known as the South Asian Games, are a regional sports organisation, which initially had seven (now eight, with the addition of Afghanistan) member countries, namely India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka,

³⁵⁷ Olympic Council of Asia, <http://www.ocasia.org/15AG.asp>, accessed on 22 September 2007.

³⁵⁸ Pakistan Sports Board, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 24 August 2007.

Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan and the Maldives. The SAF Games were first held in 1984 in Kathmandu and so far ten SAF Games have been held in the member countries by rotation.³⁵⁹

As evident in Table 3f, Pakistan displayed its best performance at the 2006 South Asian Games held in Colombo, Sri Lanka. Pakistan won 156 medals, including 41 gold medals, making it the highest ranking nation on the medal chart. Traditionally, India and Pakistan are the strongest contenders, but Sri Lanka has recently challenged this duopoly. According to the official website of the Pakistan Sports Board, so far Pakistan has won 836 medals at the SAF Games, including 234 gold, 319 silver, and 283 bronze medals.³⁶⁰

Table 3g: Detail of Medals Won by Pakistan in the SAF Games.

Source: www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 20 September 2007.

	Venue	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1984	1 st Kathmandu - Nepal	5	3	2	10
1985	2 nd Dhaka - Bangladesh	21	26	12	59
1987	3 rd Calcutta - India	16	36	14	66
1989	4 th Islamabad - Pakistan	42	33	22	97
1991	5 th Colombo - Sri Lanka	28	32	25	85
1993	6 th Dhaka - Bangladesh	23	22	20	65
1995	7 th Madras - India	10	33	36	79
1999	8 th Kathmandu - Nepal	10	36	30	76
2004	9 th Islamabad - Pakistan	38	55	50	143
2006	10 th Colombo - Sri Lanka	41	43	72	156
	Total	234	319	283	836

3.15 Sport and Educational Institutions in Pakistan

The next two sections of the thesis deal with two vital institutions in terms of the development of sport. There is an important and direct link between sport and

³⁵⁹ PSB, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 12 September 2007.

³⁶⁰ PSB, www.sports.gov.pk, accessed on 12 September 2007.

education in developing countries, hence the need for such a discussion at this point. In terms of education, a brief historical overview of the Pakistan education system is provided, and its relevance to sporting development is discussed. In the section immediately following, a similar overview of media institutions and their relationship to sport is outlined, before some general conclusions for the chapter are offered.

It is obvious from the material presented earlier in the thesis that at the time of independence, Pakistan was lacking in a number of important areas of infrastructure. In terms of schooling, Pakistan had few schools or universities, and had a poorly educated population. In this context, according to Javed, the education system at this time was not suitable for a newly-borne country, as it did not fulfil the ideological requirements of Pakistan.³⁶¹ Therefore, in November 1947, after just two months of independence, a national education conference was organised to review education policy.³⁶² The conference dealt with all required agenda items, which resulted in two major recommendations: Firstly, that education should be based on Islamic ideology, and; Secondly, that there should be free and compulsory education up to the fifth year of primary school, which could be extended up to the eighth year of schooling.³⁶³ Later, in 1959, an education policy was announced that reiterated the objectives of the 1947 Educational Conference and provided an articulate framework for translating the abstract concepts into practical realities. The 1959 education policy is commonly known as the Sharif Commission Report on the education history of Pakistan.³⁶⁴ Subsequently, the government of Pakistan announced a National Education Policy

³⁶¹ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', pp. 7-8.

³⁶² Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/education-ministry/highlights/NEP-Foreword.jsp>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

³⁶³ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', p. 8.

³⁶⁴ Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/education-ministry/highlights/NEP-Foreword.jsp>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

1998-2010, Education Sector Reform 2001-2001 and 'National Plan of Action: Education For All, 2001-2015'.³⁶⁵ However, according to the website of the Ministry of Education, an education policy was also announced in 1992 during the first tenure (1990-93) of Prime Minister Muhammad Nawaz Sharif. But within one year of the declaration of the policy, Sharif was ousted. The ideas put forth in the policy, therefore, could not be implemented. After coming into power again in 1997, the Sharif's Muslim League government took a fresh and vigorous look at education and announced an education policy for the period 1998-2010.³⁶⁶

The education system in Pakistan is organised into five levels: primary (grades one through five); middle (grades six through eight); high (grades nine and ten, culminating in matriculation); intermediate (grades eleven and twelve, and university programs leading to undergraduate and advanced degrees. Preparatory classes (kachi, or nursery) were formally incorporated into the system in 1988 with the Seventh Five-Year Plan.³⁶⁷ Sial noted that there is another education system called Maktab or Darul-loom, also known as Madrasas. These educational institutions provide religious education and are mostly supervised by Imams from local mosques. It is worth noting that these schools have no physical education program and only impart religious education.³⁶⁸

Academic and technical education institutions are the responsibility of the federal Ministry of Education, which coordinates instruction through the intermediate level.

³⁶⁵ Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Education, Education Division, www.gov.pk/education-division/policies.jsp, accessed on 15 November 2004.

³⁶⁶ Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Education, Education Division, www.gov.pk/education-division/policies.jsp, accessed on 15 November 2004.

³⁶⁷ See USA Federal Research Division, <http://countrystudies.us/pakistan/>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

³⁶⁸ Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors', pp. 53-54.

Above that level, a designated university in each province is responsible for coordination of instruction and examinations. In certain cases, a different ministry may oversee specialized programs. Universities enjoy limited autonomy and a Higher Education Commission, formerly known as University Grants Commission, oversees their finances. Comparison of data for men and women reveals significant disparity in educational attainment. By 1992, among people older than fifteen years of age, only 22 percent of women were literate, compared with 49 percent of men.³⁶⁹

In terms of physical education, as noted by Sial, ancient Indian universities such as Taxila (about twenty miles North West of Islamabad, Pakistan) and Nalanda (in Bihar, India) did not have any significant physical education programs. Sports, amusements, songs and dance were, of course, common during festivals and marriage occasions, and wrestling, swimming and the use of various weapons were restricted to the warrior class.³⁷⁰ During the time that the British ruled the subcontinent, western education, including physical education, was introduced.³⁷¹ Later on, Swedish-type exercises were introduced and such activities were based around military exercises.³⁷²

When Pakistan came into existence, the need for physical education was re-emphasized. Physical education was introduced as a required subject in the elementary and high schools. The program included gymnastics, intramural, and inter-scholastic athletics. The time allocated for physical education was varied, with some schools having one period daily while others had four periods per week, depending upon the facilities available. The colleges and universities did not have

³⁶⁹ See USA Federal Research Division, <http://countrystudies.us/pakistan/>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

³⁷⁰ Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors', p. 7.

³⁷¹ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', p. 10.

³⁷² Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors', p. 6.

such programs but they had intramural competition, inter-colleges and inter-universities competitions.³⁷³ But, unfortunately, as noted by Sial, the general public never accepted the fact that physical education was as necessary as other subjects.³⁷⁴

Physical education teachers control the physical education program. It is interesting to note that primary schools did not have any physical education teachers. A normal school teacher looks after some aspects of physical education including games. Sial noted that there was only one Physical Education College for teachers in Pakistan up to 1970, and even this College did not have sufficient facilities. The Department of Education in Pakistan did not give attention toward that college and due to a lack of funds there were insufficient facilities required for the training of teachers. Thus, overall, the training of physical education teachers was not up to the mark. Furthermore, physical education teachers were being used for other duties than teaching physical education.³⁷⁵ But now, as noted by Javed, there are three colleges/departments of physical education for teacher training at universities including some private (non-government) physical education colleges affiliated with different universities in Pakistan.³⁷⁶ There is a separate Physical Education College for women in Lahore, while universities have co-education.

Clearly physical education teachers have an important role to play in promoting physical activities in Pakistan. However, Javed has noted (without giving direct evidence) that the curriculum for physical education teachers is not up to date as compared to the rest of the world. Subsequently in his view there may well be a

³⁷³ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', p. 10.

³⁷⁴ Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors', p. 1.

³⁷⁵ Sial, 'Historical, Cultural and Religious Factors', p. 1.

³⁷⁶ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', p. 11.

significant difference between the contemporary needs of Pakistani athletes and the orthodox training of physical education teachers.³⁷⁷

The contemporary education policy (1998-2010) of the government of Pakistan has addressed physical education in a separate section. The objectives of the physical education policy were: firstly, to promote sports and games from the grassroots to all the level of the education system; secondly, to develop infrastructure for linking educational institutions with the Provincial and Federal Sports Boards/Departments and finally, to inculcate the spirit of sportsmanship and other higher values.³⁷⁸ The summary of the present situation of physical education and the role and training of physical education teachers in the education institutions as mentioned in policy is outlined in the following section.

The physical education teachers in educational institutions have a lack of sufficient knowledge required for young students, as their curriculum is mostly on theory rather than having a practical nature. A substantial percentage of physical education graduates neither have the sporting interest nor the relevant background, as it is not necessary for them to have physical education as an elective subject in their previously completed education, or even a sports background while taking admission to the physical education training institute. The only sporting activity in the educational institution is the annual sports function or a physical training display for visiting officers of the education department. Physical education is compulsory in educational institutions with a minimum of three periods of 40 to 45 minutes per week. These periods are never properly utilised. Regular sporting programs are

³⁷⁷ Javed, 'Developing a Strategic Plan', p. 11.

³⁷⁸ Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/education-ministry/highlights/NEP-physical-edu.jsp>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

generally missing from the overall system and the non-availability of playing facilities in schools further adds to this difficulty. Additionally, the existing physical education programs in educational institutions are not relevant to national priorities. Sufficient sports facilities are not available in most educational institutions. Further, the cost of equipment is very high and most of the schools could not buy the required equipment for talented students.³⁷⁹ While the government of Pakistan is endeavouring to solve the above-mentioned problems, they have also promised to provide facilities in rural areas, where 80% of the population is living.³⁸⁰

In terms of education, and by way of a limited conclusion, there are three major areas which affect the development of sport in Pakistan. These are the Education sector (the Ministry of Education); the Physical Education Training Colleges (responsible for training of physical education teachers), the Pakistan Sports Board (the government of Pakistan's agency responsible for promotion of sports). It is unfortunate for Pakistan that there is no coordination between the three of them, a problem that is discussed in later chapters of the thesis.

3.16 Sport and Media in Pakistan

This section of the thesis deals with aspects of sport and the media in Pakistan. A very brief historical overview of media forms in Pakistan is offered, and then a snapshot of current media arrangements is provided. It should be noted, however, that many of the developments and relationships that are discussed reflect some of the broader historical and political themes already outlined previously in the thesis, and

³⁷⁹ Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/education-ministry/highlights/NEP-physical-edu.jsp>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

³⁸⁰ Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, <http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/education-ministry/highlights/NEP-physical-edu.jsp>, accessed on 12 November 2004.

which are re-visited in the chapter dealing with sport and government policy. The key context is the relationship of sport with the media.

Javed Jabbar has explained that essentially Hindus and other non-Muslims dominated the press in the Indian subcontinent until the 1930s, and that there was limited circulation and meagre advertising support for newspapers published and edited by Muslims. He goes on to claim that it was Jinnah who had to take the initiative for the publication of the English-language newspaper, *Dawn*, and the Urdu-language newspaper, *Manshoor*, both of which emanated from New Delhi, the latter broadsheet becoming the official voice of the All India Muslim League. Jinnah also supported the publication of *Nawaiwaqt* (Urdu) and the *Pakistan Times* (English), which emanated from Lahore.³⁸¹ When Pakistan came into existence and Karachi was declared as its capital, the leading newspapers had to shift their headquarters. For example *Jang*, *Anjam* (Urdu) and *Dawn* (English) shifted their operations from Delhi to Karachi.³⁸²

As Hassan notes, journalism reflects the social and political conditions of any society, and the primary function of the media is to inform, criticise and provide analysis in the best interests of the society concerned.³⁸³ According to LaPorte, it is only in the last decade that Pakistanis have begun to enjoy the latest electronic and print media comparatively free from the political interference of previous regimes.³⁸⁴ The present government of Pakistan has given significant freedom for the print media and also

³⁸¹ J. Jabbar, *Mass Media Laws and Regulations in Pakistan: And a Commentary from a Historical Perspective*, Asian Media Information and Communication Centre, Singapore, 1997, p. 68.

³⁸² Jabbar, *Mass Media Laws*, p. 68.

³⁸³ S. A. Hassan, 'Mode of Pakistani Print Media', *Pakistan Observer*, 21 October 2004.

³⁸⁴ R. LaPorte, 'Pakistan: A Nation Still in the Making', in S. S. Harrison, P. H. Kreisberg and D. Kux (eds), *India & Pakistan: The First Fifty Years*, Wood Wilson Press, Washington, 1999, p. 56.

changed the old broadcasting policies.³⁸⁵ Indeed, it is the first time in the history of Pakistan that the national government has allowed the private sector to establish radio and television outlets. The government of Pakistan through its department, Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority (PEMRA), awarded licences for more than 20 private satellite television stations and more than 50 licenses have been issued for private FM radio stations. Many Pakistanis also watch a range of international satellite television channels, via a dish or an often-unlicensed cable television operator.³⁸⁶

There are a plethora of newspapers in English and local languages in Pakistan. Almost all the newspapers have separate sports editions with colour pages. Most of the leading newspapers of the country also have internet editions. The English-language newspapers, including *Dawn*, *News* and *Nation*, are of a relatively good standard.³⁸⁷ The following table lists some of the country's leading newspapers:

Table 3h: Current Newspapers of Pakistan.

Source: Media in Pakistan,

<http://www.southtravels.com/asia/pakistan/media.htm>, accessed on 28 December 2004.

1	<i>Daily Jang</i>	Urdu-language daily
2	<i>The Dawn</i>	Karachi-based, English-language
3	<i>The Nation</i>	Lahore-based, English-language
4	<i>The Frontier Post</i>	Peshawar-based, English-language
5	<i>The News</i>	English-language daily
6	<i>Daily Ausaf</i>	Islamabad-based, Urdu-language
7	<i>Pakistan and Gulf Economist</i>	Business weekly
8	<i>The Friday Times</i>	Lahore-based weekly, English-language

³⁸⁵ Media in Pakistan, <http://www.southtravels.com/asia/pakistan/media.htm>, accessed on 28 December 2004.

³⁸⁶ Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority, <http://www.pemra.gov.pk>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

³⁸⁷ LaPorte, 'Pakistan: A Nation', p. 56.

9	<i>Daily Nawaiwaqt</i>	Urdu language daily
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There are also a number of news agencies such as Independent News Pakistan, News Network International, Pakistan News Service, and Associated Press of Pakistan.

Radio Pakistan came on the air at midnight on 14 August 1947, and expanded its services for foreign listeners in 1949 with a view to promoting friendship and projecting Pakistan's viewpoint on international issues.³⁸⁸ From its inception until 20 December 1972, radio continued to operate as an attached department of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. In December 1972, the government decided to convert Radio Pakistan into a Statutory Corporation.³⁸⁹

Radio Pakistan broadcast programs in 20 languages through its 25 stations located at many places in the country. Its programs reach 75% of the total area, and 95% of the total population of the country.³⁹⁰ According to the Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation (PBC) website, the breakdown for radio's program categories are as follows: Music (48%); Religion (12.5%); News and current affairs (11%); Women Children and Labour (5%); Youth/Students (3%); Forces (2%); Rural and Farm (10%); Drama/Features (2%); Publicity Campaigns (2%); Science, Technology, Health (2%), and; Sports (2.5%). The source of the news is domestic news agencies, as well as some international news agencies. The other important source of news comprises broadcasts of foreign radio stations, which are monitored by the news

³⁸⁸ Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation (hereafter PBC in footnotes), <http://www.radio.gov.pk/glance.html>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

³⁸⁹ PBC, <http://www.radio.gov.pk/glance.html>, accessed on 28 December 2004.

³⁹⁰ PBC, <http://www.radio.gov.pk/general.html>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

section of Radio Pakistan on a 24-hour basis.³⁹¹ Some of the developments described above are summarised in the table below.

Table 3i: The Development of Radio on the Subcontinent.

Source: PBC, <http://www.radio.gov.pk/Inaug.html>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

March 1926	The Indian Broadcasting Company (IBC), a private Company, was formed.
23rd July 1927	IBC establishes a station at Bombay, thus beginning organized broadcasting on the subcontinent.
16 July 1936	A station was established at Peshawar. This station was taken over by the Government of India from the Government of the North West Frontier Province on 1 April 1937.
December 1937	A station in Lahore goes to air.
3 June 1947	Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah makes an historic address on air and announces the creation of the newly independent state of Pakistan for the Muslims of the subcontinent.
14 August 1947	Pakistan comes into being and the announcement of its creation is made by the new organization, the Pakistan Broadcasting Service, which comes into existence at the same time.
21 April 1973	World Service for overseas Pakistanis inaugurated.
1997	Computerisation of the PBC news processing system and availability of the news bulletins on the internet in text and audio form.

Television was broadcast for the first time in Pakistan from the city of Lahore on 26 November 1964. Stations in Karachi, Rawalpindi and Islamabad started functioning in 1967, with Peshawar and Quetta following in 1974. Colour television broadcasts began on 18 February 1982.³⁹² The Pakistan Television Corporation is a government agency that runs four television channels, namely PTV 1, PTV 2, Channel 3, PTV World. The Shalimar Television Network is both a state and privately run network.

³⁹¹ PBC, <http://www.radio.gov.pk/current.html>, accessed on 27 December 2004. It should be noted that direct and accurate comparable categories/statistics with Australian radio broadcasting are not available.

³⁹² Pakistan Television Corporation, <http://www.ptv.com.pk/ptvhtml/html/AboutUs/aboutindex.htm>, accessed on 28 December 2004.

The private (satellite) television channels are Geo TV, and Indus TV, which run Indus Vision and Indus News channels, as well as ARY Digital.³⁹³ A description of the channels, drawn from the Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation website, appears in the Table below.

Table 3j: Pakistan Television Corporation Channels and their Description.

Source: Pakistan Television Corporation,

<http://www.ptv.com.pk/ptvhtml/html/AboutUs/history.htm>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

PTV Prime	The first-ever Pakistan Television channel for Pakistanis and other Urdu/Punjabi-understanding families of Asian origin settled in Europe.
PTV World News	PTV World, a new satellite channel, was launched in the face of tough international competition. The objective is to provide updated news services 24 hours a day.
Channel 3	The objective of Channel 3 is to provide family-friendly viewing.
PTV National	The objective of PTV National is to provide local news, as well as entertainment, in different languages across the country.
AJK TV	AJK TV is a Kashmiri Channel, providing different programs for local viewers, as well as Kashmiri news and Gojri news.
Prime TV	Prime TV telecasts dramas and documentaries for European people, especially Pakistanis living in Europe.

The Government of Pakistan has recently established a department to regulate the national media. Established in March 2002, the Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority was created through an ordinance to induct the private sector into the field of electronic media. The major objectives of that department are outlined in the Table below.

³⁹³ Media in Pakistan, <http://www.southtravels.com/asia/pakistan/media.htm>, accessed on 28 December 2004.

Table 3k: Objectives of the Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority.

Source: Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority,
<http://www.pemra.gov.pk>, accessed on 27 December 2004.

1	Improve the standards of information, education and entertainment
2	Enlarge the choice available to the people of Pakistan in the media for news, current affairs, religious knowledge, art, culture, science, technology, economic development, social sector concerns, music, sports, drama and other subjects of public and national interest.
3	Facilitate the devolution of responsibility and power to the grassroots by improving the access of people to mass media at the local and community level.
4	Ensure accountability, transparency and good governance by optimising the free flow of information.

Radio and newspapers were the main media outlets in Pakistan at the time of independence in 1947, but it was the press that were pioneers in terms of reporting sporting news. The government more directly controlled radio broadcasts, and sports such as cricket and hockey were often featured. According to an official government publication, the radio medium had good commentators for cricket but other sports, including hockey and squash lacked high quality commentary.³⁹⁴

There were few major newspapers in the country at the time of independence, and most had a limited circulation.³⁹⁵ As a government report has noted, the economics of the fledgling newspaper industry meant that the owners of press outlets could neither afford to devote substantial space to sports and nor could they afford to hire the services of qualified sports journalists.³⁹⁶ Consequently, the standard of sports reporting was relatively low, and as the report points out, there were no sports media subjects included in the journalism curriculum of Pakistan universities. Moreover, a

³⁹⁴ Pakistan Sports Control Board, 'Report of the National Sports Committee', p. 91.

³⁹⁵ Hassan, 'Mode of Pakistani Print Media'.

³⁹⁶ Pakistan Sports Control Board, 'Report of the National Sports Committee', p. 91.

lack of cooperation between sporting bodies and sporting journalists was also common.³⁹⁷

In a more critical vein, Hassan compares the previous status of print media with its contemporary position and notes that there was a time when there were only three to four mainstream daily newspapers in the whole of Pakistan. As he observes, every available resource and energy was dedicated to delivering quality journalism at a reasonable price. But now, Hassan opines, the newspapers are so intent on commercial imperatives that daily newspapers now resemble mere advertising material. Not only are newspapers now too expensive, but the lack of professional institutes, and facilities to learn the needs of modern journalism, have become key deficiencies, a factor that must necessarily influence the quality of sports journalism. While Hassan correctly notes that the media in Pakistan is very free compared to other countries in the region, he is also correct in pointing out that compared with the western world the freedom of press is not being fully served in the interests of the broader Pakistan society.³⁹⁸ Some of these issues are taken up in the following chapters.

3.17 Conclusions

Pakistan is situated in a unique part of the world that has often been subject to invasion, and every invader has left behind a part of their culture, religion and way of life, including pastimes. The region was affected by Muslim culture more than any other. Although Muslim rulers were of different ethnic backgrounds, the common characteristic among them was that they propagated their religion and assiduously

³⁹⁷ Pakistan Sports Control Board, 'Report of the National Sports Committee', p. 93.

³⁹⁸ Hassan, 'Mode of Pakistani Print Media'.

converted the local population to Islam. Before the introduction of Islam to the subcontinent, the Hindu caste system was a large factor in why Muslims were able to convert the local population. Most of the Muslim rulers provide better opportunities for life to locals compared to their predecessors. Muslim rulers were from Turkey, Iran and Afghanistan, therefore the culture, education and sports of those areas were introduced to the subcontinent. Physical fitness and horse riding were basic needs of the rulers of that time, as they needed armies that were capable in these attributes. The Muslim rulers introduced wrestling for fitness, polo for horse riding and chess and cards for mental toughness. There is no evidence that the Muslim rulers promoted sports at a mass level, and they only patronised certain games for their personal needs, ego and amusement.

Europeans governed the Indian subcontinent for more than one hundred years and like other invaders they also left the imprint of their culture, education and sports. When Pakistan came into existence the subcontinent was a mixture of European, Indian and Muslim culture, sports and education. Therefore Pakistan became the heir of Anglo-Muslim culture, education and sports. Hockey, cricket, squash and wrestling were prominent sports that flourished in Pakistan. Every Pakistani leader, including the founder of Pakistan, Mohammad Ali Jinnah, tried to patronise sports as much as they were able and it was not long before Pakistan became a powerful nation in particular sports, namely squash, hockey and cricket.

However, from the time that the first Prime Minister of Pakistan was assassinated, the nation has struggled for political stability. The country has had to remain under military rule for extended periods of time and the total period of civil elected

governments has actually been less than that of military dictatorships. Under these conditions, it is not surprising that government involvement and initiative in the development of sports and games at both the level of elite achievement and mass participation has been negatively affected in a number of ways. In this context, the next two chapters of this thesis take a detailed look at the area of sports policy development in, firstly, Australia, and then, Pakistan.

Chapter Four

Sport in Australia: The Government Delivery of Sports Policy, 1947-2007

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide an overview of the history of Australian government involvement in sport. The background material builds on the general historical information provided in Chapter Two, and helps set the foundation for recommendations regarding the Pakistan sports system, as discussed in the next chapter.

Formal government intervention in Australian sport really only commenced in the 1940s. In fact, there was no government department devoted to sports until as late as 1972. This is all the more surprising since, as outlined in the second chapter, Australia has a reputation of being a sporting nation and its athletes have participated in every summer Olympic Games since its rebirth in 1896. Until relatively recently, though, it is fair to say that the sporting success of the nation has largely been achieved with little direct support or substantive funding from the federal government. While, in part, this success can be attributed to the long-term benefits of an amateur ethos and standards of personal excellence that originated in English public schools and held sway in society generally, it is pertinent to focus on the differences brought about by greater government involvement in sport.

This section of the thesis will also consider different stages of government delivery affecting the development of elite sports in Australia. As part of these stages, the role of the federal government and the history of national sports policy will be examined,

as well as the contribution of political parties to this process. More specifically, the National Fitness Act and other forms of government delivery toward sports will also be mentioned. Moreover, the Bloomfield Report and Coles Report will be briefly discussed. The need for institutes of sports and, in particular, the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport will be narrated. The creation of the Australian Sports Commission and the merger of the ASC and the AIS will also be mentioned. The Federal government's different schemes for promotion of sports will also be discussed. In addition, the administrative set-up of the ASC along with the facilities available for elite athletes at the AIS will be outlined. The various state sports institutes will be mentioned briefly. Importantly, the involvement of various levels of government in organising the Sydney Olympic Games, and the funding, preparation and participation of Australian athletes in the Games, along with the government's recent initiatives in the area of sports policy will also be discussed, and, finally, some conclusions will be drawn.

4.2 An Historical Overview of Sport in Australia: The Beginnings

The following sections trace the development of elite sports in Australia in respect to government delivery. The sports policy of a nation is closely integrated to the wider political system of any country, as the changing ideological framework of the political party in power always influences policy formulation. As discussed below, the best example for this is the change of government in Australia in 1975 wherein the nation's sport's policy was altered in line with a change in political philosophy. Therefore, to examine the development of Australian sports policy it is important to evaluate the roles played by the various political parties.

As several authors make clear, in Australia before 1972, federal assistance for international sport competition was very limited.³⁹⁹ The only federal government orientated assistance before the 1970s was in the form of facility construction, exemplified by assistance in the preparation of the 1938 and the 1962 Commonwealth Games, and the staging of 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games.⁴⁰⁰

As already discussed in Chapter Two, a significant shift in the Commonwealth government view on the importance of physical activity occurred in 1939 when the National Coordinating Council for Physical Fitness was established. Later, in 1941 the Commonwealth National Fitness Council (NFC) was established following the introduction of the National Fitness Act. Similarly, six states also established National Councils for fitness at the request of the Commonwealth government.⁴⁰¹ According to Baka, the primary role of the NFC was to improve the fitness levels of the populace, especially youth eligible for military services.⁴⁰² The other important role of the NFC was to promote physical education in schools. The NFC did not really change the attitude of people towards sporting activities, but its actions formed a base for government support for sport through community-based activities such as holiday camps and adventure leadership classes.⁴⁰³ By the late 1950s and the early 1960s, the Commonwealth and the states gradually moved away from fitness

³⁹⁹ See for example, Farmer and Arnaudon, 'Australian Sports Policy' p. 2, and Semotiuk, 'Commonwealth Government Initiatives', pp. 152-162.

⁴⁰⁰ For the precise details of this assistance, see, for example, T. D. Jacques and G. R. Pavia, 'Australian Government and Sport', in T. D. Jacques and G. R. Pavia (eds), *Sport in Australia*, Macarthur Press, Parramatta, 1976, p. 149, Cashman, *Paradise of Sport*, p. 121, and Baka, 'Australian Government Involvement in Sport', p. 28.

⁴⁰¹ Hamilton-Smith and Robertson, 'Recreation and Government in Australia', p. 178. See also Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 34, Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 64, and Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 28.

⁴⁰² Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 28.

⁴⁰³ B. Stewart and M. Nicholson, 'Australia: Building on a Sport for all Culture', in L. DaCosta and A. Miragaya (eds), *Worldwide Experiences and Trends in Sport for All*, Meyer & Meyer Sport, Miami, 2002, p. 45.

programs towards physical recreation. In essence, minimal government support and a movement towards fitness programs marked the pre-1972 era.⁴⁰⁴

4.3 The Whitlam Years, 1972-1975

Following the end of World War II, the Labor Party was defeated in 1949 and remained on opposition benches until the election of Gough Whitlam as Prime Minister in 1972. The failure of William McMahon to become an influential Liberal leader gave Labor its chance to return to power. Following his election, Whitlam began a comprehensive reform movement that intersected with Australia's economy, foreign policy, and social structure. In this respect, his ministers were enormously active, if not always capable, although it must be acknowledged that many Labor government initiatives vitalized intellectual and cultural pursuits. Certainly a stronger sense of Australian individuality prevailed, and some imperial symbols were rejected. James Walter supports this view, writing that Whitlam had initiated a mission for a new national anthem and stopped the practice of awarding British honours.⁴⁰⁵ The government increased wages and equalised the pay for women, and spent much on social services, particularly health and urban facilities. Among other things, Whitlam was quick to end military recruitment, softened the immigration policy for Asians and Africans, and promised to adopt more independence from the United States in foreign affairs.⁴⁰⁶ His government however, eventually lost the parliamentary support that they needed to pass government spending bills.

⁴⁰⁴ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 34.

⁴⁰⁵ J. Walter, *The Leader: A Political Biography of Gough Whitlam*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1980, p. 253.

⁴⁰⁶ Walter, *The Leader: A Political Biography*, p. 253.

The institutional framework for the delivery of sports changed completely during the early 1970s under the Whitlam Labor government, which was in office from 1972 to 1975. As part of its radical reform agenda, noted above, the Labor government created a department of Tourism and Recreation in 1972. The new department started a Capital Assistance Program that provided sports facilities, a sports assistance program to support national sport associations, and a fitness awareness campaign known as Fitness Australia.⁴⁰⁷ Prime Minister Whitlam believed that ‘there was no greater social problem facing Australia than the good use of leisure’, and as a consequence the Whitlam government funded sports and recreation as no other Australian government had done in the past.⁴⁰⁸ As discussed later in the chapter, their major emphasis was on community involvement rather than the specific development of elite sports.

Regarding the promotion of sports in Australia during the Whitlam era, the government commissioned Professor John Bloomfield to prepare a comprehensive sports plan for the nation in 1973.⁴⁰⁹ Bloomfield interviewed 78 professionals in the field of sports, recreation and physical education and included their suggestions in a final report.⁴¹⁰ His report, entitled ‘The Role, Scope and Development of Recreation in Australia’, was based on studies of European sports institutes and their success in developing elite athletes.⁴¹¹

⁴⁰⁷ Baka, ‘Australian Government’, p. 28.

⁴⁰⁸ Hamilton Smith and Robertson, ‘Recreation in Government in Australia’, p. 180.

⁴⁰⁹ Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 4.

⁴¹⁰ Bloomfield, *Australia’s Sporting Success*, p. 39.

⁴¹¹ Australian Sports Commission, *Excellence: The Australian Institute of Sport*, Australian Sports Commission, Canberra, 2002, p. 1. An updated version of this publication, citing M. Eggins as the author, also appears at Australian Institute of Sport, <http://www.ais.org.au/history.htm>, accessed 18 May 2004.

The major recommendations of the Bloomfield Report were to: develop fitness levels in schools and the community; professionalise and develop sports and recreation programs in the areas of sports management, sports coaching, sports officiating, sports scholarships, overseas travel, talent identification, sports science and medicine services, matching grants for sports through the state and the Federal governments; establish a national recreation program through a 'Recreation Division' of the Department of Tourism and Recreation, and; establish a National Institute of Sport.⁴¹² On this latter point, Bloomfield specifically suggested to the Federal government that it should establish a national institute of sport similar to those operating in European countries.⁴¹³ In commenting on the Report, Stewart and Nicholson state that the Bloomfield model 'became the blueprint for future government policy on elite sport and sport for all'.⁴¹⁴ Moreover, the Bloomfield Report was also the catalyst for the Australian government to carry out another survey into sports.⁴¹⁵

The Bloomfield Report was tabled in the Federal Parliament in mid-1973 and became government policy for the future development of sport and recreation in Australia.⁴¹⁶ Once the Report was accepted, there was pressure on the Federal government from different state governments to further develop sports facilities, as the existing facilities across the continent were substandard and outmoded.⁴¹⁷ As a result, the Labor government allocated around \$8.1 million for the Department of Tourism and Recreation in 1974-75, which was one of the biggest initiatives ever taken by the Federal government for the development of sports in Australia. The previous amounts

⁴¹² J. Bloomfield, *The Role, Scope and Development of Recreation in Australia*, Department of Tourism and Recreation, Canberra, 1974, pp. 28-32.

⁴¹³ Baka, 'Australian Government' p. 29, and Stewart and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 46.

⁴¹⁴ Stewart and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 46.

⁴¹⁵ Stewart and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 46.

⁴¹⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 40.

⁴¹⁷ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 41.

allocated to the Department of Tourism and Recreation were \$1.2 million in 1972-73 and \$3.8 million in 1973-74, although it should be noted that all gross amounts were not allocated to sport per se, but also included funding for other areas in the Department.⁴¹⁸ The trend of increased government funding continued over the years, and eventually led to the massive growth in sporting facilities, culminating in the development of infrastructure and the building of facilities for the Sydney Olympic Games, as discussed below.⁴¹⁹

The Bloomfield Report also served as foundation for the Commonwealth government to undertake another inquiry into national sports training.⁴²⁰ The then Federal Minister for Recreation, Frank Stewart, appointed an eight-member study group in September 1974 to explore the feasibility of establishing a National Institute of Sport as recommended in the 1973 Bloomfield Report. Dr Allan Coles, a senior academic from the University of Queensland, was appointed chairman of the group.⁴²¹ The study group visited countries such as France, West Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway, Britain, Poland, Denmark, Hungary, Russia and Israel. Along the way, it asked national sporting organisations, coaching groups and the Australian community to submit recommendations for the promotion of sport throughout the country.⁴²² After analysing the submissions from different groups the final report was submitted in November 1975. The creation of a sports institute and academies for elite Australian athletes was one of the major recommendations, therefore, in many ways,

⁴¹⁸ See Appendix 3 for more comprehensive details of Australian government expenditure on sport and recreation.

⁴¹⁹ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 41.

⁴²⁰ Stewart and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 47.

⁴²¹ K. Toohey, 'The Politics of Australian Elite Sport: 1949-1983', Doctoral thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1990, p. 113.

⁴²² Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 4.

it can be claimed that the Coles report laid the foundation for the establishment of the AIS.⁴²³

The report included 30 recommendations for the government's consideration.⁴²⁴ Some of the major recommendations of the report were to: establish a National Institute for Sport in Canberra with its branches in various states; develop a comprehensive national coaching system; establish courses for sports administrators and officials by the institute in conjunction with national sports associations; encourage sports science and sports medicine education by the institute, and; develop technical services relating to sports facilities and equipment.⁴²⁵

The period between 1972 and 1975 was important for the development of elite sports in Australia as it was during this period that the Whitlam Labor government laid the foundation for a modern sports system.⁴²⁶ According to Booth and Tatz, sport was, in fact, part of Whitlam's agenda for both domestic and foreign policy, with the government initiating a number of policies in respect to sports-for-all policy and linked it with foreign policy, which was ultimately its base for elite sports policy. The government provided funds directly to national sporting bodies for participation in international events that ultimately created goodwill for Australia.⁴²⁷ For instance, Booth and Tatz note that Whitlam's government recognised the People Republic of China, and ended involvement in the Vietnam War. The Labor government also intended to make pre-school education available for every Australian, increase

⁴²³ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 42.

⁴²⁴ Toohey, 'The Politics of Australian Elite Sport', p. 113.

⁴²⁵ A. Coles, *Report of the Australian Sports Institute Study Group*, Department of Tourism and Recreation, Canberra, 1975.

⁴²⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 43.

⁴²⁷ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 162.

spending on teacher training, abolish university fees, introduce a universal health insurance system, and to grant land right to aborigines.⁴²⁸ Other authors note that Whitlam proposed new programs to improve facilities in education, transport and health, increased old-age pensions, and supported equal pay for women.⁴²⁹

In terms of the health of the national economy Whitlam himself later admitted that: 'Like all Western governments my government floundered for a period in 1974-75 under the impact of unprecedented difficulties in the world economy.'⁴³⁰ He also acknowledged that the international economy was aggravated by the advent of the fourth Arab-Israeli war in October 1973. In that month, the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries increased the price of oil by 70%, a decision that had major repercussions for most Western economies.⁴³¹ When the Opposition blocked the Labor budget towards the end of 1975, and Whitlam refused to call elections and make contingency plans to reach an agreement with the banks, the result was the dismissal of the government on 11 November 1975 by the Governor-General, John Kerr, the official head of state under the British crown (who had been nominated by Whitlam himself).⁴³² It was the first time in 200 years that the British crown had exercised its right to remove an elected prime minister, and Malcolm Fraser was appointed the care-taker prime minister until elections were held on 13 December 1975.⁴³³

⁴²⁸ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 162.

⁴²⁹ Walter, *The Leader: A Political Biography*, p. 253.

⁴³⁰ G. Whitlam, *The Whitlam Government: 1972-75*, Penguin, Ringwood, 1985, p. 183.

⁴³¹ Whitlam, *The Whitlam Government*, pp. 187-188.

⁴³² Walter, *The Leader: A Political Biography*, p. 78.

⁴³³ For discussion of the various factors (especially the so-called 'Loans Affair') that contributed to the downfall of the Whitlam government, see Walter, *The Leader: A Political Biography*, pp. 254-262.

Unfortunately, in terms of the development of sport, this meant that the recommendations of the Coles Report could not be implemented, as the government was dismissed before the Report could be tabled in Parliament.⁴³⁴ There was, of course, no guarantee that the Report would have been implemented, for, according to Daly: 'Perhaps the idea of an elite institution was at odds with party philosophy'.⁴³⁵ Whatever the case, the incoming Fraser Coalition government was reluctant to accept the Coles Report. However, the Coalition government did include some of the Report's recommendations when the plans for the Australian Institute of Sport were later announced.⁴³⁶

In the months following the election of the Liberal government under the leadership of Malcolm Fraser, many of Labor's initiatives in the area sports policy were quickly discarded, if not as a matter of philosophy, then certainly as a matter of economic stringency.⁴³⁷ According to Bloomfield, the Fraser Coalition government placed sports and recreation very low on its priority list, and played a very passive role with the various national and state sport associations. The most important setback to sports was the abolition of the Department of Tourism and Recreation, a move that put a stop to the funding of a number of initiatives (such as the Capital Assistance Program), which were already in place.⁴³⁸ The Department of Environment, Housing and Community Development now oversaw sport.⁴³⁹

⁴³⁴ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 43.

⁴³⁵ Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 5.

⁴³⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 43.

⁴³⁷ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, pp. 162-163.

⁴³⁸ Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 29, and Toohey, 'The Politics of Australian Elite Sport', p. 119.

⁴³⁹ Toohey, 'The Politics of Australian Elite Sport', p. 119.

4.4 The Montreal and Moscow Olympic Games: A Nadir in Australian Sport

The criticism from the press and the sporting community concerning the abolition of the Department of Tourism and Recreation by the Fraser government in 1975 compelled the Liberals to maintain some sports programs. In actual fact, Liberal minister Bob Ellicott, responsible for the sport portfolio, sometimes took initiatives for the betterment of sports without the support of his party. He reintroduced the sports assistance scheme and sports facilities program, while the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport was also partly due to his personal interest.⁴⁴⁰

According to the Australian Sports Commission's own documents, Australia's poor performance at the Montreal Olympic Games in 1976 was the major catalyst for an institute of sports in Australia.⁴⁴¹ As Daly notes in his history of the Institute, members of Australia's Olympic team participating in Montreal actually put their views on the matter to the Prime Minister when he visited the Olympic village in Montreal. In the context of their sub-standard performances at the Games, they felt that they were 'unable to compete on an equal footing' with other nations. In their view, there was a need for better coaching, improved facilities, and international exposure before participation in the Olympics Games, and there needed to be freedom from financial pressures.⁴⁴² John Daly, the head coach of the track and field team, subsequently wrote an open letter to all Australians, which was published in the *Australian* on 3 August 1976. He appealed to the sporting community for a more professional approach to elite sport.⁴⁴³

⁴⁴⁰ Baka, 'Australian Government,' p. 29.

⁴⁴¹ Australian Sports Commission, *Excellence*, p. 1.

⁴⁴² Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 6.

⁴⁴³ Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, pp. 7-9.

Partly in response to the public outcry, Bob Ellicott, the minister responsible for sport, who had been influenced by his observations of the sport systems of different countries and regions, such as China, England, Europe and North America, asked his sports advisory council to prepare a framework for national sports policy in 1979. When the recommendations of the advisory council (which included the establishment of national institute) were presented to a Cabinet meeting, they were rejected. The Minister clearly had a strong vision for establishment of national institute of sport.⁴⁴⁴

The Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in December 1979, and the United States, in return for these actions, tried to protest by, among other methods, making a plan for a large-scale boycott of the 1980 Olympic Games in Moscow. This call for a boycott of the Moscow Olympics was enthusiastically adopted by the Australian government and led to a controversy between it and the Australian Olympic Federation.⁴⁴⁵ According to Booth and Tatz, the government soon had to change its views when it sought the support of Australian athletes for a complete boycott of the Moscow Olympic Games in 1980. In their view, the government felt obliged to create some connection with elite athletes and thus they began to support the concept of a National Institute of Sports.⁴⁴⁶ The Olympic boycott debate was so severe that it divided the Australian nation almost as much as the conscription debates during the time of the Great War.⁴⁴⁷

⁴⁴⁴ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 177.

⁴⁴⁵ M. Young, 'The Melbourne Press and the 1980 Moscow Olympic Boycott Controversy', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 4. no. 2, May 1988, p. 184.

⁴⁴⁶ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 177.

⁴⁴⁷ Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 177. Michael Young, in examining the press coverage of this event, seems to prove that the Australian print media was somewhat biased and supported the government's action, while the Australian public was not so biased. Young, 'The Melbourne Press', pp. 184-200. In an earlier article, John Deane had conducted a similar study and concluded that with few exceptions the Melbourne newspaper's treatment of the Moscow Olympics failed to promote goodwill at the international level. According to Deane, the print media provided a biased presentation of available news and seemed to encourage anti-Soviet feelings among readers. J. Deane, 'The Melbourne Press and the Moscow Olympics', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 1, no. 2, May 1985, pp. 27-42.

Bob Ellicott, the Minister in charge of sport was keen to bridge the gap between the government and the sporting community which was created as a result of the Moscow boycott. After a tour of China in 1980, Ellicott was convinced that there should be a sports institute for Australian athletes. He was also aware of the Bloomfield and Coles reports and offered the reports as a model plan.⁴⁴⁸ The government acquiesced to his vision and the Australian Institute of Sport was officially opened in 1981 with facilities for eight target sports (basketball, swimming, weightlifting, track and field, netball, soccer, tennis, and gymnastics).⁴⁴⁹ The establishment of the AIS would allow the athletes to train and develop in Australia rather than have to go overseas.⁴⁵⁰ According to AIS authorities: ‘The mission was clear and critical to halt our ailing international sporting reputation: develop elite sport in Australia by providing facilities and funding to sporting organisations and potential elite athletes’.⁴⁵¹

Summing up, it can be said that when the new coalition dominated by the Liberals came to power, it immediately adopted a cautious approach to sport due to a climate of economic hardship.⁴⁵² While the innovative Labor sports policy was not totally abandoned, funding and services were drastically reduced and the Department of Tourism and Recreation was abolished. Pressure from the sports lobby, including the Confederation of Australian Sport, which was established in 1976, and the opposition Labor party, compelled the government to reintroduce a sports assistance scheme and

⁴⁴⁸ Australian Institute of Sport, <http://www.ais.org.au/overview/history.asp>, accessed on 14 October 2007.

⁴⁴⁹ Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 1. There are now 24 target sports at the Institute. See also Australian Sports Commission, *Working With Sports: The Role of the Australian Sports Commission*, ASC Policy and International Section, Canberra, n.d., p. 10, Bloomfield, ‘Australian Sporting Success’, p. 57, Houlihan, *Sport, Policy and Politics*, p. 70, and Stewart and Nicholson, ‘Australia,’ p. 48.

⁴⁵⁰ ASC, *Excellence*, p. 1.

⁴⁵¹ ASC, *Excellence*, p. 2.

⁴⁵² Booth and Tatz, *One-Eyed*, p. 162.

sports facilities program.⁴⁵³ Thus, revised sports assistance schemes, a revamped sports facility, large grants for the 1982 Brisbane Commonwealth Games, and the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport (discussed in detail later in this chapter) are some of the highlights of the era between 1975 and 1983.⁴⁵⁴

4.5 Momentum Restored, 1983-1988

With Bob Hawke and the Labor party coming to office following the March 1983 Federal election, a new era began in the development of elite sports in Australia under the leadership of John Brown, the minister in charge of affairs relating to sport.⁴⁵⁵

Brown had been a shadow minister during Fraser's term of office, and during the election campaign he helped prepare a comprehensive 127-page document entitled

'The Australian Labor Party Sport and Recreation Policy'.⁴⁵⁶ According to

Bloomfield, Brown successfully pushed for an increase in sport's budget and he was also instrumental in helping to create a new Department of Sport, Recreation and Development.⁴⁵⁷ Indeed, Bob Hawke claims in his memoirs that 'John Brown did

more for sport and tourism than had been achieved in any previous government'.⁴⁵⁸

Another major step towards the development of sport was the creation of the Australian Sports Commission in 1985.⁴⁵⁹

⁴⁵³ Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 29.

⁴⁵⁴ Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 29.

⁴⁵⁵ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 68.

⁴⁵⁶ Baka, 'Australian Government', p. 30.

⁴⁵⁷ J. Brown, *Toward the Development of a Commonwealth Policy on Recreation*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra, 1985, p. 9.

⁴⁵⁸ B. Hawke, *The Hawke Memoirs*, William Heinemann, Port Melbourne, 1994, p. 161.

⁴⁵⁹ ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 2.

The Commission was established by, and operates under, the Australian Sports Commission Act 1989.⁴⁶⁰ With the aim ‘to enrich the lives of all Australians through sport’,⁴⁶¹ the ASC manages and finances sport nationally on behalf of the Federal government.⁴⁶² It is at the centre of an incorporated national sporting system that encourages sport and physical activity for all Australians, from talent identification to performances elite level.⁴⁶³ Its aims include the development of elite sporting superiority as well as increasing community participation and sporting success for all Australians.⁴⁶⁴ A board consisting of twelve Commissioners, appointed by the Minister for Arts and Sport, governs the ASC.⁴⁶⁵ According to the 2002-2003 annual report of the Commission, its major programs are divided into three units, as noted in Table 4a below.

Table 4a: Major Programs of the ASC.

Source: Australian Sports Commission, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 8.

1	Australian Institute of Sport	Responsible for training and developing elite athletes and teams
2	Sport Performance and Development Unit	Develops the base of Australian sport through different programs

⁴⁶⁰ H. Westerbeek, D. Shilbury, and J. Deane, ‘The Australian Sport System, its History and an Organizational Overview’, *European Journal of Sport Management*, vol. 2, no. 1, June 1995, p. 47, and also see ASC, www.ausport.gov.au/asc/overview.htm, accessed 20 May 2004, and ASC, *Annual Report, 1995-96*, p. 6.

⁴⁶¹ ASC, *Annual Report, 1998-99*, p. vi, and Australian Sports Commission, *Working With Sports*, p. 8.

⁴⁶² ASC, *Annual Report, 1995-96*, p. 6.

⁴⁶³ Westerbeek, Shilbury, and Deane, ‘The Australian Sport System’, p. 47, and ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 9.

⁴⁶⁴ Westerbeek, Shilbury, and Deane, ‘The Australian Sport System’, p. 47, and ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 9.

⁴⁶⁵ ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 9. For more narrative detail on the formation and development of the ASC, see Ferguson, *More Than Sunshine*, pp. 24-33.

3	Business Operations Unit	A source of corporate support to the ASC
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Other functions of the ASC include the provision of funds to national sporting organizations and evaluation of their performance, setting coaching standards and providing coach education, and providing funds for indigenous and disabled sports. The ASC also looks after the development of women's sport, standards and education of sporting officials, and the standard of sport education in areas such as coaching, sports management and administration.⁴⁶⁶

The ASC also has an International Section where its main areas of responsibility are to oversee government policies in regard to international sport, to supervise commercial activities in the world market, and the brokering of foreign interests to Australian sporting organisations and agencies. The 2002-2003 annual report of the ASC explains that this Section promotes collaboration in sport between Australia and other countries with the provision of resources, services and facilities in the field of sport.⁴⁶⁷

⁴⁶⁶ ASC, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 8.

⁴⁶⁷ ASC, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, pp. 34, 53-54. The writer of this thesis was also sponsored by the Australia Asia Sports Linkage Program for higher studies in Australia through the International Section of the ASC. The Section utilises Federal government funding to benefit international community sports development programs in the Pacific, Papua New Guinea, southern Africa and the Caribbean. Some of its important programs are: the Australia-South Pacific 2006 Sports Development Program (this includes the highly successful Oceania Olympic Training Center), the Papua New Guinea Silver Jubilee Community Sports (This has been seen as the most innovative sports program in the country in the past eight years, taking sport to the community under the theme of 'There's more to sport than just playing the game'), the Australia-Caribbean Community Sports Development Program (The main focus has been on developing local skills and expertise of people working in the areas of sport for people with disabilities, youth at risk, sports administration and school-sector programs), and the Australia-Africa 2006 Community Sports Development Program (The program continued to focus on establishing a community sport model for the developing countries of southern Africa through the Active Community Club concept).

An organisational chart representing the administrative set-up of the ASC, as explained in the most recent annual report of the Commission, is reproduced in Appendix 4. As noted above, the chart shows that there are three major departments in the ASC. The sections of each department are also represented on the chart.

4.6 The Australian Institute of Sport

The Australian Institute of Sports was officially inaugurated by the then Prime Minister of Australia, Malcolm Fraser, on 26 January 1981.⁴⁶⁸ The major motive behind its establishment was to cope with the problem of decline of the standard of Australian sport at world level. Initially it was meant to bring the elite athletes to Canberra for training, but now it is decentralised.⁴⁶⁹ The AIS is responsible for the development of Australian elite athletes. Its major focus is their participation and success at world level competitions. To achieve these goals, the AIS provides services in fields such as sports science, medical, sports management and athlete welfare. The AIS that started functioning with eight sports and approximately 150 scholarship holders in 1981 is now dealing with 34 programs in 26 sports with 700 scholarship holders.⁴⁷⁰ The AIS has facilities of international standard including sports facilities, sports science facilities, sports medicine facilities and accommodation for over 350 resident and visiting athletes. These facilities are

⁴⁶⁸ Daly, *Quest for Excellence*, p. 1.

⁴⁶⁹ Westerbeek, Shilbury, and Deane, 'The Australian Sport System', p. 53.

⁴⁷⁰ ASC, *Annual Report, 2005-2006*, p. 8. The scholarship sports include archery, athletics, Australian rules football, boxing, basketball, cricket diving, golf, gymnastics, hockey, netball, rugby, rugby league, soccer, swimming, sprint canoe, squash, softball triathlon track cycling, tennis volleyball, water polo, slalom canoe, and sailing.

located on a 65-hectare site in the capital city of Canberra.⁴⁷¹ The AIS is based on three divisions, as noted in Table 4b below.

Table 4b: Divisions of the ASC.

Source: Australian Sports Commission, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 13.

1	Sport Programs Planning and Evaluation Division	Responsible for residential programs in Canberra and other states, and also looks after the smooth running of national training camps at the AIS and also in other parts of the country
2	Athlete and Coach Services	Responsible for overseeing clinical services (such as physical therapy, strength and conditioning, sports psychology and provision of medicine), sports science facilities and services, AIS athlete career, education and residential welfare of athletes and coaches. These services are available at the AIS in Canberra.
3	Technical Direction	Responsible for cooperative agreements at the national and international level. It oversees cooperative projects, benchmarking and technical innovations. At the national level, the Technical Direction Division is also responsible for dealing with national Athlete Career and Education, the National Laboratory Standards Assistance Scheme, the National Elite Sports Research Program and the National Talent Search

In terms of Business Operations, this section is headed by a chairman and is a source of corporate support to the ASC. The Division has the following sections to fulfil its responsibilities: Finance; Human Resources; Information Management; Facilities Management; and, Commercial Operations. Business Operations also oversees the

⁴⁷¹ See Australian Institute of Sports, <http://www.ais.org.au/htm>, accessed on 20 July 2004.

affairs of Corporate Communications, Media and Public Relations, Business Development, Corporate Planning, Research, and International Relations.⁴⁷²

In respect to the Sports Performances and Development Section, this area is responsible for the Australian Sports Foundation, Sports Services, Planning and Reporting, Sport Innovation and Best Practice and Sport Programs.⁴⁷³ The annual report of 2002-2003 identifies four key strategies for the Sport Performance and Development Section. These strategies were as follows:

Provide integrated services and funding to national sporting organizations and other key stakeholders based on their individual needs, priorities and capacity to contribute to the ASC's objectives; Challenge national sporting organizations to achieve agreed higher organizational, membership and athlete performance targets; Provide national leadership on key issues and challenges within the sporting industry; Demonstrate the social, economic and health benefits of participation in organized sport.⁴⁷⁴

4.7 State Sports Institutes and Academies

When the AIS was established in 1981, its facilities were centralised in Canberra. Many athletes had to re-locate away from their family and friends, and they sometimes missed schooling and career opportunities during their training period. To cope with this problem, the various state governments established a network of institutions and academies in capital cities with similar facilities as were in Canberra.⁴⁷⁵ The main job of these institutes and academies is to provide facilities to athletes of respective state in sports science. One key difference is that the state-based

⁴⁷² ASC, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 13.

⁴⁷³ ASC, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 13.

⁴⁷⁴ ASC, *Annual Report, 2002-2003*, p. 10.

⁴⁷⁵ J. Bloomfield, *Sporting Success: A Paper Presented at 'Sharing Information and Building Relationships – the Sport Information Workshop, 13–15 November 2002, Perth, WA*. See also Shilbury, Deane and Kellett, *Sport Management in Australia*, pp. 280-286.

sports institutes are mostly non-residential, while the AIS is largely a residential sports institute. Every state government is providing funds to their institutes through their Sports and Recreation departments, while the Commonwealth government is also assisting the state sports institutes and academies with funds from the ASC.⁴⁷⁶ The network of various state institutes and academies were developed chronologically, as noted in Table 4c below:

Table 4c: Formation Dates of State Sport Institutes and Academies.

Source: Shilbury, Deane and Kellett, *Sport Management in Australia*, pp. 280-286.

South Australian Sports Institute (SASI)	1982
West Australian Institute of Sport (WAIS)	1984
Tasmanian Institute of Sports (TIS)	1985
ACT Academy of Sports (ACTAS)	1989
Victorian Institute of Sport (VIS)	1990
Queensland Academy of Sport (QAS)	1991
New South Wales Institute of Sport (NSWIS)	1996
Northern Territory Institute of Sport (NTIS)	1996

There is a coordinating body among these institutes and academies called the National Elite Sports Council (NESC), which was formed in 1993.⁴⁷⁷ The Directors of all the institutes and academies are members of this council. The members of NESC meet regularly to discuss different issues in elite sports programs. According to Pyke and Norris, the network of institutes and academies is a major contributor to Australia's steady improvement and success in high performance sports.⁴⁷⁸

⁴⁷⁶ F. Pyke and K. Norris, 'Australia from Montreal to Sydney: A History of a Change in Model', Paper Presented at 2nd International Forum on Elite Sport, Spain, September 2001.

⁴⁷⁷ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 136.

⁴⁷⁸ Pyke and Norris, *Australia from Montreal to Sydney*.

4.8 The Next Step Program, 1989-1992

On 21 August 1989, the Australian government launched the Next Step Program (NSP) and agreed to add an extra \$110 million to the national sport budget over four years.⁴⁷⁹ This program was designed to not only assist elite athletes, but to boost programs devoted to coaching development, sport-related research, 'Aussie Sports' (a program for children and young people), 'Aussie Able' (a sport program for disabled persons), schemes to encourage talented athletes, as well as increasing support for National Sporting Organizations.

Australian athletes won 27 medals at the Barcelona Olympics and 162 medals at the 1990 Commonwealth Games. According to Bloomfield, throughout 1990 and 1991 Australian athletes won ten world championships and Australian athletes won 21 individual championships.⁴⁸⁰ It seems obvious that this success was due to increased government funding. Therefore it demonstrates that the Next Step Program completed its successful four years and the government continued its funding towards sport under a new program called Maintain the Momentum.⁴⁸¹

4.9 Maintain the Momentum Program, 1992-1996

The Maintain the Momentum Program (MMP) was actually an expansion of the Next Step Program.⁴⁸² It was also based on a four-year funding cycle with an injection of \$236 million. Although it was an expansion of the NSP, it also introduced some new initiatives, such as elite athlete assistance, which included increased grassroots involvement in elite sports, increased professionalism by national sporting

⁴⁷⁹ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 93.

⁴⁸⁰ Bloomfield, *Australian Sporting Success*, p. 100.

⁴⁸¹ ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 3.

⁴⁸² Bloomfield, *Australian Sporting Success*, p. 100.

organizations, more funding in sports science, sports education, sports medicines, information and research to ensure Australian athletes were on par regarding facilities with the rest of the sporting world. The Maintain the Momentum Program also included efforts to raise the profile of coaches, administrators and umpires. The MMP also ensured that physical education in schools was given proper attention and expanded information and computing services.⁴⁸³ According to Bloomfield, the major difference between the Next Step Program and the Maintain the Momentum Program was only that the Australian Sport Commission had changed the policy to better assist national sporting organizations. These organisations had been asking for more autonomy and flexibility in both short-term and long-term planning, and this is what they gained in the in the MMP.⁴⁸⁴

4.10 Olympic Athlete Program, 1994-2000

The Olympic Athlete Program (OAP) was a continuation of the Maintain the Momentum Program. In this case, because the Sydney bid for the Olympic Games had been successful in 1993, the government, in effect, decided to extend the MMP by instigating the OAP.⁴⁸⁵ It was a six-year funding program from the Australian government, with additional funding of \$135 million, extended by another \$5 million later on.⁴⁸⁶ The Federal government provided such an amount to the ASC to ensure that Australian athletes and Paralympic athletes were given every possible opportunity to develop their highest potential while participating in the Atlanta Olympic and the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000.⁴⁸⁷ According to Baka, Hess and Nawaz, although a Liberal government headed by Howard was elected, they continued the out-going

⁴⁸³ ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 3.

⁴⁸⁴ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 101.

⁴⁸⁵ Stewart and Nicholson, 'Australia', p. 51.

⁴⁸⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 101.

⁴⁸⁷ ASC, *Working With Sports*, p. 3, ASC, *Annual Report 1995-96*.

Labor party's sports policies.⁴⁸⁸ The ASC looked after the OAP, which provided funds for talent identification, international competition, coaching, training camps, intensive training centres, athlete scholarships, research and the provision of sports science and sports medicine services to athletes, and grants to paralympic athletes.⁴⁸⁹ The new OAP funds made the existing total in the range of \$327 million for the six-year period.⁴⁹⁰

4.11 The Sydney Olympic Games

Similarly to the way in which an analysis of the National Sports Committee of 1967 (undertaken in the following chapter) will constitute a worthwhile case study of government involvement in sport in Pakistan, an examination of government involvement in elite sports in Australia will also be achieved by a close look at a particular turning point. Undoubtedly, the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games were a mega-sports event in Australian history, and many levels of government were involved right from the initial bid process. The phases and types of government involvement are described chronologically in the following sections.

There were some visionaries in Australia that were very keen to host the Olympic Games soon after its beginning in 1896, and to this end Ian Jobling describes a number of Australian proposals and bids in detail.⁴⁹¹ He explains that Sydney's effort to host the 2000 Olympics Games was the third official bid by an Australian city, and was preceded by fruitless bids by Brisbane for the 1992 Games and Melbourne for the 1996 Games. The story of proposals and bids started when Richard Coombes, an IOC

⁴⁸⁸ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 171.

⁴⁸⁹ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, pp. 101-102.

⁴⁹⁰ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 171.

⁴⁹¹ I. Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids by Australian Cities', *Sporting Traditions*, vol. 11, no. 1, November 1994, p. 37.

member in Australia, wrote to Baron de Coubertin on 19 February 1906, suggesting that the Games could be held in Australia. Further to this, in 1912 Coombes wrote a letter to the then Prime Minister, Andrew Fisher, asking for support of a proposal to hold the Olympics Games in Australia. Coombes' suggestions were considered in Federal Cabinet on 17 May 1912 and subsequently turned down.⁴⁹²

The next unsuccessful attempt was from a syndicate in Western Australia to hold the Sixth Olympiad in Perth in 1916. Further attempts were also made to stage the 1920 and 1932 Olympic Games, but they also failed.⁴⁹³ All these attempts eventually culminated in Melbourne winning the bid to hold the Olympic Games in 1956. The city of Melbourne lobbied extensively during the 1948 London Olympic Games and won the bid by a narrow margin of one vote against Buenos Aires. The South American city received 20 votes while Melbourne received 21 votes from the 41 IOC delegates eligible to vote.⁴⁹⁴

Melbourne was also chosen to bid for the 1988 Olympic Games by the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) in 1980, but in February 1981 the Federal Government refused to provide financial support and the Victorian State Government discarded its candidature. After that, there were two formal Australian bids for the Olympic Games, namely Brisbane for 1992 and Melbourne for 1996.⁴⁹⁵ According to Kristine Toohey *et al.*, Brisbane performed very well on a comparatively modest budget and in the October 1986 election they finished third behind the winner Barcelona, and

⁴⁹² Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids', pp. 37-38.

⁴⁹³ Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids', pp. 38-39.

⁴⁹⁴ Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids', pp. 40-43.

⁴⁹⁵ K. Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, vol. 1, Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, Sydney, 2001, p. 35.

second-placed Paris. The Brisbane team gained precious experience during the bid and made many international friends for Australia in the Olympic Movement.⁴⁹⁶

Melbourne was the next Australian city to bid for the Games, and aimed to host the 1996 event. But Melbourne finished in fourth position in the voting at the Tokyo IOC session of September 1990, where Atlanta eventually won the bid. According to Rod McGeoch, the Melbourne team made an impressive presentation and it was generally considered that an Australian city stood a good chance to win the bid for the subsequent Games, due to be held in 2000. This foundation allowed the Sydney bid team to emphasise more specific features of its proposal.⁴⁹⁷ In this context, it should also be noted that John Coates of the AOC met the NSW Premier Nick Greiner in April 1989, five months after the AOC selected Melbourne to bid for the 1996 Games, and discussed the possibility of a bid by Sydney to host the 2000 Games if Melbourne's bid failed.⁴⁹⁸

Subsequently, the bid committee for the Sydney Olympic Games was launched in May 1991, with McGeoch as Chief Executive Officer. Other officials of the bid committee included Nick Greiner, Premier of New South Wales, as Chairman. Bruce Baird was the minister responsible for the bid, although he already held the portfolio of transport minister.⁴⁹⁹ International lobbying for voting started during the conference of the General Assembly of International Sports Federation in Sydney in October 1991.

⁴⁹⁶ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 35. See also Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids', pp. 46-48

⁴⁹⁷ R. McGeoch, and G. Korporaal, *The Bid: Australia's Greatest Marketing Coup*, William Heinemann, Melbourne, 1995, p. 32. See also Jobling, 'Olympic Proposals and Bids', pp. 48-50.

⁴⁹⁸ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 35.

⁴⁹⁹ H. Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives: Inside the Sydney Olympics*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 2003, p. 50.

During the process of the bid the New South Wales government committed itself to sport facilities worth \$300 million in Sydney for the proposed Olympic Games. The quarantine authorities of Australia also relaxed their rules to import horses for equestrian events, compared to the 1956 Melbourne Olympics when, due to quarantine rules, equestrian events were held in Stockholm.⁵⁰⁰ The Australian officials handling the bid made every possible effort, and, according to Jennings, when more than 70 members of the IOC visited Sydney for facilities inspection they travelled in first-class flights and were offered extra hospitality because Australian members of the IOC, namely Kevan Gosper and Phil Coles, asked the Australian officials to do so. The state government also provided them with limousines for local travelling in Sydney.⁵⁰¹

The bid committee announced different facilities for athletes, officials and equipment. In November, the Committee announced free round-trip fares, and in 1993 this was followed by the announcement of the provision of fares for equipment transportation, and then free board and lodging in the Sydney Olympic village for athletes and officials.⁵⁰² Lenskyj estimated the amount spent on the above was approximately \$30 million.⁵⁰³ John Fahey, chairman of the bid committee, made the final presentation for the bid for the Sydney Olympic Games in Monte Carlo on 23 September 1993.⁵⁰⁴

⁵⁰⁰ Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives*, p. 51.

⁵⁰¹ A. Jennings, *The New Lords of the Rings*, Pocket Books, London, 1996, p. 202.

⁵⁰² Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives*, p. 51.

⁵⁰³ H. J. Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry: Power, Politics and Activism*, State University of New York, New York, 2000, p. 44.

⁵⁰⁴ Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives*, p. 54.

Gordon notes that a total of 89 members of the International Olympic Committee took part in the voting although one member from Swaziland exited at the last minute, as he unexpectedly had to return to his home country.⁵⁰⁵ Jennings, in fact, suggests that Sydney's bid team was very fortunate that Swaziland's member, David Sibandze, was needed in a local election at this time, for his exit ensured the final vote was in Sydney's favour. In a more critical vein, Jennings further notes that if Sibandze was needed for a local election and he knew that fact, then why had he wasted IOC money on travelling?⁵⁰⁶ The cities bidding were Beijing, Berlin, Istanbul, Manchester and Sydney, while Brasilia and Tashkent dropped out. The bid went for four rounds and Beijing was ahead of Sydney in the third round while Sydney took the lead in the final round by 45 to 43 votes and won the bid.⁵⁰⁷ The President of the IOC announced the decision at 4.27 am, Sydney time, that Sydney was allocated the 2000 Olympic Games. The success was due to two years of campaigning and planning which enabled the bid committee to bring the Olympics Games back to Australia after 44 years.⁵⁰⁸ The Host City Contract was signed on 23 September 1993 between the IOC and council of Sydney city and Australian Olympic Committee. According to this contract, an organising committee was required as soon as possible.⁵⁰⁹

The Sydney Organising Committee for Olympic Games (SOCOG) was established on 12 November 1993 by the Sydney Organising Committee for Olympic Games Act 1993. Its primary objective was 'to organise and stage the Games of the XXVII

⁵⁰⁵ Gordon, *Australia and the Olympic Games*, p. 438.

⁵⁰⁶ Jennings, *The New Lords*, p. 213.

⁵⁰⁷ Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives*, p. 55.

⁵⁰⁸ Gordon, *The Time of Our Lives*, p. 56.

⁵⁰⁹ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 35.

Olympiad in Sydney in the year 2000, in accordance with the rights and obligations conferred and imposed under the Host City Contract'.⁵¹⁰

The functions of SOCOG with regard to the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games incorporated were: organising accommodation and transport for competitors, team officials and personnel, and media personnel; organising the sports program, together with preparing and operating all venues and facilities for the Games; organising the cultural program; establishing a marketing program in consultation with the IOC and the AOC, and; arranging and making available host broadcaster and television and radio facilities and other information services.⁵¹¹

SOCOG was governed by a board of Directors, having wide a variety of expertise in areas such as the Olympic Movement, sports administration, commerce and public life, and was reflective of SOCOG's founding partners and the original bid partners, namely the AOC, federal, state and local governments, and Australia's corporate sector.⁵¹² A secretariat in the Department of Prime Minister coordinated the contribution of Federal Government agencies in the Olympic Games.⁵¹³

The SOCOG Board established commissions, committees and sub-committees to support it in its work and to give more comprehensive direction to issues of significance in Games preparation. Some of the major commissions and committees incorporated were: Sports Commission, Sydney Olympic Broadcasting Organisation, Cultural Commission, Multicultural Advisory Committee, National Indigenous

⁵¹⁰ SOCOG, *Annual Report*, 1 July 1999-31 December 2000 and January 2001-31 October 2001, p. 8.

⁵¹¹ SOCOG, *Annual Report*, 1 July 1999, p. 8.

⁵¹² Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 35.

⁵¹³ SOCOG, *Annual Report*, 1 July 1999, p. 8.

Advisory Committee, Volunteer Advisory Committee, and Consumer Protection Advisory Committee. The permanent committees included a Finance Committee that assisted in establishing and monitoring financial policies implemented by SOCOG, an Audit Committee, and a Torch Relay Committee.⁵¹⁴

4.12 Government Involvement in the Sydney Olympic Games

Most of the Games' preparations were undertaken by SOCOG. Other Australian state, federal and local government agencies were essential in the provision of required services during the Games and all contributed in organizing a successful event.⁵¹⁵ The federal government created a secretariat in the department of the Prime Minister for coordination between the federal government and other agencies involved in organizing the Olympics Games.⁵¹⁶ The New South Wales government appointed a minister for the Olympic Games, Michael Knight. The state government also provided the infrastructure and facilities for the Games through the Olympic Coordination Authority (OCA) under the minister for the Olympic Games. The state government contributed in providing transport facilities, health services, and security and water management.⁵¹⁷

A Memorandum of Understanding was signed between New South Wales and the federal government for the provision of essential services to support SOCOG in the staging of the Games.⁵¹⁸ The federal government negotiated directly with the NSW Government and offered to provide \$30.79 million to be used on specific services and

⁵¹⁴ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 36.

⁵¹⁵ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 343.

⁵¹⁶ SOCOG, *Annual Report*, 1 July 1999, p. 8.

⁵¹⁷ SOCOG, *Annual Report*, 1 July 1999, p. 4.

⁵¹⁸ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 343.

facilities by SOCOG, in support of its staging of the Games, which could be provided by either federal agencies or other organisations.⁵¹⁹

The Australian Sports Commission was the federal agency that coordinated the preparation of athletes. The AIS, Australian Olympic Committee, Australian Paralympic Committee, national sporting organizations and state sports institutes and academies also helped to accomplish this job. The Australian Sports Commission formulated an Olympic Athlete Program that began on 1 July 1994. Australian athletes therefore received six years of support in preparation for the Sydney 2000 Olympics.⁵²⁰ As discussed above, the Federal government introduced the funding programs leading up to Sydney 2000 Olympics as the Next Step Program, the Maintain the Momentum Program, and the Olympic Athlete program.

Volunteers also played an important role in the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, as they were helpful and welcoming.⁵²¹ According to the official report of SOCOG, they provided 'priceless' assistance to staff in many areas. When Sydney won the bid to host the Games, SOCOG received thousands of letters from people throughout Australia and overseas wanting to volunteer. The confirmed number of the volunteers was 46,967 and Games-time volunteers were divided into two main categories, namely Specialist Volunteers and General Volunteers.⁵²² The official report of SOCOG further commented on the performance of volunteers and quoted the IOC president's reaction when he spontaneously visited Olympic Boulevard and applauded

⁵¹⁹ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 344.

⁵²⁰ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 101.

⁵²¹ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 188.

⁵²² Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, pp. 169-170.

some hard-working volunteers. The IOC president also stated at the end of the Games that the volunteers were responsible for the success of the Sydney Olympics. In his view, they were very well prepared and they always knew what to do. Dubbed the greatest success story of the Games, their commitment and skills were complemented by their warmth, positive attitude and patience.⁵²³

At this point it is pertinent to offer some conclusions about the Sydney Games. SOCOG's official view was that the massive success of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games could be attributed not only to the excellence of the spirit, culture and celebration of the event itself, but also to the process by which the bidding, preparation and staging of the Games took place.⁵²⁴ But critics like Jennings have different views, and he notes that corruption was involved in terms of the hospitality offered to the Olympic family, the bid process, and IOC voting irregularities.⁵²⁵ Bloomfield, on the other hand, lauds the event by asserting that the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games Opening Ceremony was an extremely triumphant show, celebrated not only within the Olympic Stadium, but also throughout Australia, and around the world. It was a festival of Australia, its history, environment and culture.⁵²⁶ As Bloomfield goes on to explain, the peak of this ceremony, the lighting of the Olympic cauldron by indigenous athlete Cathy Freeman, created a positive impression that came to characterize a highly praised Games.⁵²⁷

⁵²³ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 171.

⁵²⁴ Toohey *et al.*, *Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad*, p. 367.

⁵²⁵ Jennings, *The New Lords*, p. 213.

⁵²⁶ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 185.

⁵²⁷ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 185.

From Bloomfield's perspective, there was outstanding coordination between the AOC, the ASC, national sports organizations, and state sports institutes and academies.⁵²⁸ The Australian athletes were satisfied with their preparations and they expressed their feelings with managers, coaches and to the press.⁵²⁹ Due to this excellent co-ordination and preparations, Australian athletes won 58 medals for Australia and finished fourth on the medal table.⁵³⁰

For Sydney, for New South Wales, and for Australia, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games provided enormous profile and was a positive advertisement to the world. In support of this view, Baka, Hess and Nawaz quoted three Executive Directors of state sport institutes, namely Frank Pyke (VIS), Ken Norris (ACTAS) and Alex Baumann (QAS), who all agreed that Australian success in Sydney was due to cooperation among states Institutes and Academies of sport, the ASC and state government sport agencies, the AOC, and National Sport Organisations (NSOs) representing Olympic sports.⁵³¹

While most Australian people would gladly accept the accolade of Sydney 2000 being the best ever Games, Lenskyj is not convinced that Sydney Olympics were the 'best ever', emphasising that the event served the cause of global capitalism and did not do anything for existing social problems. She further argued that there was lack of public

⁵²⁸ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, pp. 181-182.

⁵²⁹ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 189.

⁵³⁰ Bloomfield, *Australia's Sporting Success*, p. 185.

⁵³¹ Pyke and Norris, 'Australia from Montreal to Sydney', and A. Baumann, 'Developing Sustained High Performance Services and Systems That Have Quality Outcomes', Paper presented at the 12th Commonwealth International Sport Conference, Manchester, 21 July 2002, p. 3. Both papers addressed the cooperation between various bodies involved with the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games in substantial detail. See also the comments made by the Minister for Sport and Recreation in the Victorian Government. Justin Madden, 'Foreword', in Frank Pyke, *Gold Rush: A Decade of Success*, Victorian Institute of Sport, South Melbourne, 2000, p. 4.

participation and democracy in decision-making.⁵³² Lenskyj also noted that the indirect benefits of the Games were included in the Sydney 2000 budget, while many indirect costs were not included. Indeed, Lenskyj says that ‘There was minimal sharing of financial risks, except with taxpayers, whose contribution was about half of the cost’. She further argued that the government of NSW and the Sydney Olympic organisers failed to protect social problems, like rent protection, housing for homeless, new upgraded affordable recreational facilities and affordable tickets for all venues.⁵³³ Lenskyj continues by stating that: ‘Women were under-represented in most of the Olympics boards and committees’.⁵³⁴ Regarding the environment, in her view, there were three major failures including the Bankstown cycling track, the Bondi Beach stadium and incomplete remediation of Homebush Bay.⁵³⁵ Moreover, the benefits were not equally distributed throughout the Olympics work force. Many jobs were short-term, job turnover was in evidence, and the use of volunteers remained problematic.⁵³⁶

4.13 New Sports Policy

In April 2001, less than a year after the conclusion of the Sydney Olympic Games, the Prime Minister of Australia and Federal Minister for Sports and Tourism launched a new sports policy. The policy was given the name of ‘Backing Australia’s Sporting Ability: A More Active Australia’ (BASA). According to Stewart *et al.*, the objective of the new policy was to provide a balance between high performance sport, and community sport development.⁵³⁷ If it is compared with the Maintain the Momentum

⁵³² Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry*, p. 228.

⁵³³ Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry*, p. 229.

⁵³⁴ Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry*, p. 230.

⁵³⁵ Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry*, p. 230.

⁵³⁶ Lenskyj, *Inside the Olympic Industry*, p. 230.

⁵³⁷ Stewart *et al.*, *Australian Sport*, p. 89.

Program, it would seem that the policy was actually a continuation of previous sports funding, namely the Next Step Program (for four years from 1989), and then it was renamed for another four years as the Maintain the Momentum Program and Olympic Athlete program respectively. All of these funding periods with different names had almost the same objectives.

BASA's first goal was to ensure that Australian elite athletes could continue to participate at international level. The policy therefore targeted coach education programs, athlete support and further research in sports science at the elite level. The second goal was to increase professionalism in the national sporting system, while the third objective was create a drug-free sporting environment in Australia. The final aim was to increase the number of participants in sport throughout Australia.⁵³⁸ According to the Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts website, the Federal government provided extra funds of \$161.6 million for four years and according to their press release this brought the total commitment up to a record level of \$547 million. The delivery of these funds would be in four major areas, namely: Sports Excellence: Backing Australian Athletes; A More Active Australia; Excellence in Sports Management, and; Tough on Drugs in Sport.⁵³⁹ These areas are all discussed in a little more detail below.

The official documents of the BASA declare that the Federal government believed that Australian athletes had done well at the Olympic Games in 2000 and the Commonwealth Games in Kuala Lumpur in 1998. Obviously this was due to funding provided by the government during the period of 1994-2000. Under the new policy,

⁵³⁸ Stewart *et al.*, *Australian Sport*, pp. 89-90.

⁵³⁹ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 23 June 2004.

the government intended to cover those areas that were not covered during the period of 1994-2000. The Federal government provided funds of approximately \$408 million over four years, beginning in 2001-2002 and including approximately \$15 million specifically for the Paralympic games.⁵⁴⁰ After analysing sports policy, the document says that the goals of these programs were to strengthen the national sporting structure for Australian athletes and enable them to participate and compete successfully in the 2002 winter Olympics, the 2004 Athens Olympics, the Paralympic Games in Athens, the 2002 and 2006 Commonwealth Games, and to continue forward to the 2010 Commonwealth Games, as well as team and individual world championships.⁵⁴¹

The government's view was that it intended to take actions such as the utilisation of world-class coaching techniques, provision of new and innovative supports services to assist national sporting organisations, provision of targeted assistance for high performance athletes preparing for different international competitions, encouragement of the participation of disabled athletes, and work in partnership with all concerned to maximise sporting outcomes.⁵⁴²

The 'A More Active Australia' policy shows that according to the above-mentioned program, the government supported grassroots participation and aimed at the participation of school-aged children. However, according to Baka, Hess and Nawaz, even so, the government provided substantially more funds in the area of high

⁵⁴⁰ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 23 June 2004.

⁵⁴¹ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 23 June 2004.

⁵⁴² Stewart *et al.*, *Australian Sport*, pp. 89-90.

performance.⁵⁴³ The policy further says that the goals were to significantly increase the number of participants in sport throughout Australia, including rural areas, to increase youth participation, to provide a new means for business, and to actively support local communities. According to government sources, the actions for this program included the building of partnerships between Federal government, local and national sporting organisations, the business community, schools and local government. The aim was to create incentives for sporting organisations that encouraged grassroots participation such as recruiting new players and building links with schools, and, ensuring that all Australians, regardless of culture, gender race, capability, or age have an opportunity to be part of 'A More Active Australia'.⁵⁴⁴

In their comparative study on Pakistan and Australia, Baka, Hess and Nawaz noted that the government policy had provided more funds toward grassroots participation compared to previous budgets and programs in sport policy, but they acknowledged that the bulk of the amount is still weighted towards high performance sport.⁵⁴⁵ Nevertheless, the increase in funding and ongoing financial commitment to high performance sport shows that the investment has paid off, especially given that Australia athletes won their first ever winter sports gold medals and achieved a world ranking of fifteen at Salt Lake City. Similarly in Athens, Australia finished in fifth position on the medal tally, winning 49 medals. It was only a small decrease from the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, and usually host nations experience a 30% decrease in performance following their hosting.⁵⁴⁶

⁵⁴³ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 172.

⁵⁴⁴ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 29 June 2004.

⁵⁴⁵ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 172.

⁵⁴⁶ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 173.

According to this program, the Federal government intended to enhance the ability of sports administrators to maximise outcomes of sports. There was no specific mention of funding in the policy document for this program. The Government set goals such as the adoption of business and management practices by national sporting organisations, greater private sector involvement in sports, increasing off-budget revenue generated by the ASC, and a higher level of commercial activity on the part of local and national sporting organisations.⁵⁴⁷ Some other objectives were to assist national sporting organisations in improving their management skills, to enhance the capabilities of the Australian Sports Foundation, a body through which people can make tax-deductible donations for sporting projects, in order to deliver outcomes to benefit all Australians, and to increase the budget revenue of Australian Sports Commission.⁵⁴⁸

Further analysis of sports policy documents reveals that the Tough on Drugs in Sports policy was launched in 1999 for the Sydney Olympic Games. The Federal government allocated an additional \$7.4 million for new anti-drugs research for the next four years. According to the new sports policy document, total Federal government funding for the Tough on Drugs in Sports would be approximately \$24 million over four years. The goal was set to provide a sporting environment that should be free of drugs in sports. The government continued to support drug-testing of high performance athletes, continued to educate athletes against the use of drugs,

⁵⁴⁷ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 29 June 2004.

⁵⁴⁸ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 29 June 2004.

continued to implement IOC-approved testing for EPO, and continued new research in drugs.⁵⁴⁹

In this context, Baka, Hess and Nawaz noted that the Federal government further increased funding for sport for the 2001-05 period and gave an additional \$161 million over previous budgets. Approximately 75% (\$408 million) of this total was aimed at the 'Sports Excellence - Backing Australian Athletes Program'. A further \$65.4 million was then allocated towards an upgrade and expansion of facilities at the AIS in the 2002 budget. Besides the increase in funding to elite sport, \$82 million went to Sport Development, \$24 million to Tough on Drugs in Sport and \$1 million to Excellence in Sports Management.⁵⁵⁰ Baka, Hess and Nawaz explain that: 'while the new sports policy did attempt to address more "participation" issues and "grass roots" programs than did previous programs and budgets, the bulk of money was still heavily skewed toward high performance sport'.⁵⁵¹ In a similar fashion, Stewart *et al.* have concluded that high performance sports development is still the driving force behind government policy, as it was throughout the 1980s and 1990s. This is despite the fact that Australia is the second most obese nation in the world and there is a lack of high priority for Australian engagement in regular physical activities. As Stewart *et al.* maintain, BASA's emphasis is clearly on participation in organised sport, the contribution it can make to build social capital, and its capacity to encourage high performance development. The ability of the program to attract more people who

⁵⁴⁹ See Department of Communications Information, Technology and the Arts, www.dcita.gov.au/Article/0,0_1-2_14-3_490-4_105325,00.html, accessed on 29 June 2004.

⁵⁵⁰ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 172.

⁵⁵¹ Baka, Hess and Nawaz, 'High Performance Sport', p. 172.

want to be physically fit due to participation in sport is much more uncertain and problematic.⁵⁵²

4.14 Recent Policy Initiatives in Government Delivery of Sport, 2004-05

The most recent years of the Howard Coalition government have been marked by continued funding in the area of elite sport. Some prominent examples of funding initiatives drawn from the 2004 to 2007 period which illustrate this continued financial commitment are discussed in the section immediately below, and following.

The Australian government allocated almost \$146 million to the Australian Sports Commission for the financial year of 2004-05, and in this period the ASC generated almost \$25 million in revenue from the corporate sector, sponsorship and hire of sports facilities. Thus a total amount of around \$170 million was available in funding for the 2004-05 financial year. The distribution of the relevant budget (broken down into percentages) was in the following areas: Sports Funding Services (42%); AIS Sports Programs 13%, AIS Athlete and Coach Services 7%, AIS Technical Direction 2%, Facilities Management 5%, Infrastructure Depreciation 5%; Business Operations (8%), Sports Development (8%), Active After-School Communities (AASC) (8%) and the Corporate Sector (2%).⁵⁵³

As part of these funding arrangements, in November 2004 the government unveiled the current manifestation of its sports policy, and 'Building Australian Communities Through Sport' was launched. This program had four priority areas. The first was community participation, which included programs that encouraged community sport

⁵⁵² Stewart *et al.*, *Australian Sport*, pp. 96-97.

⁵⁵³ ASC, *Annual Report, 2004-2005*, p. 84.

for all, physical activity in schools, the use of community facilities, heightened awareness of water safety and the encouragement of female participation in sport. The Active After-School Communities program was also included under this umbrella. The second priority area involved securing Australia's sporting future through high performance success, and this included programs such as Direct Athlete Support, a national paralympic partnership, the encouragement of excellence in sports management, and a strong anti-doping regime. The third priority area that was identified was sport infrastructure, and this included support in areas such as major multi-sport competitions and existing sports agencies. The fourth priority area was the development of the sport and leisure industry.⁵⁵⁴ Some of these priority areas are discussed in more detail below.

The Active After-School Communities initiative is a national program that provides Australian primary school-aged children with access to free, structured physical activity programs in the after school timeslot. The AASC program is designed to engage traditionally inactive children in structured physical activities and build links with community based organisations to create opportunities for ongoing participation. The AASC program is being delivered nationally to Australian primary schools and Childcare Benefit-approved Out of School Hour Care Services (OSHCS). The AASC program was introduced in 2005 with 900 primary schools and OSHC bodies participating around Australia.⁵⁵⁵

The Australian government also allocated \$3.8 million in its additional estimate statements for 2004-05 to provide direct funds to targeted elite athletes to assist in

⁵⁵⁴ http://www.dcita.gov.au/sport/policy_and_legislation/australian_government_sport_policy, accessed on 30 September 2007.

⁵⁵⁵ ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/aasc/index.asp>, accessed on 3 October 2007.

their daily living and training environment while they prepared for the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games. Direct Athlete Support recipients were selected on the basis of medal potential and individual need. In the end, Direct Athlete Support allocations were made to a total of 382 athletes from eighteen Commonwealth Games sports.⁵⁵⁶

Another area of operations to receive attention was coaching and officiating. A total of 81,003 coaches were registered as being accredited at 30 June 2005. According to the ASC, this is an increase of 7.7% compared to 30 June 2004. In 2004–05, the total number of new coaching accreditations was 12,427 and total re-accreditations were 7220. A total of 9031 officials were registered as being accredited at 30 June 2005. This represents an increase of 243 compared to 30 June 2004, and is attributable to more sports seeking to formalise officiating structures and recognising the value of the National Officiating Accreditation Scheme in this process. In 2004–05, the total number of new accreditations was 1194 and the total number of re-accreditations was 380.⁵⁵⁷

The ongoing success and effectiveness of the Australian elite sports system can be measured in large part by the outstanding results achieved during this period, notably at the Athens 2004 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The Australian Olympic team sent to Athens was widely billed as the ‘most successful team ever’, winning more gold medals than at any other Olympic Games. The 482 athletes representing Australia won a total of 49 medals, comprising seventeen gold, sixteen silver and sixteen bronze, a result that exceeded expectations, and placed Australia fourth on the

⁵⁵⁶ ASC, *Annual Report 2004-2005*, p. 41.

⁵⁵⁷ ASC, *Annual Report, 2004-2005*, p. 47.

medal table (see below). In fact, Australia is the first country in the history of the Olympics to follow a home Games with more gold medals in its next Olympic appearance.⁵⁵⁸

Table 4d: The Athens 2004 Olympic Games Medal Table.

Source: ASC, *Annual Report, 2004-2005*, pp. 80-81

	Country	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1	United States	35	39	29	103
2	China	32	17	14	63
3	Russia	27	27	38	92
4	Australia	17	16	16	49
5	Japan	16	9	12	37
6	Germany	14	16	18	48
7	France	11	9	13	33
8	Italy	10	11	11	32
9	Korea	9	12	9	30
10	Great Britain	9	9	12	30

4.15 Recent Policy Initiatives in the Government Delivery of Sport, 2005-06

Following the Athens Olympic Games, the Australian government continued its long-running financial support of sport. In the 2005-06 financial year, more than \$168 million was allocated to this area, and in addition the ASC generated almost \$22 million in revenue from the corporate sector, sponsorship and the hire of sports facilities. A total amount of around \$190 million was therefore available for

⁵⁵⁸ ASC, *Annual Report, 2004-2005*, p. 80.

expenditure in the 2005-06 financial year. The distribution of the budget was similar to the previous year, and was allocated as follows: Sports Funding Services (40%); AIS-Related Finances (19%); Active After-School Communities (16%); Facilities Management and Infrastructure Depreciation (10%); Business Operations (8%); and; Sports Development (7%).

A useful overview of the activities of the ASC in this period is provided by Peter Bartels, the chairman of the ASC, and Mark Peters, the Chief Executive Officer of the ASC, in the annual report from that year. They claim that the ASC continued to assist Australian elite athletes through the Direct Athletes Support program, and that 70 national sporting organisations were also assisted in their athlete development program. They note that the AIS completed 25 years of operation by dealing with 34 programs in 26 sports and up to 700 scholarship holders, as compared to its inception where it dealt with only eight sports and approximately 150 scholarship holders. The ASC continued its Active After-School Communities program, and they noted that it was operating at 1756 sites with approximately 90,000 children across Australia participating in the program.⁵⁵⁹

Bartels and Peters continued their overview by pointing out that there were four international mega sporting events during the period 2005-2006, namely the 2006 FIFA World Cup (Germany), the Commonwealth Games (Melbourne), the Winter Olympic Games (Italy) and the Winter Paralympic Games (Italy). In these latter two events, Australian athletes participated with their largest team ever, and at the Winter Olympic Games Australia achieved five top-eight results with a gold medal won by

⁵⁵⁹ P. T. Bartels and M. A. Peters, 'The Year in Review', in ASC, *Annual Report, 2005-2006*, p. 2.

Dale Begg–Smith in the ‘mogul’ event, and a bronze medal won by Alisa Camplin in the aerial event. The Australian Winter Paralympic team finished a credible thirteenth on the medal table, with a silver medal won by Michael Milton in the downhill event and Toby Kane winning a bronze medal in the ‘Super G’ event.⁵⁶⁰

They also claimed that as host nation for the eighteenth Commonwealth Games, Australia could be very proud of its performances on and off the field in Melbourne during March 2006. Australian athletes were involved in a record 221 medal-winning performances, with 84 gold, 69 silver and 68 bronze medals distributed on the dias. Members of the Australian team had success in sixteen of the eighteen sports contested, and the team won 30 per cent of the total number of medals that were available.⁵⁶¹

Finally, the three first-round matches of the Socceroos demonstrated to the world the quality of the Australian soccer team. As Bartels and Peters point out, with twelve former scholarship holders in the Australian squad, the AIS clearly played a role in developing the talents on display. The role of the ASC in driving change within the sport of football during the preceding three years also underpinned the Socceroos’ success.⁵⁶²

4.16 Recent Policy Initiatives in the Government Delivery of Sport, 2006-07

In terms of very recent policy initiatives, the Australian government has allocated \$193.017 million to the ASC for the 2006-07 financial year. In the previous year, the

⁵⁶⁰ Bartels and Peters, ‘The Year in Review’, p. 2.

⁵⁶¹ Bartels and Peters, ‘The Year in Review’, p. 2.

⁵⁶² Bartels and Peters, ‘The Year in Review’, p. 2. For more historical background on the recent rise of Australian soccer, see B. Murray and R. Hay (eds), *The World Game Downunder*, Australian Society for Sports History, Melbourne, 2006.

ASC generated almost \$24.426 million in revenue from the corporate sector, sponsorship, the hire of sports facilities, as well as interest from external sources such as government departments and agencies, and from national sporting organisations. A total amount of around \$217.443 million was therefore available for expenditure in the 2006-07 financial year. The distribution of the budget was as follows: Australian Institute of Sport (21%); Active After-School Communities (20%); Commercial and Facilities (5%); Corporate Services (6%); Corporate Costs (2%); National Sports Programs (7%); Sports Performance Development (37%); Executive Services (1%); and Finance (1%).⁵⁶³

In their annual report, the chairman of the ASC, Peter Bartels, and the Chief Executive Officer of the ASC, Mark Peters, also provided a sketch of the government delivery of sport during the 2006-07 period. They described the financial year as a successful period for both Australian sport in general and the ASC in particular. According to them, the Australian government, through the ASC, provided \$4.2 million in direct athlete support via the Australian Government Sport Training Grant scheme. This was in addition to the \$62 million distributed to national sporting organisations and \$39 million allocated to the AIS in 2006–07. They further claimed that additionally, 20 Australian sports preparing for the Beijing Olympics and Paralympics shared in an extra \$3 million in financial support from the Australian government. Regarding achievements at the grassroots level, they also claimed that the ASC's Active After-School Communities initiative was continuing to gain momentum following a federal budget announcement confirming the program's extension for a further three years (up until 2010). At the end of the 2006–07

⁵⁶³ ASC, www.ausport.gov.au/publications/annualreport2007/budget.asp, accessed on 15 November 2007.

financial year, the program was operating at 2888 sites, with approximately 140,000 children across Australia actively involved. Moreover, approximately 19,000 community personnel have been trained to deliver the Active After-School Communities program. Significantly, due to the success of this program, the ASC became joint winner of the 2006 Prime Minister's Awards for Excellence in Public Sector Management.⁵⁶⁴

During the 2006–07 period, changes in the organisational structure of the ASC were also made in order to provide better service. One major change, the addition of an extra division, was a direct result of the additional funding provided by the Australian government. In this context, the newly created National Sports Programs Division has been charged with looking after talent identification, high performance coaching, national athlete and coach career and education, international relations and national programs. The ASC also finalised its agreement with the Provincial Government of Varese in northern Italy so that a purpose-built European Training Centre for Australian athletes and teams during 2006-2007 could be established. This facility will be used by Australian athletes and teams preparing for elite competition.⁵⁶⁵

4.17 Conclusions

In summary, it is fair to state that Australia has a well know reputation for being a sport-loving nation. However, it is also true, as this chapter and other authors have pointed out, that by and large its athletes participated in sports without much formal government support from the time of settlement to around the decade of the 1970s.

⁵⁶⁴ ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/publications/annualreport2007/review.asp>, accessed on 15 November 2007.

⁵⁶⁵ ASC, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/publications/annualreport2007/review.asp>, accessed on 15 November 2007.

There was government assistance and intervention after World War II in the shape of the Fitness Act, but this initiative had a military-orientated purpose. Before the 1970s, government funding was for the construction of facilities and the staging of the 1938 and 1962 Commonwealth Games and Melbourne Olympics Games in 1956.

After analysing government delivery in terms of party politics, it seems clear that the Australian Labor Party contributed more than its counterpart the Liberal Coalition toward the funding of sports. When the Liberal Coalition came into power in 1975, sports funding was decreased drastically. Actions resulting from the Bloomfield Report, the Coles Report, and the creation of a Commonwealth Department devoted to sport, can all be directly credited to the Australian Labor Party. The creation of the Australian Institute of Sport and the Australian Sports Commission were also given importance in those reports. In particular, the creation of the AIS was a major factor in the sporting success of Australia in recent years, including outstanding performances at the Atlanta, Sydney and Athens Olympics Games (and even at the recent Winter Olympic Games). However, the Liberal Coalition, which came to power at the end of 1996 deserves some credit for continuing the sporting policies of the Labor government over the next decade, and supporting its commitment with generous funding initiatives, particularly in the area of elite sport.

Importantly, as outlined in this chapter, it should be acknowledged that Australian state governments are also heavily involved in Australian sporting success during the first decade of the twenty-first century by their provision of the latest sporting facilities through respective state sports institutes and academies. In essence, effective coordination between state sports institutes and academies, and the AIS,

along with adequate funding and efficient administration, seems to be the secret of Australian sporting success.

Chapter Five

Sport in Pakistan: The Government Delivery of Sports Policy, 1947-2007

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss historical aspects of the government delivery of sport in Pakistan between 1947 and 2007. As noted previously, there is an alarming lack of published material by scholars in the form of books or research articles on Pakistani sports, and so this chapter will rely heavily on official reports of the Pakistan Sports Board, as well as a select number of interviews conducted with athletes, officials and media personnel. It is important to reiterate that many government records have not been archived or regularly maintained. Furthermore, according to the Pakistan government's instructions on record management, files and papers are required to be destroyed after a given period or on completion of audits. Such practices are a serious barrier to research projects which rely on government archives for information. These types of constraints might appear to make the conclusions for the chapter somewhat limited but such disparities are inevitable for any comparative study that deals both with a developing nation and a developed nation, each having their own standards of record-keeping, and differing levels of access to relevant information.

As far as the structure of the chapter is concerned, the main emphasis will be on providing an historical overview of government delivery in a more or less chronological order. This descriptive analysis is mainly focused on five significant aspects of the government delivery of sport in Pakistan. These include: firstly, the important findings and proposed policies of the National Sports Committee, established in 1967; secondly, the 'Report of the Cabinet Committee on Promotion

and Development of Sports'; thirdly, two 'Sports Conferences' organised by the government; fourthly, the instigation of the so-called 'National Sports Policy', and; finally the different annual reports of the PSB dating from 1971-72 to 2006-07. The chapter will also discuss the administrative structure of the Board, thereby shedding light on its different component bodies and their functions. From this structure, it will be evident that the history of the PSB can neatly be divided into two phases. The first phase begins in 1971-72 and ends at 1988-89, while the second phase extends from 1989-90 to the current time.

5.2 Historical Overview: The Beginnings of Government Delivery of Sport

As noted in previous chapters, Pakistan came into existence during August 1947 as a result of the partition of the Indian subcontinent. This partition involved the division of both land and assets, with the government of India officially allocating a 17.5% share of physical attributes to Pakistan. As Abdul Sattar notes, the Indian government was not keen on the required transfer and obstructed and delayed the process whenever it could. This was obviously to the disadvantage of Pakistan, creating serious hardships for the functioning of the new government.⁵⁶⁶ In addition, millions of people had to migrate between India and the newly created Pakistan, in itself a momentous and difficult course of action. Obviously the priorities of the new government were in the area of security, law and order, and the settlement of refugees.

Despite all these very pressing problems, the founder of the nation, Mohammad Ali Jinnah, who had assumed the position of Governor-General, still found time to

⁵⁶⁶ Sattar, *Pakistan's Foreign Policy*, p. 16.

inaugurate the first National Games at Karachi in 1948.⁵⁶⁷ In his speech at the opening ceremony, staged on a polo ground, Jinnah reflected on the significance of the occasion and the importance of sport:

I bid you welcome. My message to you is build up physical strength not for aggression, not for militarism, but for becoming fit, all your life and all the time, in every walk of life of your nation wherever you be and always to be a force for peace, international amity and goodwill. After these games, you shall go to World Olympiad at Wembley Stadium, London, representing us, as messengers of our good will and my best wishes will go with you. Remember, to win is nothing; it is the effort and the spirit behind the effort that counts.⁵⁶⁸

Like many under-developed countries at the time of their independence, there was neither any sports infrastructure (except for open spaces and areas set aside for playgrounds) nor any delivery system or arrangement for the development and promotion of sports in Pakistan. Despite this detrimental domestic environment, Pakistan participated at the 1948 Olympic Games in London, although without achieving any success. No official record is available about the despatch of the contingent to those Games, however, it is assumed and perhaps implied by Jinnah's speech above, that the government funded the exercise.

Nevertheless, despite this inauspicious debut in the world of international sport, the people of the Pakistan nation proved to be keen on achieving profile and status on the world stage, as evidenced by the fact that a few years later local Pakistan Air Force (PAF) officers, without government assistance, managed to send the popular squash player Hashim Khan to England. He won the British Open in 1951, thus achieving

⁵⁶⁷ PSB, *Annual Report, 1972-73*, p. 14.

⁵⁶⁸ Cited in Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 27.

the first international sports victory for the newly formed nation of Pakistan.⁵⁶⁹ According to Bhatti, Khan was a 'stockily-built balding Pathan from Navankilli', and since there was no formal government agency to provide any finance, PAF officers based at Peshawar, impressed with his skills, provided the money for Khan's first tour abroad, where he 'baffled the world with his artistry, wizardry and amazing speed on the squash court'.⁵⁷⁰

In this early phase of nationhood, the involvement of the government in the delivery of elite sporting enterprises was sometimes problematic. It seems that there was little financial support in these initial years and yet there were expectations that the nation would do well on the international sporting stage. One sport where expectations were high was in hockey, and it provides something of a mini-case study at this juncture in the nation's history. Despite high hopes, Pakistan's hockey team failed to win any Olympic medals between 1948 and 1952, and as a result the government of Pakistan intervened and set up an inquiry committee in 1952 to look into the causes of their poor performances in this sport. Riazuddin Ahmad, a senior Indian Civil Service officer who was charged with the responsibility of investigating why the national hockey team had performed so poorly at the international level, headed the committee. The committee was also requested, if it was possible, to give recommendations for future improvements in the sport.⁵⁷¹

While the record of the inquiry committee is not available, the recommendations of the committee proved fruitful as it was thought that their recommendations were

⁵⁶⁹ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 27.

⁵⁷⁰ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 351. See also Rutnagur, *Khans, Unlimited*, p. 23.

⁵⁷¹ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 281, and PSB, *Annual Report, 1972-73*, p. 20. See also the discussion in Chapter Three of this thesis.

responsible for the Pakistan hockey team achieving a silver medal at the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games.⁵⁷² It is also worthwhile to note that the same practice was repeated when Pakistan lost 2-1 against South Korea at the 1986 Asian Games and finished in the lower echelons at the following hockey World Cup in 1986. An inquiry was again set up to investigate the causes of failure and a number of recommendations for the improvement of Pakistan's international hockey standards were made. The recommendations of the committee are again not on record, but Riazuddin Ahmad who headed the inquiry in 1952, once more chaired the investigation.⁵⁷³

In terms of formal government responsibility, it was the Ministry of Education, with a small advisory staff, that had charge of matters related to sport from 1947 to 1958.⁵⁷⁴ However, with the rapid expansion in sports activities from 1958, and with recognition that the existing sport management infrastructure was inadequate, the need to have an authentic and dedicated sports body in the country was acknowledged. Thus, in 1958 the Ministry of Education decided that it could not manage sports effectively without appropriate legislation that would enable the government to promote, control and regulate the entire sports sector. In May 1959, the Ministry of Education, through a resolution, confirmed the identity of an embryonic organisation, initially known as the 'Pakistan Sports Control Board' (PSCB). Subsequently, on 2 May 1962, ordinance number XVI was promulgated,

⁵⁷² Pakistan lost to India in the final.

⁵⁷³ Bhatti, *Pakistan Sports*, p. 282. Unfortunately, the precise recommendations from both inquiries are not available in government archives or in Bhatti's compendium.

⁵⁷⁴ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 21.

and the PSCB was established. The Board was now entrusted with enormous task of ensuring the smooth conduct of sports activities throughout the country.⁵⁷⁵

In terms of structure, the Board comprised a General Body, an Executive Committee and a Directorate of Sports. The General Body was supposed to lay down the policies of the Board, and the Executive Committee's task was to initiate executive actions to implement policies. The Directorate of Sports was supposed to carry out the executive work of the Board on a daily basis. To implement the policies of the Board there was a small secretariat within the Ministry of Education, and the Deputy Education Advisor was the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Board. The Directorate of Sports was also supposed to assist the Secretary of the Board. There was a Director; an additional Director for East Pakistan (now Bangladesh), some clerical staff and the Board also employed thirteen national coaches of different sports and games.⁵⁷⁶ With the incorporation of the Pakistan Sports Control Board, the government seemed to have put in place a management structure that had the potential to adequately promote, develop and control sport in Pakistan.

5.3 The National Sports Committee, 1967

Notwithstanding the above comments, the actual functioning of the PSCB was, at best, casual in nature and no discernible improvement in terms of outcomes seems to have been achieved during its initial two to three years of operation. The operations of the Board also failed to match the high expectations of both the government and the public. However, as mentioned in Chapter Three, Pakistan won a gold medal in hockey and a bronze medal in wrestling at the 1960 Rome Olympic Games, and this

⁵⁷⁵ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 21-22.

⁵⁷⁶ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 9.

was to stand as Pakistan's best ever performance at any Olympics Games.⁵⁷⁷ During this period, Pakistan achieved some satisfactory results in the Asian Games and the Commonwealth Games, and obtained gold medals in track and field, wrestling and boxing. Most notably, at the Jakarta Asian Games in 1962, Pakistan won 28 medals including eight gold medals, eleven silver and nine bronze. In the same year, Pakistan won nine medals at the Perth Commonwealth Games, including eight gold medals and one silver medal.⁵⁷⁸ When Pakistan participated in the Tokyo Olympic Games of 1964 and won only a silver medal in hockey, it seemed that the bubble had burst, and the overall performance of Pakistan's athletes at international level once again came under scrutiny. In December 1967, the Government of Pakistan (through the Ministry of Education) once again ordered an inquiry into the performance of sports and constituted a National Sports Committee for the purpose. The Secretary of the Ministry of Home and Kashmir Affairs, A. B. Awan, was appointed as the Chairman. The other members of the Committee were Muhammad Shamsul Haq (Vice-Chancellor of Rajshahi University), Nawab Hassan Askari, A. H. Kardar, Lieutenant Colonel A. Hamid, and Brigadier C. H. B. Rodham, who was Director General of the Pakistan Sports Control Board and acted as Secretary-Convener to the Committee.⁵⁷⁹

The major task of this very important Committee was to determine whether or not any deterioration had taken place in sports and games in the country. If this was found to be the case, then the Committee was charged with suggesting ways and means of improving the national sports standard. Thus, the Committee addressed itself to the question through a general survey of sports and games and a series of seminars, as discussed in more detail below.

⁵⁷⁷ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 42.

⁵⁷⁸ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 42.

⁵⁷⁹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 1.

In terms of determining a methodology to achieve its aims, the Committee held a preliminary meeting at Lahore on 25 and 26 January 1968. It was decided at this two-day marathon meeting that a questionnaire would be given to sports-related people along with personal interviews and seminars in large cities.⁵⁸⁰ The questionnaire was designed to ascertain and assess the role of sport in society, the deterioration in the standard of sports, the organisation, administration, coaching, training and selection of international teams and athletes, and the funding and standard of umpiring, sports facilities and sports competitions. The first part of the questionnaire in every category was meant to determine whether the participant was satisfied or not with the current situation. If dissatisfied, participants were asked to make recommendations on how standards could be improved.⁵⁸¹

To accomplish its task, the Committee sent questionnaires to a total of 109 interested parties, including sports organisers, athletes and educationalists. A total of 33 people formally responded to the survey.⁵⁸² The Committee also interviewed people in different cities of Pakistan who were closely involved in sport as either organisers, athletes or fans, in order to broaden the investigation and to draw more concrete conclusions. A total of 111 persons were requested to participate in interviews and 93 people appeared. However, the means by which the interviews were recorded, the range of questions asked by the Committee and the actual responses of the interviewees are not stated clearly in the Report.⁵⁸³ The Committee also conducted a number of seminars. For example, there was a two-day seminar at Lahore on 17 and

⁵⁸⁰ The questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 5.

⁵⁸¹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 126-129.

⁵⁸² *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 148-155.

⁵⁸³ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 156-163.

18 August 1968, and 31 participants shared their views.⁵⁸⁴ During the course of investigations, the Committee also undertook a survey of the existing organisational set up of sports and games in Pakistan in order to suggest ways and means of improving national sports standards.⁵⁸⁵ The key question asked by the Committee seemed to revolve around whether or not there had been a decline in the number of participants. In the end, the Committee identified three inter-related issues: firstly, there had been deterioration in certain sports; secondly, there were a lesser number of participants in sports activity; and, thirdly, there had been a decline in the number of spectators.

To determine whether there has been decline in sports, the standard yardstick used by the Committee was Pakistan's performances in international sporting events. In this respect, the Committee preferred to draw attention to the results of Olympic, Asian and Commonwealth Games in which Pakistan had participated from 1948 up to 1968. The results clearly indicated that performances were satisfactory up to 1962 and declined thereafter.

In their conclusions and recommendations, the Committee, as a result of their general survey, found that performances in general sports at the Olympic, Asian and Commonwealth Games had deteriorated since 1962. However, in some sports, such as wrestling and boxing in the Commonwealth Games, it had been satisfactory. The Committee also came to the conclusion that while the Pakistan team had continued its on-field success in hockey, its performance in track and field had been very

⁵⁸⁴ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 130-147.

⁵⁸⁵ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 3.

disappointing.⁵⁸⁶ The Committee, therefore, recommended that in track and field, Pakistani athletes should improve their standards gradually, first at the Asian level, subsequently at Commonwealth level and finally at world, or Olympic, level. According to the Committee, the task was not beyond the reach of Pakistani athletes. It was specifically noted that even nations such as Kenya, despite their small population and limited resources, achieved medal-status at the Mexico Olympic Games in 1968.⁵⁸⁷

In terms of the organisational model of sports in Pakistan, the Committee concluded that there was no uniform organisational arrangement for sports in the country.⁵⁸⁸ The Committee, therefore, recommended strengthening the Pakistan Sports Control Board so that they could monitor the performance of sports organisations. The Committee also recommended that instead of elected secretaries of sports organisations there should be government-paid secretaries of national sporting organisations.⁵⁸⁹

In respect to physical education and sport in schools and colleges, the Committee concluded that the number of participants had declined in educational institutions due to an absence of instructional staff. Another factor that caused deterioration in sports standards in educational institutions was that the number of students had increased but the number of sports facilities had remained the same.⁵⁹⁰ The Committee thus recommended that provincial governments should establish provincial sports boards and invest more funds into sport.⁵⁹¹

⁵⁸⁶ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 5.

⁵⁸⁷ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 5.

⁵⁸⁸ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 8.

⁵⁸⁹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 11.

⁵⁹⁰ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 12.

⁵⁹¹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 12.

Regarding sports infrastructure, the Committee noted a lack of playing fields and other sports facilities. The Committee also noted that there was a dearth of playing fields in urban areas, particularly in cities like Karachi, Dacca, Lahore, Chittagong, Peshawar and Rawalpindi.⁵⁹² In line with this, the Committee recommended that provincial governments should provide more facilities to overcome the apparent shortage. The Committee also recommended the provision of more playing fields and the preservation of existing playgrounds and open spaces through legislative measures enacted by the central government.⁵⁹³

In respect of training and coaching arrangements, the Committee noted a lack of qualified coaches in educational institutions, and the available teachers were found to be deficient in theoretical and practical qualifications relating to the field of physical education studies. It is pertinent to mention here that Pakistan did (and still does) rely heavily on educational institutions for the identification of its elite sporting talent.⁵⁹⁴ The Committee recommended that the standard of syllabi for physical education teachers be raised, and it urged an increase in the duration of the physical education diploma from one to two years. The Committee recommended that national coaching centres should hold 'refresher' courses for physical education teachers, along with staging training for elite athletes. The Committee also suggested raising the salary of national coaches in order to attract qualified people.⁵⁹⁵

⁵⁹² *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 12.

⁵⁹³ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 12.

⁵⁹⁴ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 73.

⁵⁹⁵ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 74-75.

In terms of funding criteria for national sporting organisations, the Committee noted that the executive committee of the PSCB should determine the annual grant of each national sports federation. The criteria prescribed for the executive committee included the activities of each federation, the standards achieved, the cost of equipment for particular sports federations, and the public interest in particular sports.⁵⁹⁶ In its recommendations, the Committee stipulated that three categories of grants should be instigated and it recommended that the executive committee of the PSCB should release annual grants according to each of these categories. The categories were as follows: firstly, those games and sports which had achieved or likely to achieve Olympic standards; secondly, those games and sports which had achieved the standards of the Asian and/or Commonwealth Games; and thirdly, those games and sports which were popular at a national level and proceeding towards international standards.⁵⁹⁷

With regard to women's sports, the Committee found that women were generally not encouraged to take part in sports and games, and there was a shortage of trained female physical education teachers due to low standards of training in physical education colleges for teachers. It was discovered that the heads of educational institutions were, in fact, using physical education staff for work not related to their profession and there was also a shortage of sports facilities. The Committee also observed that national sports federations were, as a general rule, not interested in the promotion of sports for females.⁵⁹⁸ The Committee therefore recommended that the standard of physical education teacher training should be upgraded and more sports should be included in their curriculum. It was also further resolved that provincial

⁵⁹⁶ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 77.

⁵⁹⁷ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 79.

⁵⁹⁸ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 80-81.

governments should ensure that physical education teachers would not be used for non-professional duties (that is, duties unrelated to their profession as physical education teachers). Provincial governments were also asked to develop and provide sports facilities for female sports educational institutions. Significantly, it was another recommendation that national sporting organisations should involve women in their administrative arrangements, and that female community centres should be built in order to encourage girls to play in an appropriate environment.⁵⁹⁹

In relationship to sponsorship for sport, the Committee found that there was not sufficient patronage for sports and games from the different departments of government or the private sector. Actually, there were only two or three departments, including Pakistan International Airlines (where the majority shareholding is held and managed by government) and an electricity department (which is a government entity) that had sports teams.⁶⁰⁰ The Committee recommended that government departments should have sports departments and sports teams, and that the industrial sector should be involved in sponsoring sports activities by giving them some taxation relief. In regard to the sponsorship of industrial teams, it was also recommended that when a new industrial project was to be started there should also be provision for playing facilities to be made available for employees.⁶⁰¹

With regard to sports in rural areas, the Committee recognized that the majority of the population of Pakistan lived in villages. It was also noted that rural areas had their own indigenous games such as kabaddi, wrestling, wrist-holding and tent-pegging. However, it was clear that these sports were losing interest among villagers due to a

⁵⁹⁹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 81-82.

⁶⁰⁰ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 83-84.

⁶⁰¹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 87.

variety of reasons.⁶⁰² The Committee, in an effort to encourage indigenous sports, urged provincial governments to come forward and provide the required facilities for sports and games, and recommended that other sports such as football and volleyball should also be introduced into villages (with competitive swimming to be introduced in East Pakistan). In this context, the Committee also stressed that there should be more competitions in these sports among the different villages.⁶⁰³

In relation to media and sport, the Committee observed that there was little quality in sports reporting in newspapers due to the dearth of qualified sports journalists. Reporters in newspapers were 'jacks-of-all-trades', often doing jobs in different fields in addition to their sports reporting duties. The newspaper owners were not offering attractive salaries and therefore they were not able to hire talented reporters. The syllabi of journalism in different universities also lacked a specialist stream in sports journalism. Sporting organisations were complaining that sports reporters were too critical, rather than providing constructive suggestions. On the other hand, sports reporters accused sporting organisations of not cooperating when information needed to be provided. Furthermore, the Committee discovered that there was not a good standard of coverage of sports when it came to radio and television.⁶⁰⁴ Among a number of recommendations, the Committee suggested that newspapers owners should raise salaries for reporters in order to attract sufficiently talented sports reporters. They also recommended that universities should add sports journalism to the relevant syllabi, and that radio and television should broadcast more sports programs, including the activities of schools and colleges.⁶⁰⁵

⁶⁰² *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 88.

⁶⁰³ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 90.

⁶⁰⁴ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, pp. 91-92.

⁶⁰⁵ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 93

In terms of the cost of sports equipment, the Committee found that the sports equipment available in markets was sub-standard and too expensive. The reason was that most of the raw materials had to be imported and the government had a strict import policy involving high taxes on such imports. Due to this situation, it was often beyond the means of the ordinary person to purchase sports equipment.⁶⁰⁶ The Committee therefore urged the government of Pakistan to relax the import duty on sports goods.⁶⁰⁷

In the area of funding, the Committee observed that like most developing countries, the funding of sports for its promotion and development had been the responsibility of the central government, and that the private sector was not inclined to offer any support. It was accordingly recognised that the government should make an investment of substantial funds in the overall sports sector. The Committee found that there were some allegations of the misuse of sports grants, however in general the Committee was not satisfied with the overall amount of government funding.⁶⁰⁸ The Committee accordingly recommended increasing government funding for the PSCB and it also recommended that there should be an audit of money spent by national sporting organisations before the release of any subsequent round of annual grants.⁶⁰⁹

In summary, the National Sports Committee was constituted in 1967 with the aim of reviewing the entire sports sector in Pakistan and producing a comprehensive report with definite recommendation to be implemented for the promotion, development and

⁶⁰⁶ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 95.

⁶⁰⁷ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 97.

⁶⁰⁸ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 100.

⁶⁰⁹ *Report of the National Sports Committee*, p. 103.

improvement of sport in Pakistan. The report was not only comprehensive in nature but its recommendations were well thought out and extremely valuable. No sporting country in the region had produced such a useful document on the subject at this point in time. Unfortunately, as intimated below, the implementation of the recommendation of the National Sports Committee remained partial and incomplete.

Finally, it is worth noting that Muhammad Ashfaq, the current Deputy Director General and a long-serving officer of the PSCB and PSB, who was involved with the above inquiry, was subsequently highly critical of the entire exercise. He maintained that the Pakistan Sports Control Board compiled the recommendations of the Committee and sent them, as required, to the Ministry of Education for further action. However, according to Ashfaq, what ever happened to those recommendations and whether or not they were ever officially accepted or formally acted upon, remains something of a mystery.⁶¹⁰

5.4 The Government Delivery and Funding of Sport in Pakistan During the 1970s

The next few sections of the chapter examine the government delivery of sport in the aftermath of the National Sport Committee of 1967. Specifically, the matter of funding is put under the spotlight, and to this end the budgets of the PSB are examined in detail.⁶¹¹

⁶¹⁰ Personal communication with M. Ashfaq, 25 August 2004. Searches by the author were also unsuccessful.

⁶¹¹ To make monetary comparisons specified in the remainder of this chapter more comprehensible, it should be noted that the approximate rate of conversion to Australian dollar in November 2007 is approximately AUS\$1.00 to 55 Pakistani rupees. For details see Khanani & Kalia International, 'Forex Rates', http://www.forexpk.com/kalpoint/kki/code/kkionline_ver5.1/kki_forex_rates.asp, accessed on 14 November 2007.

In the years following the National Sports Committee, the government was forced to remain committed to the promotion of sports and the improvement of sports standards at international competitions, largely due to the constant pressure by the press and the general public. Needless to add, the Pakistani public took (and continues to take) immense pride in the sporting performances of the nation, partly because it is an emotional and patriotic issue for them, as it is for most nations of the world. Thus, on account of popular public sentiments, the government continued to make policy and administrative interventions in the sports sector, some of which are detailed below.

Another peculiarity about the Pakistani situation is the dependence of the sports sector on government funding. While the government is charged with providing funding for this obligation, it has remained under tremendous financial constraints since the creation of Pakistan. For example, analysis of overall national budget allocations for the last ten years (1997-2007) indicates a permanent deficit.⁶¹² Another special feature of the Pakistan economy is its requirements for military defence. This is an area which takes up most of the government's resources and as a result the government has to regularly rely on foreign loans, which constitute a sizable percentage of the its Gross Domestic Product.⁶¹³ Due to these constraints the government funding for the sports sector involves a difficult choice for finance managers who cannot allocate high priority to this area, even if they desired to do so. With the given constraints as discussed above, the funding of the government delivery of sport in Pakistan will be outlined in the sections and tables immediately below.

⁶¹² Government of Pakistan, 'Economic Survey of Pakistan (2006-07), Table 4.2', *Statistical Appendix*, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, 2007, p. 38.

⁶¹³ Government of Pakistan, 'Economic Survey of Pakistan (2006-07), Table 9.72', *Statistical Appendix*, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, 2007, p. 90.

It is also important to note that in 1972, (the same year that the PSCB was re-named as the Pakistan Sports Board) the government reviewed the existing Education Policy thereby recommending the establishment of the National Sports Trust with a view to making the sports sector much more self-sufficient. The National Sports Trust was also created in 1972. In July 1977, a new Ministry of Culture, Archaeology and Tourism was created to look after sports affairs in the country. This was, later on, re-designated as the Ministry of Culture Sports and Tourism (now called the Ministry of Sports). Consequently, the administrative control of both the Pakistan Sports Board as well as the National Sports Trust was transferred to the said Ministry by the federal government. Later, in July 1980, a National Sports Trust (Repeal) Ordinance was promulgated and the National Sports Trust was merged with the Pakistan Sports Board.⁶¹⁴

The records of government funding are only available from the 1971-72 financial year and essentially the figures discussed in this chapter are drawn from the PSB annual reports. Nearly all sporting federations are totally reliant on government funding, and it should be noted that the grants distributed to national federations are of two types. Firstly, there are annual grants that are meant for administration and the running of offices, and, secondly, special grants, that are meant for foreign tours or the staging of international events.⁶¹⁵ It is clear that government and public support for the sport of hockey has always been at higher levels as compared to other sports, and the PSB financial reports confirm this position.

⁶¹⁴ See various annual reports of the PSB, where a number of Ministry name changes are specified. A current organisational chart of the PSB is provided in Appendix 6.

⁶¹⁵ M. Y. Khawaja, interviewed in person, Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

The annual PSB reports of the period from 1971-72 to 1979-80 mostly mention the amounts given to national sporting federations without giving details of the expenditure. For example, the annual report of 1971-72 shows that the government of Pakistan provided a total amount of 0.65 million Pakistani rupees to the PSB for the entire sport sector. There were 25 National Sports Federations affiliated with the PSB and only 21 of these Federations received a total of 0.39 million Pakistani rupees as an annual grant. The total amount of 0.14 million Pakistani rupees was given as a special grant to National Federations and 0.11 million Pakistani rupees were spent on national training and coaching centres at Dacca, Lahore and Karachi.⁶¹⁶ However, it should be noted that the audited report of the PSB for the financial year 1971-72, completed by Fakhar Majid and Company Chartered Accountants, showed that only 23 National Federations received an annual grant and two Federations, the Pakistan Cycling Federation and the Pakistan Physical Culture and Wrestling Association (now known as the Pakistan Wrestling Federation), did not receive an annual grant at all.⁶¹⁷

A total of 23 national sporting bodies including the BCCP (Board for Control of Cricket in Pakistan) received annual grants from the PSB during the fiscal year of 1972-73. The PSB also provided annual grants to the POA, the Services Sports Control Board, the Inter-Board Sports Committee and the Inter-University Sports Board. The PSB provided total funds of 3.34 million Pakistani rupees to different sporting organizations, including 0.65 million Pakistani rupees for annual grants and 3.34 million Pakistani rupees for special grants during the period of 1972-73.⁶¹⁸

⁶¹⁶ PSB, *Annual Report, 1971-72*, p. 1. See Appendix 8 for an outline of the operations of the PSB.

⁶¹⁷ PSB, *Annual Report, 1971-72*, p. 12.

⁶¹⁸ PSB, *Annual Report, 1972-73*, pp. 1-2.

During the fiscal year 1973-74, the Pakistan Sports Board distributed 3.48 million Pakistani rupees as annual and special grants to affiliated sporting bodies. The amount of annual grants and special grants was 1.75 million Pakistani rupees for the 1974-75 period.⁶¹⁹ The above-mentioned grants for the year 1975-76 was 2.52 million Pakistani rupees and the PSB also spent 1.30 million Pakistani rupees on training, 0.64 million Pakistani rupees on administrative expenses and 0.15 million Pakistani rupees on expenditure for foreign coaches. In 1976-77 the government of Pakistan through the PSB spent 1.474 million Pakistani rupees as annual and special grants, 0.351 million Pakistani rupees for administrative expenditures and 0.769 million Pakistani rupees for training and coaching purposes.⁶²⁰ Similarly the PSB distributed funds in 1977-78 consisting of 2.380 million Pakistani rupees for annual and special grants, 0.292 million Pakistani rupees for administrative expenditures and 1.610 million Pakistani rupees for training and coaching purposes. The BCCP and the Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF) both received an equal amount, namely 0.3 million Pakistani rupees.

The budgetary allocation for 1979-80 was 5.043 million Pakistani rupees. The distribution was 3.294 million Pakistani rupees for annual and special grants, 0.834 million Pakistani rupees for administrative expenditures and 0.913 million Pakistani rupees for training and coaching purposes. The sports of cricket and hockey were the top recipients with an amount of 0.28 million Pakistani rupees each. Other bodies to receive annual funding grants were as follows: Pakistan Squash Racket Federation (0.040 million Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Badminton Federation (0.028 million Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Olympic Association (0.47 million Pakistani rupees);

⁶¹⁹ See Appendix 9, Annual Development Budgets of the Pakistan Sports Board, 1993-2007.

⁶²⁰ See Appendix 9, Annual Development Budgets of the Pakistan Sports Board, 1993-2007.

Pakistan Football Federation (0.085 million Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Amateur Athletic Federation (0.095 million Pakistani rupees), All Pakistan Lawn Tennis Association (0.033 million Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Table Tennis Federation (0.023 Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Weightlifting Federation (0.023 Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Gymnastic Federation (0.009 million Pakistani rupees); Pakistan Yachting Association (0.023 million Pakistan rupees), and; Pakistan Women Hockey Association (0.023 million Pakistan rupees).⁶²¹

A number of graphic representations of government funding during the period between 1971/72 and 1979/80, which provide the pattern of spending at a glance, are provided below. The cones in these graphic representations represent the amount of government funding in millions of Pakistani Rupees, with each cone representative of a financial year for the period indicated.

⁶²¹ PSB, *Annual Reports, 1979-80*, pp. 37, 38.

Table 5a: Annual, Special and Recurring Grants From the PSB to National Sports Federations.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

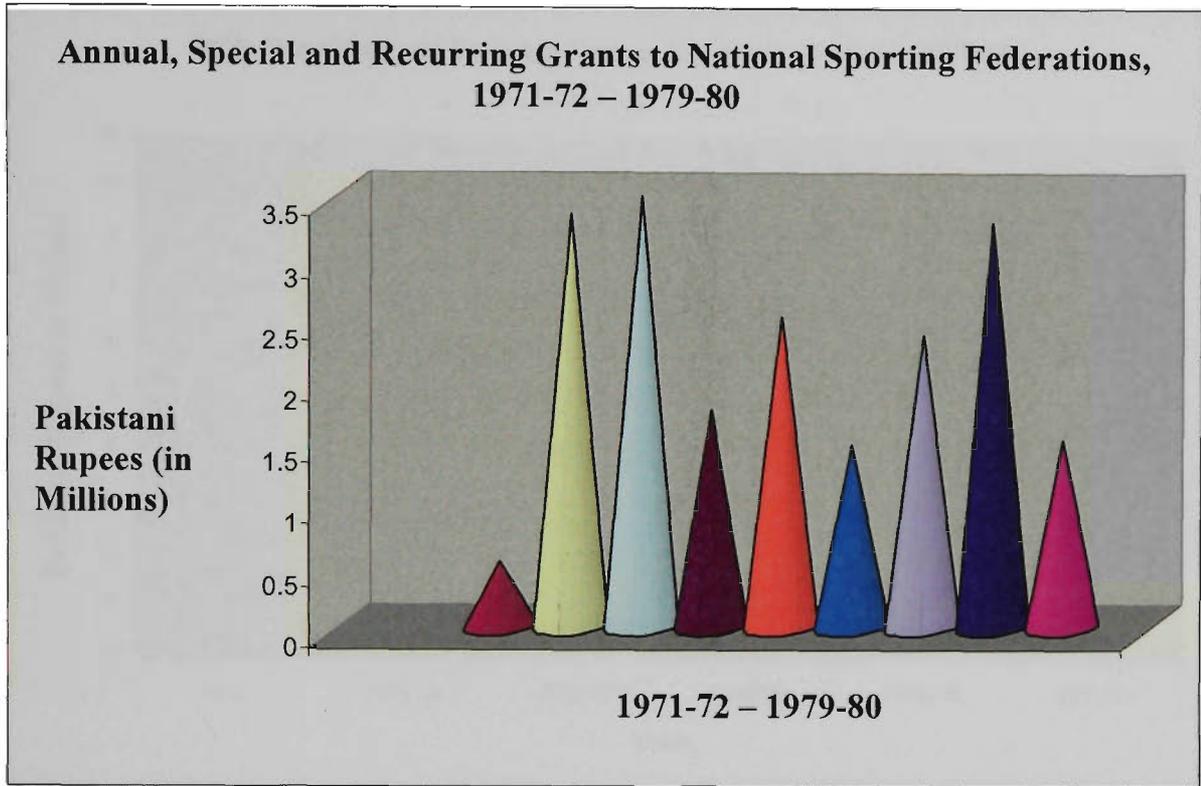


Table 5b: Administrative Expenses of the PSB.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

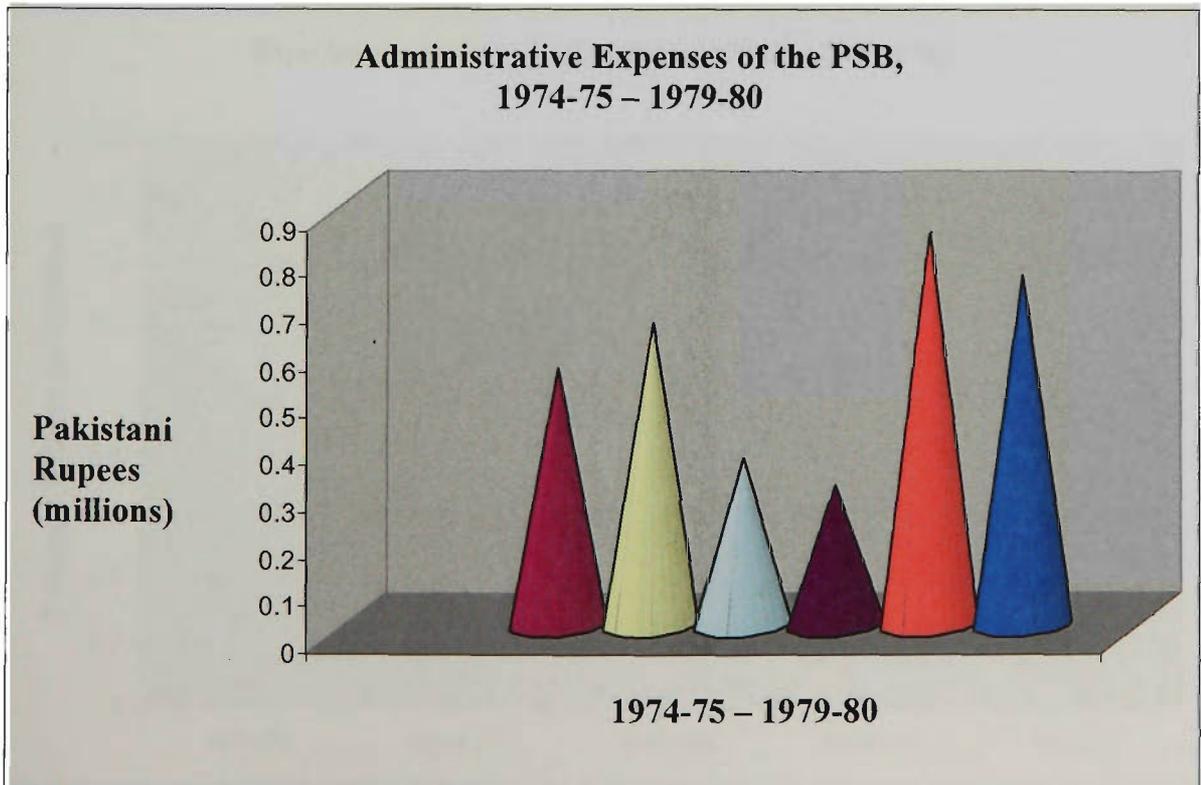


Table 5c: Expenditure of the PSB on Training and Coaching, and National Coaches.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

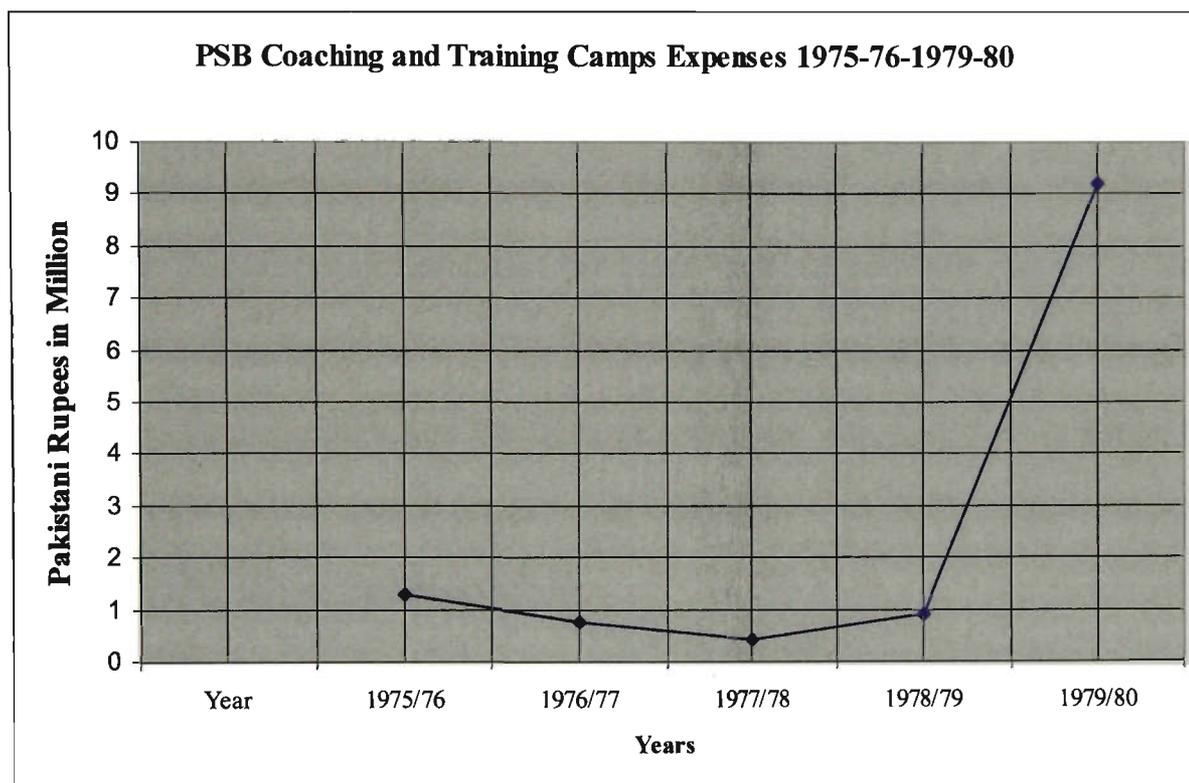
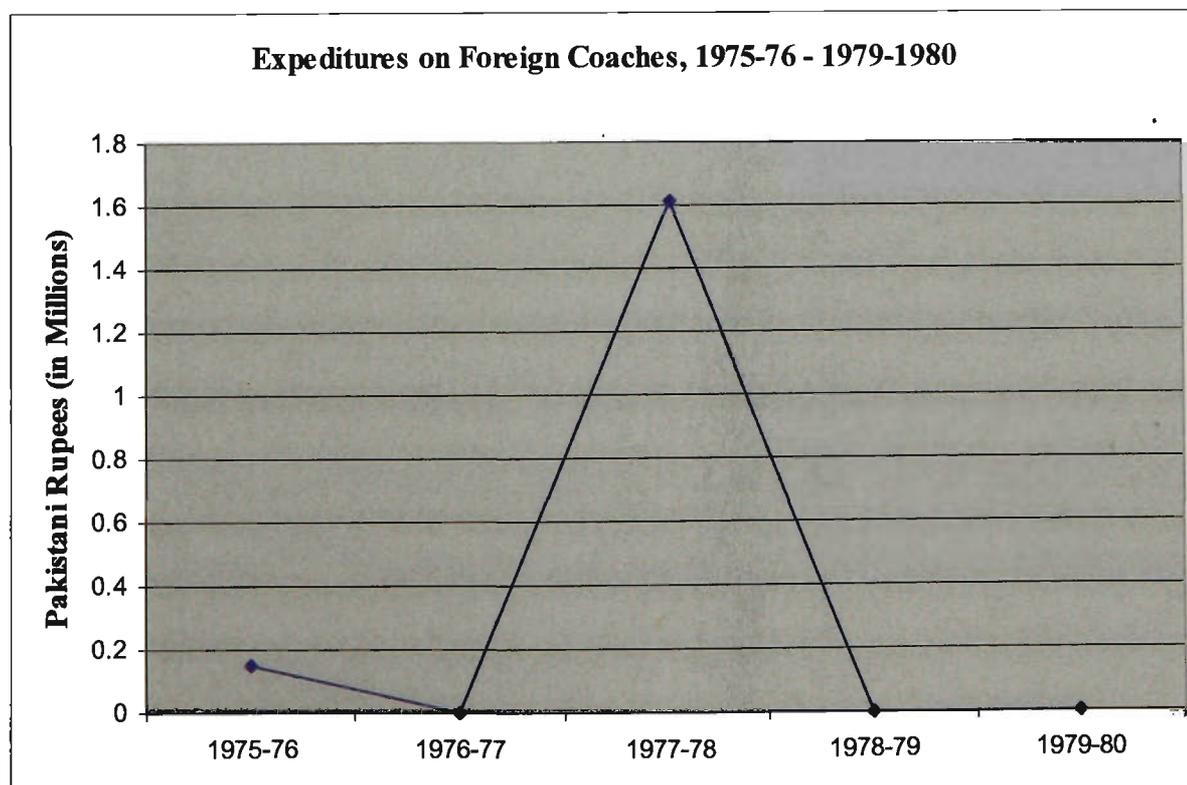


Table 5d: Expenditure of the PSB on Foreign Coaches, 1975-76 – 1979-80.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.



On analysing the statistics of the government delivery of sport in the period between 1971-72 to 1979-80 cricket and hockey stand out as the most popular games that received the highest amount of funds, while squash, which gave enviable exposure to Pakistan at the international level, only received a meagre amount. Similarly, the other national sporting bodies such as the Basketball Federation, the Boxing Federation, the Swimming Federation, the Lawn Tennis Association, the Golf Union, the Weight Lifting Federation, the Bodybuilding Federation, the Cycling Federation, the Gymnastic Federation and the Women's Hockey Association were given the lowest amount as their annual grants in aid ranging between 0.025 million Pakistani rupees to 0.042 million Pakistani rupees.

In reviewing aspects of government funding, it seems that generally there is not necessarily a direct relationship between money allocated and success at an international level. However, some improvement is noticed during the above period as Pakistan won four gold medals (two in boxing, one each in hockey and yachting), four silver medals and nine bronze models in the Asian Games in Bangkok in 1978.

Another significant aspect of the Board's operations in this period was the formation of the National Institute of Sports. It is to be recalled that when the eighth Asian Games of 1978 were allotted to Pakistan, the Ministry of Education created a directorate general.⁶²² Brigadier Manzoor Hussain Atif, an Olympic hockey player,

⁶²² Parvez Akhtar, former Personal Assistant to the Director General of the National Institute of Sports Pakistan, Islamabad, telephone conversation, 30 August 2004.

was its first head.⁶²³ Apart from other necessary arrangements, the directorate started the construction of sports facilities with the help of the Chinese government. However, Pakistan did not actually stage the Games. According to the Asian Games Doha's website, the shift of venue was due to political reasons and the Games were eventually staged in Bangkok, Thailand.⁶²⁴ However, the building of facilities in Pakistan continued, and according to Salamat Ali, Director of the PSB, multi-purpose sports facilities were constructed with two purposes in mind. Firstly, their construction ensured the future availability of international level facilities, and, secondly, their construction was a necessary part of the creation of a sports institute.⁶²⁵

It is interesting to note that the facilities built for the Asian Games in Pakistan were first named as the Islamabad Sports Complex, and then renamed as the Z. A. Bhutto Institute of Sports and Culture in the 1970s, in honour of the then Prime Minister of Pakistan, who had secured Chinese government support for the project.⁶²⁶ However, when the military came to power in Pakistan in 1977, the entire project was renamed the National Institute of Sports and Culture, indicating the vagaries of political support. The following discussion briefly outlines some of the objectives of the facility.

The Institute was supposed to oversee sports education programs of one and two years duration, and the diploma program was to be recognised by the Ministry of Education

⁶²³ This information is courtesy of Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

⁶²⁴ Asian Games Doha 2006, www.doha-2006.com/en/asian_games_2006.history.htm, accessed 11 August 2004.

⁶²⁵ Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

⁶²⁶ Parvez Akhtar, former Personal Assistant to the Director General of the National Institute of Sports Pakistan, Islamabad, telephone conversation, 30 August 2004.

for employment purposes.⁶²⁷ The Institute was also supposed to plan and create a sports infrastructure, not only at Islamabad but also throughout the country.⁶²⁸ Charged with handling research in different fields of sports, the Institute was also supposed to have a sports medicine centre.⁶²⁹ Anecdotal evidence suggests that when the Ministry passed the resolution creating the National Institute of Sports and Culture, it was agreed that when the infrastructure was complete, the assets and liabilities of the department would be handed over to the Ministry of Sports and Culture.⁶³⁰

For financial reasons, however, the interim government of Moin Qureshi (which only lasted from 18 July 1993 to 19 October 1993) sought the abolishment of the Institute, but the Institute managed to survive on a self-financing basis. It not only survived, but by achieving savings in maintenance expenditure the Institute also managed to undertake some new building projects. One key example was the Naseer Bunda Stadium, along with some other minor projects.⁶³¹ Later, in 1998, the interim government of Meraj Khalid decided to merge the Institute with the PSB.⁶³²

5.5 The Government Delivery and the Funding of Sport in Pakistan During the 1980s

This section provides an overview of government finances relating to sports delivery in Pakistan during the 1980s, as well as some other non-financial initiatives. In the

⁶²⁷ Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

⁶²⁸ Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

⁶²⁹ Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

⁶³⁰ Parvez Akhtar, former Personal Assistant to the Director General of the National Institute of Sports Pakistan, Islamabad, telephone conversation, 30 August 2004.

⁶³¹ Parvez Akhtar, former Personal Assistant to the Director General of the National Institute of Sports Pakistan, Islamabad, telephone conversation, 30 August 2004.

⁶³² Salamat Ali, Director, National Federation, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

1980-81 financial year the Pakistan Hockey Federation was the highest recipient and were allotted 0.5 million Pakistani rupees from the PSB, while the Board for Control of Cricket in Pakistan followed in the pecking order with 0.3 million Pakistani rupees. The Pakistan Football Federation received a meagre amount of 0.085 million Pakistani rupees, demonstrating the 'cold shoulder' that was given to this internationally popular game in Pakistan sports circles.⁶³³ Such a lack of funding is an obvious reason that this particular sport could not improve and this helps to explain Pakistan's almost total failure in international soccer competitions.

Some other national sporting bodies received grants, including the All Pakistan Lawn Tennis Federation with 0.050 millions Pakistani rupees, the Pakistan Table Tennis Federation with 0.025 million Pakistani rupees, the Pakistan Olympic Association with 0.050 million Pakistani rupees, and the Pakistan Squash Racket Association with 0.020 million Pakistani rupees (a low amount despite the fact that squash has always had a high profile and brought numerous laurels for Pakistan).⁶³⁴ After analysing the budgetary allocation for different sports in the period under review it is easy to note that there was no clear direction or policy for the distribution of sports funding in Pakistan. No needs assessment was undertaken and there was no realistic priority allocation for funds and this resulted in patchy, if not poor, performances in international competitions in the decade of the 1980s as compared to the relatively successful era of the 1960s.

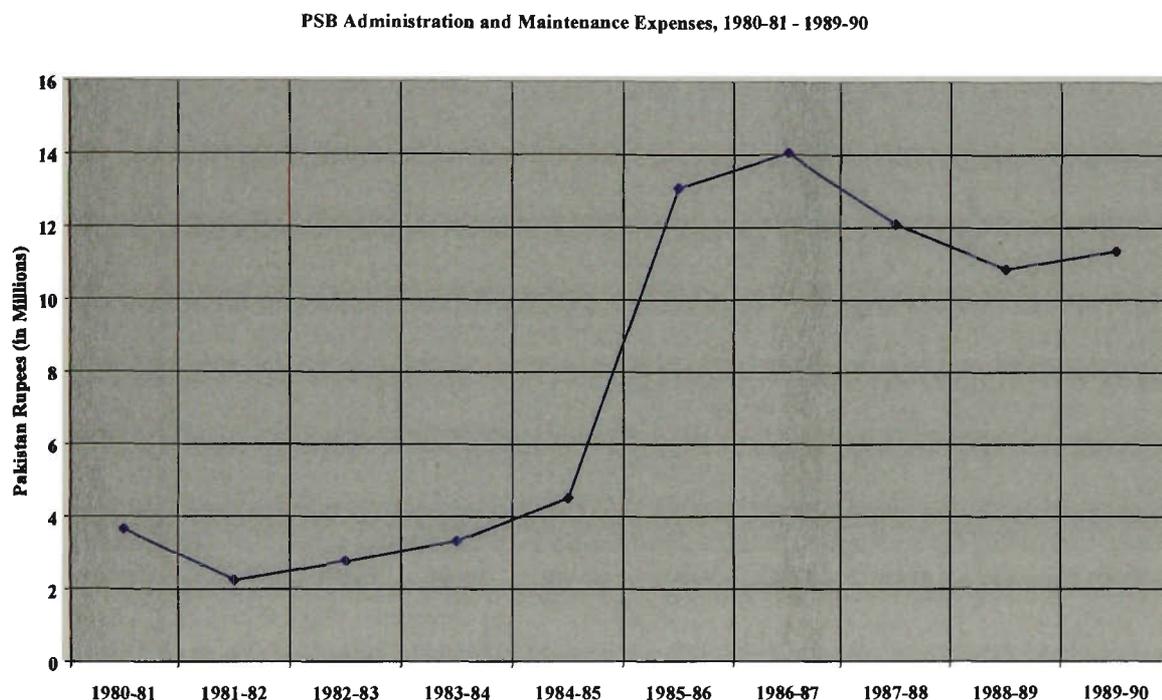
To further assist an analysis of the government funding of sports during this period, three graphs, showing the three areas in which the PSB provided funds, are set out

⁶³³ PSB, *Annual Report, 1980-81*, pp. 25-26.

⁶³⁴ PSB, *Annual Report, 1980-81*, pp. 25-26. it should be noted that much of the funding received by various bodies was directed towards office administration.

below, followed by some commentary. A further graphic representation of major areas of allocation and major areas of expenditure is also provided below.

Table 5e: PSB Administration and Maintenance Expenses, 1980-81 – 1989-90.
Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

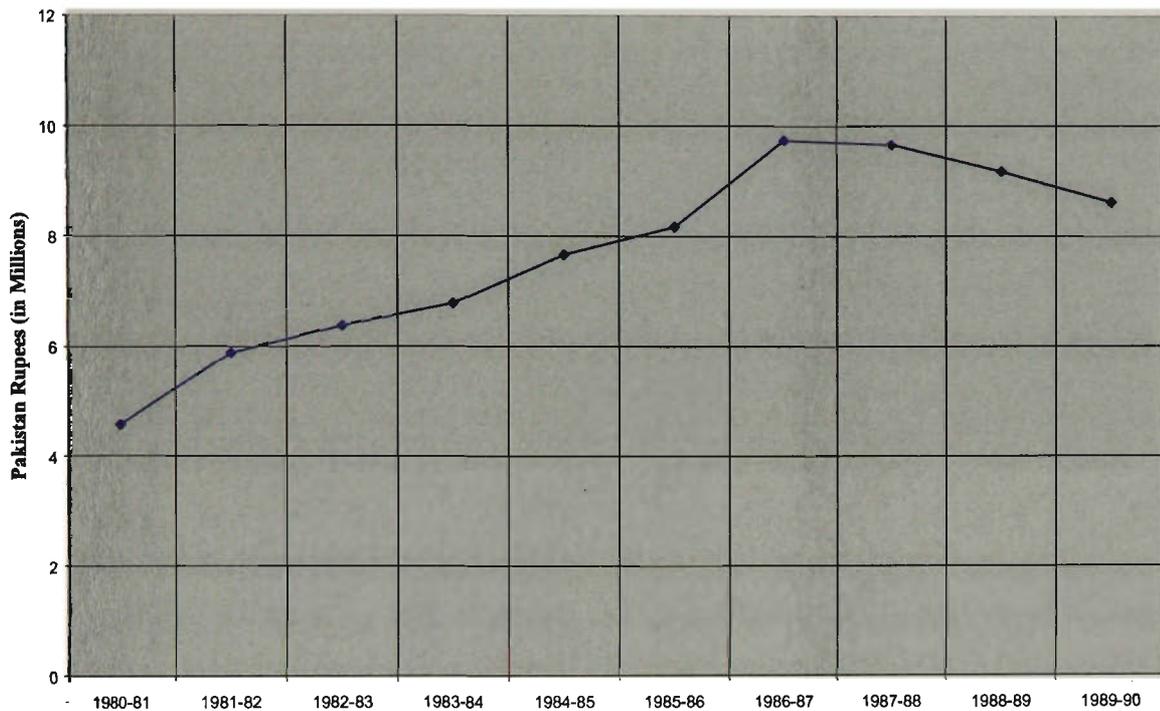


An analysis of the PSB's expenditures during the period 1980-90 shows a disparity between two halves of the decade. The expenditure obviously jumped significantly to 14 million Pakistani rupees in the 1985-86 financial year, while it remained around 12 million Pakistani rupees per annum until 1989-90. The changes in expenditure patterns do not seem to correspond to any enhanced sports activity or preparation for the Moscow, Los Angeles or Seoul Olympic Games during this period.

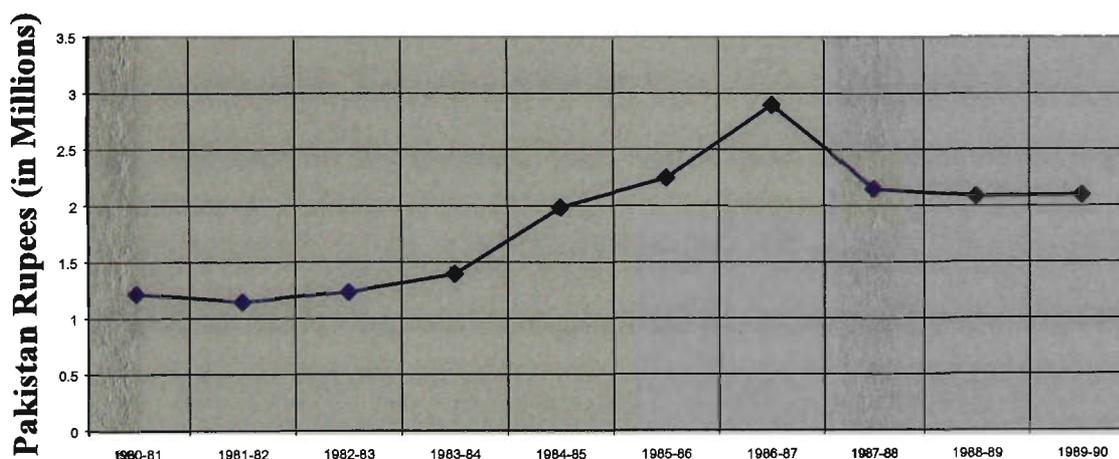
Table 5f: PSB Annual and Special Grants to National Sports Federations, 1980-81 – 1989-90.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

PSB Annual and Special Grants to National Sport Federations, 1980-81 - 1989-1990



The expenditure on annual and special grants to the National Sports Federations during the period shows an overall steady pattern of increase, with a more substantial increase during 1986-87 due to general increases in the cost of services and commodities, followed by a slight decline.

Table 5g: PSB Expenditure on Training and Coaching, 1980-81 – 1989-90.Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.**PSB Expenditure on Training and Coaching, 1980-81 - 1989-90**

The expenditure on training and coaching shows a similar steady pattern of increase, except in 1986-87, when there was a corresponding spike in expenditure, corresponding to an increase in PSB allocations from the government.

During this decade, a Report of the Cabinet Committee on Promotion and Development of Sports was prepared. In 1985, the Federal Cabinet of Pakistan, through a directive, asked the Ministry of Sports and Culture to study and analyse the causes of the decline of sport standards in the country and suggest strategies for its improvement.⁶³⁵ The Cabinet constituted a Committee comprising the Minister of Sports (convenor), the Minister of Local Government and Rural Development, the Minister of Communication and the Minister of Education. A questionnaire was sent to a large number of persons involved in sports. In addition, interviews of an undisclosed number of leading representatives of the sports community were also

⁶³⁵ See Government of Pakistan, Cabinet Division, Case No.149/12/85 (3), dated July 1985.

conducted at the provincial headquarters.⁶³⁶ The data including responses to the questionnaire and transcripts of the interviews were sent to the Centre for Administrative Research and Development Studies (CARDS) for analysis. The CARDS was also asked to consider the Report of the National Sports Committee from 1967 and the Report of the Cabinet Committee from 1982 as additional data.⁶³⁷ The questionnaire was sent to 215 persons, from which there were only 64 responses, although it is not entirely certain why the response rate was so low. Thirteen persons gave their general views without corresponding to or addressing the prescribed questionnaire. The CARDS was further advised to consider the responses given to the questionnaires in 1968 and 1982 while preparing their recommendations.⁶³⁸ The respondents to the questionnaires and the interviewees included officials and non-officials of sports organisations, sports organisers, presidents of national sporting federations, veteran sportsmen, sports writers, local councillors, administrators and sports dealers.⁶³⁹

The final report had two volumes, with the first volume based on the comments of experts and the general public. The second volume contained three parts, with the first part presenting a comprehensive analysis of the responses to each question in the questionnaire, the second part dealing with an analysis of the interviews, and the final part containing statistical categorisation of the responses by questioners.⁶⁴⁰ The first volume of the report was prepared by the Ministry of Culture and Sports and the

⁶³⁶ Report of the Cabinet Committee on Promotion and Development of Sports, vol. I, Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, 22 June 1983, p. iii.

⁶³⁷ Report of the Cabinet Committee on Promotion and Development of Sports, vol. II, Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, Government of Pakistan, Islamabad, 22 June 1983, p. i.

⁶³⁸ Report of the Cabinet Committee, vol. II, p. ii.

⁶³⁹ Report of the Cabinet Committee, vol. II, p. ii.

⁶⁴⁰ Report of the Cabinet Committee, vol. II, p. iii.

CARDS itself prepared the second volume. Officially, the final report is known as the ‘Report of the Cabinet Committee on Promotion and Development of Sports’.⁶⁴¹

In order to outline the detailed nature of the report, relevant contents of the report are provided. The first volume of the report covered the following areas:⁶⁴²

1	Organisational Setup of Sports in Pakistan
2	Role of Educational Institutions
3	Role of the Armed Forces
4	Role of Commercial Institutions, Corporations and Factories.
5	Role of the Local Bodies and the Provincial Governments
6	Training and Coaching
7	Umpires, Referees and Judges
8	Role of the Media
9	Sports for Women
10	Sports Equipment
11	Sports Literature
12	The Sports Foundation
13	Playing Fields
14	Construction Control and Managements of Stadia and Gymnasia
15	The National Institution of Sports and Culture (NISC), Islamabad.
16	Strategy for the Next Olympic and Asian Games
17	International Competitions
18	Sports in Rural Areas Indigenous and Cultural Sports.
19	Finances
20	Sports for Disabled
21	Discipline/Code of Conduct in Sports
22	Monitoring and Coordination
23	Summary of Recommendations

According to Riazuddin Ahmad, the CARDS also analysed long-term planning, the role of the armed forces in sports, standardisation and availability of sports gear, and the participation of women in sports, all in the light of interviews and previous

⁶⁴¹ Report of the Cabinet Committee, vol. I, p. iv.

⁶⁴² Report of the Cabinet Committee, vol. I, p. ii.

reports.⁶⁴³ The CARDS analysed the questionnaire based on twenty questions and then gave recommendations. The questions and recommendations were related to the following areas:

1	Interest of Youth in Sports
2	Standard of Sports
3	Games for International Participation
4	Organisation of Sports
5	Tenure of Office-Bearers
6	Honorary or Paid Secretary/Treasurer
7	Role of Educational Institutions
8	Relations Between Sports Organisations and Educational Institutions
9	Coaching and Training
10	Factors Hindering Development of Sports
11	Talent Hunt
12	Selection of National Teams
13	Standard of Umpiring
14	Location of Stadiums
15	Control of Stadiums
16	Adequacy of Sporting Facilities
17	Resource Mobilisation
18	Sports Foundation
19	Role of Press and Media
20	Strategy for International Participation

The questions and transcript of the interviews were comprehensively analysed and then recommendations were given. The responses from the addressees were not encouraging and/or poor, apparently on account of their perceived lack of enthusiasm for the project. It was therefore resolved to reach out to the representatives of sports communities in person and conduct more detailed interviews. Such an approach enabled administrators of the survey to elicit maximum responses, as well as to considerably extend the scope of the inquiry.

⁶⁴³ Analysis of Replies to the Questionnaire by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism on the Promotion and Development of Sports, vol. II, 1983, p. iii.

Candidly, the authors do not claim that the exercise strictly conformed to standard practices of research projects of this nature.⁶⁴⁴ Such a qualification seems to have been made because techniques such as sampling for age, region, gender and other requirements were not addressed. Notwithstanding this caveat, the survey can be considered as fairly representative in nature.

The recommendations covered all those areas that were required for the promotion of sports in Pakistan. The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism sent a summary of recommendations for the Cabinet meeting held on 9 October 1988. The Cabinet discussed the matter and gave the following decision by its letter (No. 25/CM/88) dated 13 October 1988:

The Cabinet took note of the position explained in the summary dated 17 August, 1988 submitted by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism and directed that if approval of any specific recommendations was required it should be submitted for Cabinet consideration separately'.⁶⁴⁵

In the end, this meant that despite the extensive processes involved in collating data, once again the government failed to take implement any actions, and the comprehensive recommendations were effectively ignored.

5.6 The Government Delivery and the Funding of Sport in Pakistan, 1990-2001

To assist an analysis of the government funding of sports during this period, three graphs, showing the three areas in which the PSB provided funds, are set out below,

⁶⁴⁴ Analysis of Replies to the Questionnaire by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism on the Promotion and Development of Sports, vol. II, 1983, p. iii.

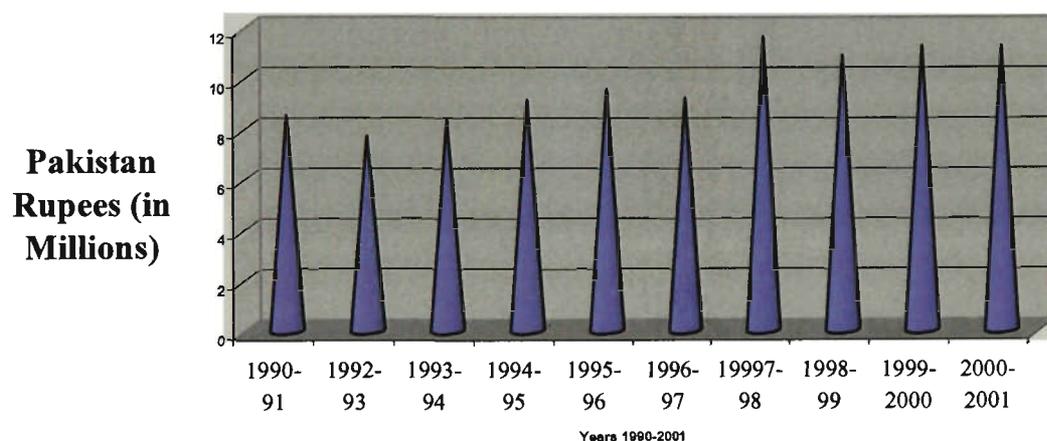
⁶⁴⁵ Decision of the Cabinet, Case No. 180/25/88: Implementation of Recommendations of Cabinet Committee on Promotion and Development of Sports, Cabinet Secretariat, 9 September 1988.

followed by some commentary. The budget allocation criterion from the government of Pakistan during the 1990s was essentially the same as it was in the 1980s.⁶⁴⁶

Table 5h: Annual and Special Grants from the PSB to National Sports Federations, 1990-91 - 2000-01.

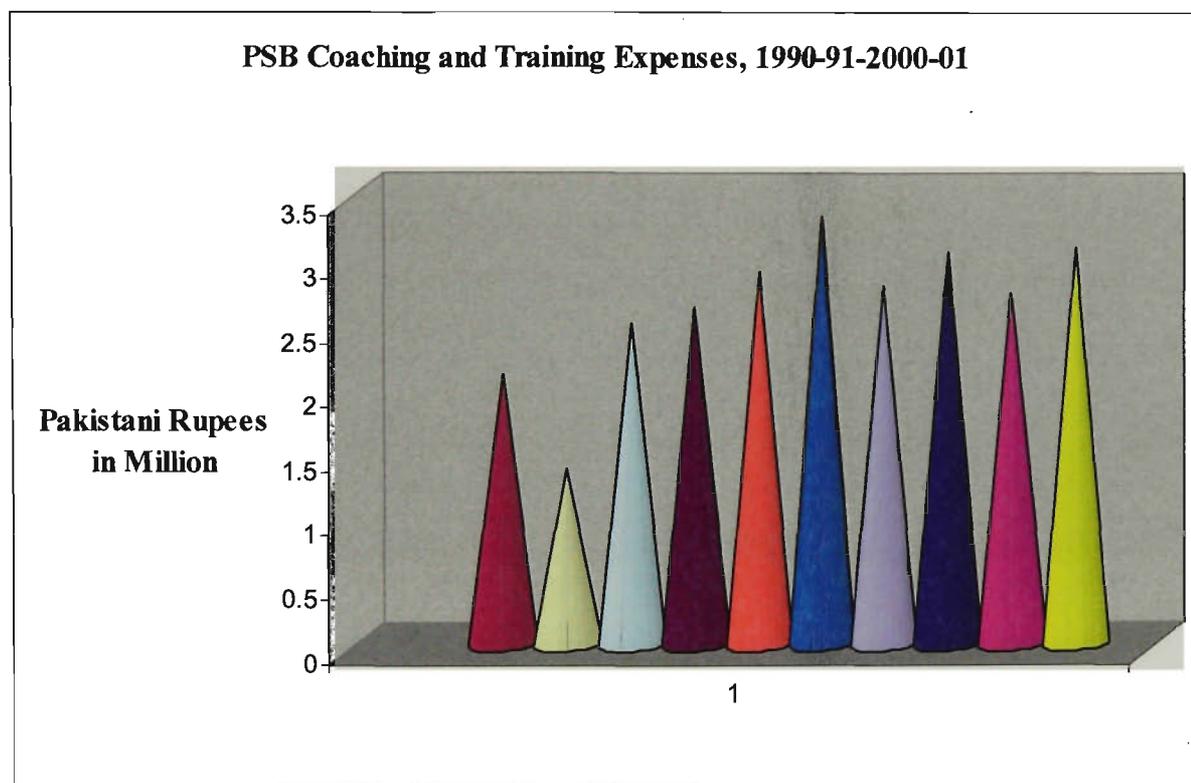
Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

Annual and Special Grants from the PSB to National Sports Federations, 1990-91 - 2000-01



The national sporting organisations received annual and special grants ranging between seven to eleven million Pakistani rupees. The maximum amount was given during the year of 1997-98 while the minimum amount was given during 1992-93.

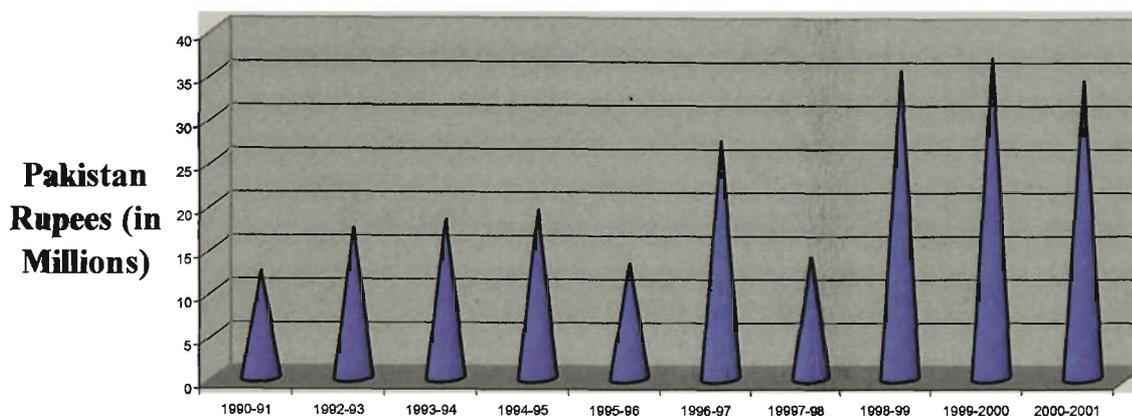
⁶⁴⁶ Annual development budgets of the PSB for this decade are set out in detail in Appendix 10.

Table 5i: PSB Coaching and Training Expenses, 1990-91 – 2000-01.Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

The PSB spent between two to three million Pakistani rupees on training and coaching during 1990-2001. The maximum amount was during the financial year of 1995-96, and the minimum amount was spent during the financial year of 1990-91.

Table 5j: PSB Administration and Maintenance Expenses, 1990-91 - 2000-01.
Source: Director of Administration and Coordination, PSB.

**PSB Administration and Maintenance Expenses,
 1990-91 - 2000-01**



The administration and maintenance expenditures were between ten and 36 million Pakistani rupees during the period of 1990-01. The maximum amount was spent during the year of 1999-2000 and the minimum amount was spent during the financial year of 1990-91.

A key initiative during this period was the organisation of the First National Sports Conference in 1997, and details of this conference are hereby provided. The Federal Minister for Sports organised a sports conference on 30 March 1997 and he invited people belonging to different areas, such as male and female sports officials, sports journalists, and athletes. The conference had two sessions. In the first session, participants submitted suggestions individually for the promotion of sports and these were briefly discussed. At the end of first session, six working groups and a special committee were formed to submit their recommendations in the final session. The working groups dealt with a number of topics, including the commercial potential of sports, so-called 'joy riders' (that is, sports officials who undertake international travel

at the expense of the government), the existence of a so-called 'sports mafia' and vote-rigging by sports bodies and officials, junior sports development, the category of indigenous, regional and provincial sports, linkages between sport and education, training of coaches and elite athletes, and the public utilisation of sports facilities in the Pakistan Sports Complex at Islamabad.

The participants at the Conference were accommodated in different hotels of Islamabad and provided with travelling allowances from their hometown to Islamabad and back. The federal Minister for Sports was the chairman of the Conference. There was initially frank and sometimes heated discussion in the sessions of the Conference and the working group sessions. For example, the president of the Pakistan Olympic Association walked out of a session, as he was not allowed to talk about what he thought was appropriate. The working groups prepared their recommendations, which were approved by the Conference. The salient recommendations of the Conference (summarised by the author of this thesis) were as follows: 1) The federal government was to hold provincial sports conferences in all four provinces of the country with the collaboration of provincial governments; 2) In order to eliminate the 'sports mafia' a national sports task force in consultation with concerned people was to be constituted. This body was to look after the national sporting organisations in order to make them democratic and open; 3) For the promotion of indigenous and regional sports, efforts were to be made to raise the profile of rural sports and women's sports, both sorely neglected in the past; 4) To attract corporate sponsorship and support, the government was to announce a broad package comprising tax relief and incentives to bring a linkage between sports and media, tourism and trade, which was expected to attract heavy investment in sports and sports activities; 5) The

government was to introduce sports performance medals for different levels in addition to the Prime Minister's sportsman of the year award, and; 6) The government was to take the initiative in establishing coaching academies for the training of coaches.

According to Javaid Ali Khan, the then Director General of the PSB, the recommendations of the Conference were implemented selectively. No Provincial Sports Conference could be held due to the indifference of the provincial governments. The package of tax relief and other incentives to attract corporate sponsorship also remained inconclusive as the major business houses and multinational companies were only interested in cricket matches. The review of the sports bodies, their organising of competitions in the respective sports disciplines, accounts and holding of elections regularly from club level to the federation was thus institutionalised, and regular monitoring was enforced through the Pakistan Sports Board.

In 1999, the government of Pakistan once again tried to investigate the reasons for the declining standards of sports in the country. The federal Minister for Sports directed the PSB to convene a second national sports conference, which was held on 22 May 1999. According to the PSB, 86 participants attended. However, some newspapers, including the *Nation* and the *Dawn* mentioned that there were only 76 participants.⁶⁴⁷ The matter of attendance was critical, as the President of the POA and officials of popular sports such as cricket, squash, polo, wrestling and football

⁶⁴⁷ See *Dawn*, 25 May 1999, and the *Nation*, 25 May 1999.

chose not to attend, for undisclosed reasons.⁶⁴⁸ The first session of the Conference was presided over by the federal Minister for Sports, but he had to leave during the second session as he apparently had an important meeting with the Prime Minister. It is pertinent to note that sports in Pakistan had never been high on the government's priority list. According to Asim Awan, a journalist with the *Nation*, the POA, given its leading role in high performance sport, was criticised for its absence, but the secretary of the POA indicated that he was not answerable either to the PSB or the government. Awan further said that most of the participants merely repeated previous problems as were discussed in the First National Sports Conference and did not give any new suggestions.⁶⁴⁹

Despite these irritations the Pakistan Sports Board went ahead and compiled the recommendations submitted by the participants at the Conference. The salient recommendations (summarised in tabular form by the author of this thesis) were as follows:⁶⁵⁰

1	Revive sports activity and sports competitions in educational institutions
2	Train coaches and officials in modern techniques
3	Encourage mass participation of youth in sports activities at divisional, district and tehsil level
4	Arrange international exposure for athletes by encouraging involvement in international competitions
5	Strengthen the club system in rural regions
6	Ensure media coverage for indigenous and regional sports
7	Create employment opportunities for athletes in government departments
8	Reduce duties on imported sports equipment
9	Provide incentives for the private sector to sponsor sports and sporting events
10	Review and rationalise the constitutions of national sports federation and the POA

⁶⁴⁸ *Dawn*, 25 May 1999.

⁶⁴⁹ Asim Awan, *Nation*, 25 May 1999.

⁶⁵⁰ Summary of the minutes of the Second National Sport Conference held at Islamabad in May 1999.

Another important aspect from this decade that is worthy of attention is how, when and why the government intervened in terms of the delivery of sport for females in Pakistan. As mentioned previously, owing to the peculiar socio-cultural values of Pakistani society, females have not usually been encouraged nor been allowed to participate in sporting activity, and this has been the cause for censure or consternation by some western observers. Women's sports remained a closed-door activity for quite some time, however gradually the general emancipation of women started to have an impact. As an example of literal 'closed door' attitudes, in cases where sports and games by girls' schools and colleges have occurred, they have usually taken place indoors, where male spectators were not permitted to watch. By the year 2000, however, National Sports Federations were being strictly advised to include female sporting events in their calendar of activities and to encourage women athletes to participate at national and international competitions. Despite such entreaties, the total number and performance standards of female athletes did not improve dramatically.⁶⁵¹ A brief overview of Pakistan's involvement in the Islamic Solidarity Games, outlined below, helps to highlight the problematic nature of women's involvement in elite sport in Islamic countries.

The first Islamic Solidarity Games were successfully held in the Islamic Republic of Iran in February 1993. In these Games no spectators or cameras were allowed and the events were exclusively managed and watched by women. Around 400 athletes from eight Islamic countries, including Pakistan, took part. Female administrators organised the Games according to the Islamic code, and an International Olympic

⁶⁵¹ Naheed Shahid, Pakistan Sports Board, interviewed in person at Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

Committee member, namely Mary Alison Glen Haig, oversaw the proceedings, although it is not clear if she was acting in an official capacity.⁶⁵²

The second Islamic Solidarity Games were allotted to Pakistan and were to be held in Islamabad in 1997. In order to conduct these Games as specified in their charter, as was done in Tehran, the government of Pakistan created the Pakistan Women Sports Board (PWSB) in 1995 to enable females in the country to take part and organise sports independently according to their culture and religious beliefs. According to Naheed Shahid from the PSB, the main objective of the PWSB was to provide an environment for Pakistani girls in which they could play and participate freely in an unspecified range of sports.⁶⁵³ Unfortunately, the majority of staff hired for that Board were male and there was really only token participation and representation by women. Special initiatives such as exclusive training camps for women athletes, and the running of courses for female sports managers and technical staff, for example, were instituted during the tenure of a female prime minister, but it was not long before the entire program for exclusive women's sports was abandoned. The Pakistan Women Sports Board was abolished in October 1997 and Pakistan, in fact, refused to stage the second Islamic Solidarity Games. Reportedly the government justified its decision not to stage the event due to a shortage of funds, but anecdotal interview evidence suggests that the decision was much more complicated than this.⁶⁵⁴

⁶⁵² Iran Embassy in Canada, www.salamiran.org/Women/Olympic/history.html, accessed 30 August 2004. For further analytical discussion of elite-level sport for Muslim women, see J. Hargreaves, *Sporting Females: Critical Issues in the History and Sociology of Women's Sports*, Routledge, London, 1994, pp. 231-234.

⁶⁵³ Naheed Shahid, Pakistan Sports Board, interviewed in person at Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

⁶⁵⁴ Naheed Shahid, Pakistan Sports Board, interviewed in person at Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

5.7 Government Delivery and the Funding of Sport in Pakistan, 2000-2008

The funding of sport under the present government (established when president Musharaf was elected in October 1999) was given high priority as compared to the previous governments in the 1990s. This development obviously owes something to the personal interest of the president, who is reportedly a keen sportsman. The total budgetary allocations in the period between 2000-2001 and 2007-2008 are set out below.⁶⁵⁵

Table 5k: Total Budgetary Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2000/01 – 2007-08.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

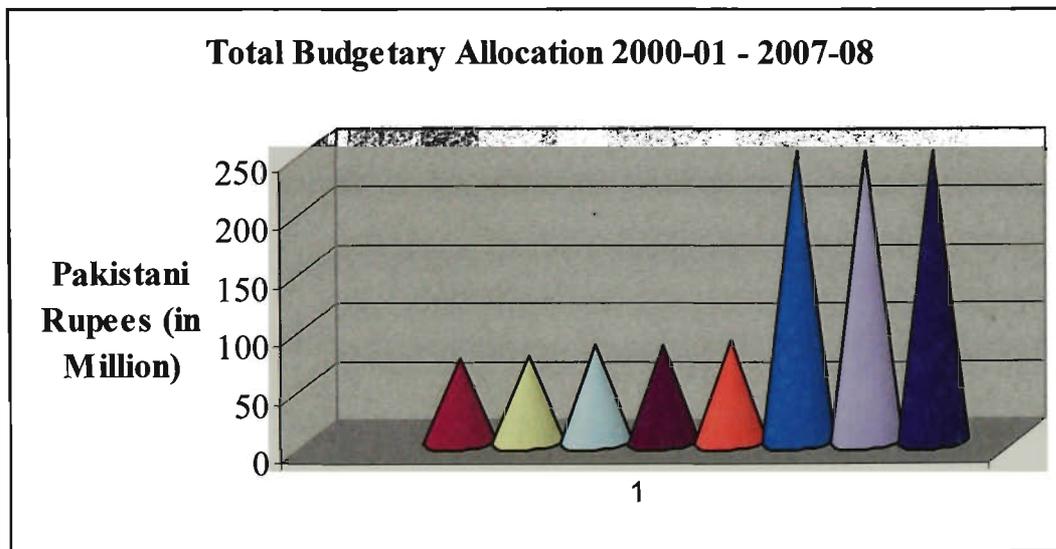
Financial Year	Amount (in Millions of Pakistani Rupees)
2000/01	71.7
2001/02	73.8
2002/03	82.5
2003/04	83.1
2004/05	87.4
2005/06	250.0
2006/07	250.0
2007/08	250.0

When these amounts are represented in a visual format, the significant leap in funding from 2005-06 onwards can be seen in stark relief, as the Table below shows.

⁶⁵⁵ More detail on proposed development budgets for both ongoing and new projects during the current decade are set out in Appendix 11.

Table 5I: Total Budgetary Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2000-01 – 2007-08.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.



During 2000-2001 an amount of 4.631 million Pakistani rupees and 3.528 million Pakistani rupees were disbursed as annual grants and special grants, respectively. In addition, an amount of 37.024 million Pakistani rupees was granted to the Pakistan Hockey Federation, the National Rifle Association of Pakistan, the Pakistan Bridge Association and the Pakistan Cycling Federation under the Directives of the president/prime minister of Pakistan. Out of a budgetary allocation of 73.850 million Pakistani rupees during 2001-2002, the PSB gave 5.967 million Pakistani rupees as annual grants and 2.335 million Pakistani rupees as special grants to the federations. The Pakistan Hockey Federation, followed by the Pakistan Amateur Boxing Federation, were the highest recipients of the amounts. It is further added that Pakistan International Airlines, which allowed the team complementary air travel for international fixtures, was regularly sponsoring the Hockey Federation.

During 2002-2003, the PSB provided 7.623 millions as annual grants and 3.227 million Pakistani rupees as special grants out of its total allocation of 82.500 million

Pakistani rupees. The Pakistan Amateur Boxing Federation and the Pakistan Hockey Federation received ten million Pakistani rupees and 100 million Pakistani rupees, respectively, under the Directives of the president/prime minister. During 2003-2004 the PSB released annual grants of 6.927 million Pakistani rupees and special grants of 3.932 million Pakistani rupees to the affiliated federations. Out of its allocation of 83.185 million Pakistani rupees an amount of 6.500 million Pakistan rupees was given to the Pakistan Hockey Federation under the Directive of the president/prime minister of Pakistan. During 2004-2005 the PSB released an annual grant of 9.096 million Pakistani rupees and special grants of 3.530 million Pakistani rupees to its affiliated federations out of its budgetary allocation of 87.480 million Pakistani rupees. Under the Directives of the president/prime minister of Pakistan, an additional amount of 41.060 million Pakistani rupees was also given to the Pakistan Amateur Boxing Federation, the Pakistan Squash Federation, the Pakistan Tennis Federation, the Ski Federation of Pakistan and the Pakistan Volleyball Federation.

During 2005-2006, a dramatic change in the funding arrangements is evident. The government allocated a total of 500 million Pakistani rupees to the Pakistan Sports Board as an annual budget. The allocation for development projects was 250 million Pakistani rupees while 250 million Pakistani rupees was for non-development projects. The PSB released 28.2 million Pakistani rupees as annual grants and 9.539 million Pakistani rupees as special grants. Under the Directive of the president/prime minister of Pakistan, the Pakistan Squash Federation and the Pakistan Football Federation received 20 million Pakistani rupees and 23.2 million Pakistani rupees, respectively.

Regarding the construction of sports infrastructure, the PSB completed different projects, including nine synthetic hockey pitches and construction and/or upgrades of stadia and gymnasia. All these projects have been completed while another 24 projects of sports infrastructure are expected to be completed by June 2008.

Notwithstanding the above level of government investment in sports and sports infrastructure, no real improvement has been achieved in the key area of performances at international competitions. Pakistan failed to win any medals in the Olympic Games or make any noticeable improvements during this period. Excluding satisfactory performances at regional competitions such as the SAF Games, Pakistan won only a single silver medal and three bronze medals in the 2006 Doha Asian Games, a poor return for the millions of rupees that were invested in sport.

Table 5m: PSB Annual Special Grants to National Sport Federations, 2000/01 – 2007/08.

Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

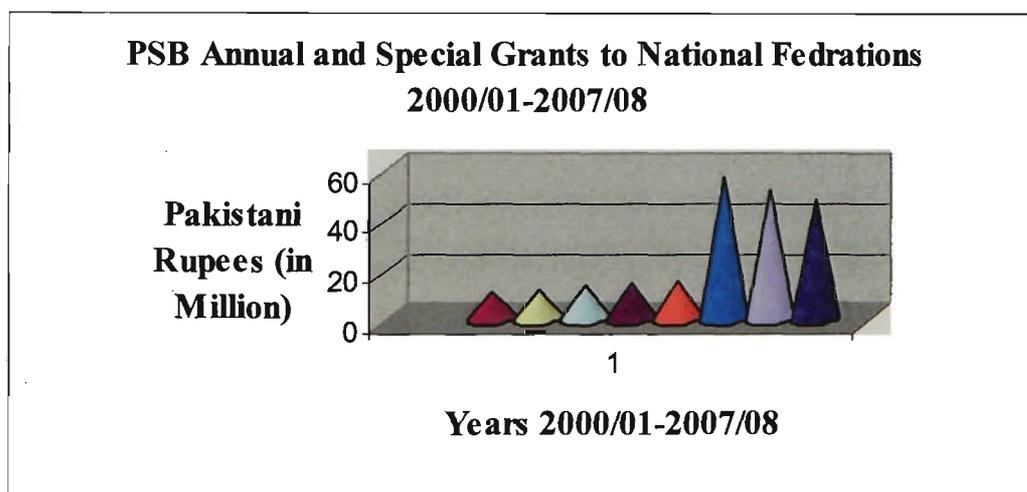
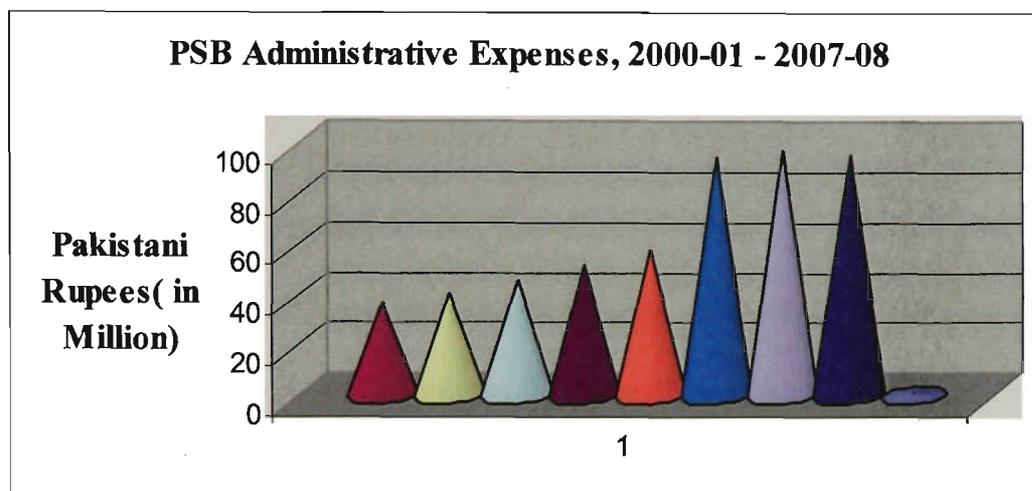
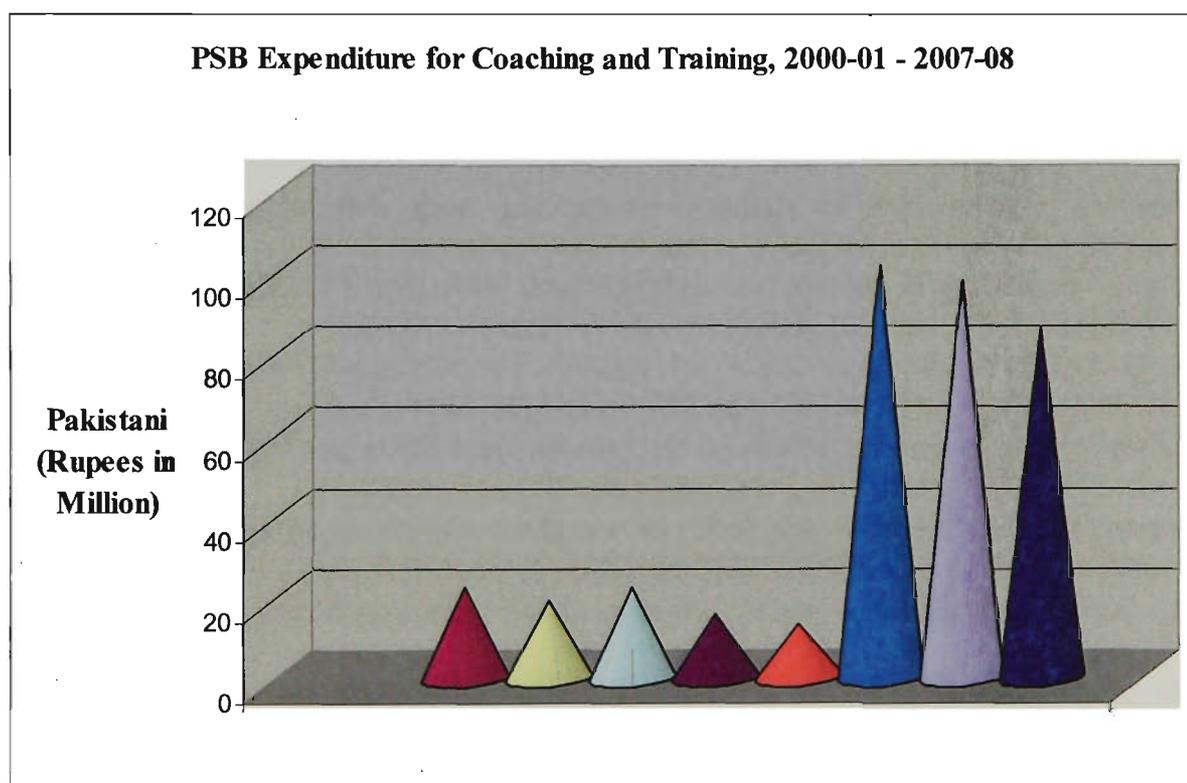


Table 5n: PSB Administration Expenses, 2000/01 – 2007/08.Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.**Table 5o: PSB Expenditure for Coaching and Training, 2000-01 – 2007/08.**Source: PSB, *Annual Reports*.

As can be seen by the above figures, the PSB has spent 35 to 45 million Pakistani rupees on administration and maintenance since 2001. The maximum amount of money was spent in the year of 2003-04 and the minimum amount of money was spent in 2001-02. The annual and special grants ranged from 12 to 14 million Pakistani rupees and the training and coaching area received between 3.5 million to

4.5 million Pakistani rupees. More recent figures than this are not yet available. Other aspects of recent government involvement in sport are discussed in the section below.

5.8 The National Sports Policy

Subsequent to the establishment and central funding of sports institutions such as the Pakistan Sports Control Board (later the Pakistan Sports Board) and national sports federations (explained above), the government remained obliged to constantly review the performance of the sports sector. The history of the government's most recent initiative in this respect is discussed in the remainder of this section.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, Pakistan has a history of government intervention in matters relating to elite sport and the development of sport policy. However, despite the institution of numerous investigations and various interventions over the years (notably the Committee of Inquiry in 1967, and two National Sports Conferences in 1997 and 1999, respectively), no comprehensive sport policy has been officially promulgated by the government. In effect, the findings resulting from the aforementioned investigations were almost always 'still-born' and the recommendations were never officially recognized as government policy, and, perhaps more importantly, never really funded to the extent that was required.

Dissatisfaction with this parlous state of affairs finally came to a head when the Head of State, General Parvez Mushraf, issued a Directive to the Ministry of Sports on 25 February 2000, charging them to formulate a strategy for the improvement of sport in Pakistan at the grass roots level. As a result, the Ministry of Sports and the Pakistan

Sports Board formulated a proposed 'National Sports Policy' and made two separate presentations to Mushraf, in his role as Chief Executive, on 6 May and 1 September 2000, respectively. Mushraf subsequently directed the authorities to obtain and incorporate views from the provinces and other relevant ministries in the proposed policy. This process took place, and a summary of the proposed National Sports Policy was placed before the Federal Cabinet on 14 February 2001, and accordingly approved. In effect, the government thus signalled its intention to make changes to the sports system by developing sports at the district or tehsil level (sometimes called the 'grass roots level') so that it could improve sports to the standard it had earlier achieved in the 1960s. There seemed to be consensus that sports activities involved participation at the elite level through the PSB, POA, provincial sports bodies, and national sports organisations, but the 'district level' had been neglected. The government was also aware that existing sports facilities were inadequate to raise the standards of sports. There was also acknowledgement that most of the office bearers of national sporting organisations had occupied their key posts for decades and the system was not representative.

The approved policy was then circulated to all parties concerned for implementation. However, the POA and a few of the national sporting federations showed their resentment with specific reference to aspects of the policy relating to the tenure restrictions on office bearers. The POA even went to the trouble of filing a case in the High Court and obtained a Stay Order against the tenure restriction. Subsequently, after the election of the retired Lieutenant General Syed Arif Hasan as president of the POA, the case was withdrawn. In fact, most of the National Sport Federations

subsequently carried out elections in conformity with the stipulations set out in the National Sports Policy.⁶⁵⁶

The aim of the new National Sports Policy was therefore to promote sport at the grass roots level with the intention to attract and for the so-called 'common man' in terms of sports activities from club level to national level. Although 38 National Sporting Federations had been affiliated with the Pakistan Sports Board and received annual grants, in a significant move the government now decided to target only sixteen sports, which included both male and female sport.⁶⁵⁷ In effect, the policy aimed to introduce a club system throughout the country and every player was urged to become a member of a sporting club. Accordingly, clubs were supposed to be registered with provincial agencies at the tehsil level. The policy document was duly notified in the gazette of Pakistan on 17 August 2002, and its enforcement was made compulsory in all government departments.

A few years later, a formal review of the policy and implementation strategy was conducted. A presentation was jointly made by representatives from the Ministry of Culture and Sports and Lieutenant General Syed Arif Hasan from the POA to the President of Pakistan on 30 October 2004. Mushraf approved the implementation strategy in principle and directed that a similar presentation should be made to the Cabinet. In pursuance of the President's Directive, the Ministry of Culture and Sports accordingly submitted a Summary to the Cabinet. The Cabinet considered the Summary, dated 25 June 2005, and approved the 'National Sports Policy and

⁶⁵⁶ Personal conversation with Salamat Ali, PSB, on 13 August 2007.

⁶⁵⁷ The sixteen sports would be athletics, swimming, hockey, football, volleyball, handball, wrestling, kabaddi, squash, badminton, basketball, boxing, table tennis, snooker/billiards, weightlifting and cricket.

Implementation Strategy’, except the provisions having financial implications for which normal planning/budgetary procedures were to be followed, depending upon the feasibility of each proposal.

The revised National Sports Policy was thus notified by the Ministry of Culture and Sports on 5 December 2005 and circulated to the National Sports Federations, Provincial Sports Boards (including Azad Jammu and Kashmir – commonly known as AJ & K), Federally Administrated Tribal Areas (FATA), Northern Areas, Islamabad, and concerned departments, for implementation. The Ministry also formally requested by letter that concerned provincial governments and departments should implement the sports policy.⁶⁵⁸ However, there was a perception that the sports policy and strategy was not being implemented in its true spirit, and so six months later the Ministry of Culture and Sports circulated a letter constituting a Task Force to oversee the Implementation Strategy, as set out below.

Table 5p: Members of the Task Force Overseeing the Implementation Strategy of the National Sports Policy.

Source: Ministry of Sports, letter No. F. 9-17/2004-S.I dated 15-8-2005.

	Organisation	Representative
1.	Ministry of Sports	Joint Secretary (Sports) – Chairman
2.	PSB	Director General
3.	POA	Secretary General
4.	Pakistan Army	Director, Army Sports Department, Rawalpindi
5.	Pakistan Navy	President, Pakistan Navy Sports Department, Islamabad
6.	WAPDA	President, WAPDA Sports Board, Lahore
7.	Pakistan Railway	President, Railways Sports Board, Lahore
8.	PIA	General Manager, Sports Division, Karachi
9.	Punjab	Representative of Sports Department, Lahore
10.	Sindh	Representative of Sports Department, Karachi
11.	NWFP	Representative of Sports Department, Peshawar
12.	Balochistan	Representative of Sports Department, Quetta
13.	AJ & K	Representative of Sports Department, Muzafferabad

⁶⁵⁸ Ministry of Sports, letter No. F. 9-17/2004-S.I dated 15-8-2005.

14.	Northern Area	Representative of Sports Department, Gilgit
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The first meeting of the Task Force was held on 24 July 2007. During the meeting all members of the Task Force were requested to send their feedback to the Ministry of Culture and Sports on a monthly basis. It was agreed that the progress of implementation at the federal level would be reviewed by the committee on a quarterly basis. As such, this is the most recent policy initiative in terms of the government delivery of sport in Pakistan.

5.9 Interview Responses from Officials, Administrators, Athletes and Journalists

As outlined in the opening chapter, thirteen semi-structured interviews were conducted by the author as part of the data collection for this thesis. The participants were initially contacted via mail or telephone or in some cases personally. A variety of questions were asked of those interviewed, and, as the extracts below indicate, the interviewees included a range of key personnel representing the Pakistan government, national sports federations, administrators, athletes and the media. All interviews were transcribed and interviewees were given the opportunity to check the transcription. All interviewees agreed to be identified by name in the thesis.⁶⁵⁹

The sample of interviews was generally one of convenience, and, again as explained earlier, the relationship of the author with particular interviewees was critical in obtaining permission and access for the interviews. As noted previously, there was some reluctance for participants to be totally frank in their responses, as the volatile nature of politics, and the funding of sport, in Pakistan can be an inhibiting factor, particularly where the livelihood of government officials and state-funded athletes are

⁶⁵⁹ The schedule of interview questions appears in Appendix 13.

concerned. Nevertheless, given the paucity of information of this nature, the summary of interview responses outlined below provides a worthwhile snapshot in terms of individual involvement and reactions to the government delivery of sport in Pakistan in recent years.

A number of sports officials were interviewed. These included Khalique Khan, who was treasurer and associate secretary of the POA and is now president of the Pakistan Volleyball Federation and secretary general of the POA.⁶⁶⁰ Like all interviewees, Khan provided some of his personal background in sport, in this case noting that he was a member of the volleyball team that won a bronze medal at the Asian Games in 1962. Elected as honorary secretary of the Pakistan Volleyball Federation from 1969 to 1995, he was then elected as vice president. He also held various positions in the POA, an involvement that has continued for more than 31 years.

In the interview, Khan noted that private sector support for sport in Pakistan was ‘not very encouraging’, and so dependence on the government was necessary. However, he lamented the fact that the financial assistance for sport by the government was necessarily curtailed in a developing country where resources were always in short supply, no matter what government was in power. He also noted that funding and media coverage tended to be focused on the sport of cricket, often to the detriment of other sports.

⁶⁶⁰ K. Khan, interviewed (by telephone) in Lahore, Pakistan, May 2002.

General Akram Sahi was also interviewed, and, as his title suggests, he hails from a military background, specifically the Pakistan Army.⁶⁶¹ As Pakistan's number one-ranked long-jumper and record-holder from 1975 to 1978, Sahi participated in the 1978 Asian Games, and he recalls that during the 1970s a number of athletes were offered incentives to join the army, which he did. Other athletes in sports such as wrestling and squash received employment incentives from organisations such as the Pakistan Air Force, the Water and Power Development Authority (WAPDA) and the Railways, as well as a number of banks. In reflecting on his career, Sahi laments that the facilities were either sub-standard or non-existent. He claims that there was not a single multi-gymnasium facility available in Pakistan during his career, and he only became aware of such facilities when he visited Germany in 1977. Weight training facilities were particularly poor, with only free weights available for training purposes.

When asked to reflect on the administration of his sport, Sahi anecdotally recalls that when he attended a training camp for the Asian Games in 1978, the camp was held in Rawalpindi, one of the hottest locations in Pakistan during June and July, the time of the camp. Subsequently, it was difficult for athletes to exert themselves while training at camp. Administrators thus seemed ignorant of the specific needs of athletes, given that other cooler locations such as Abbottabad and Muree were available. He also notes that there were hardly any sports science specialists available to assist athletes, and certainly no-one that could advise on suitable diets for athletes. As for direct assistance to athletes, Sahi states that there was never any cash given to athletes, except on international tours, where a daily allowance was provided.

⁶⁶¹ A. Sahi, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002.

Retired Colonel Zafar Ahmad, a former secretary of the Pakistan Amateur Athletics Federation and a national athlete, was also interviewed.⁶⁶² He expressed the view that while annual grants from the government were mainly used for administrative purposes, these grants were not sufficient to cover the funding required for the running of day-to-day affairs. When commenting on the barriers facing women's participation in sport, Ahmad emphasized that religion and folk traditions were 'very important' factors to keep in mind in any discussion of the development of athletics in Pakistan. He was also keen to note that cultural barriers were often intertwined with, and were sometimes more important than, religious restrictions. Moreover, he was dismayed that children were too often told to concentrate on their studies, sometimes to the exclusion of adequate play and recreation. Like Khan (above), Ahmad was also concerned that 'glamour' sports such as cricket, hockey and squash dominated the media.

An important interview was conducted with Javed Ali Khan, the former Director General of the Pakistan Sports Board.⁶⁶³ Although now a government administrator in another department, Khan still maintains an active interest in sport and was in charge of the national volleyball squad at the Dubai Games in 1997. Khan made it clear that sport in Pakistan relies heavily on government funding, and any corporate sponsorship, limited as it is, is only in selected high-profile activities, such as cricket. In some cases, the small amount of funding was barely adequate for sending teams abroad or for hiring of properly trained Pakistan coaches, let alone those of international standard. Like Zafar (above) he was worried that interest in sport by

⁶⁶² Zafar Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002.

⁶⁶³ Javed Ali Khan, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002. Khan was in office from 25 February 1997 to 18 February 1999.

young people was being compromised by their desire to complete educational or professional studies, and there was little to motivate them to take up sporting careers. In respect to educational institutions, he made note of the fact that the shift of PSB responsibilities and functions away from the Ministry of Education meant that institutions in this area were not obliged to work and cooperate with the PSB. In his view, this separation had created a problem in the area of talent identification, as schools were more intent on formal studies than they were on fostering athletics and games, and the necessary sporting 'nurseries' were not being created. Indeed, with the exception of cricket, Khan claimed that the nurseries for all sports were 'inadequate', with the result that, despite solicitations to educational institutions over many years, potential elite athletes are being overlooked.

Without being specific (somewhat understandably), Khan also intimated that there had been political interference during his term of office as Director General of the PSB, but he claimed that this was to be expected in a developing nation. Like other interviewees, he bemoaned the lack of adequate stadiums, training facilities and gymnasiums (even in major cities), and he was somewhat scathing of standards in sport journalism, pointing out that only a few working in the area had been elite athletes themselves, and most stories focused on personalities rather than policies. He also pointed to the lack of qualified personnel in the sports science area, and despite the PSB attempting to upgrade the knowledge and skills of its own staff, there were still significant deficiencies in this area.

Aside from past administrators, several current officials of the PSB were also interviewed. One of these was Syed Habib Shah, a former elite athlete and national

record holder of the 100 metres sprint, as well as the current Director of the PSB.⁶⁶⁴ Shah began his athletic career at high school, and participated in the Punjab Schools Tournament, where he set sprint records and soon advanced to national competitions. He remembers that only very nominal amounts of cash were given to athletes, and often this was just a laundry allowance. Only on international trips was the allowance increased. He recalls with disappointment that the eighth Asian Games, scheduled for Pakistan, were cancelled, partly due to the incessant haggling over which was the better site. Some government ministers favoured the more 'glamorous' city of Lahore, while others argued that facilities already built in collaboration with China, should be showcased in Islamabad. It was these arguments and controversies that eventually led to the cancellation of the Games.

Javed Akhtar is the current Deputy Director General in charge of Administration at the PSB, and is one of the Board's longest serving officers, having commenced office in 1970.⁶⁶⁵ In his interview, Akhtar was able to clarify and confirm many of the administrative functions of the Board, which are discussed elsewhere in this chapter. He explained that the government provided the Board with two types of grants, namely non-development grants (suitable for the promotion of sport), and development grants (dedicated to building up sports infrastructure in the form of venues and facilities). He also re-iterated that the executive committee of the PSB was empowered to approve the budgets of the PSB, and annual grants of the national sports federations, while the general body formulates the general policies of the PSB.

⁶⁶⁴ Syed Habib Shah, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, March 2002.

⁶⁶⁵ Javed Akhtar, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

Muhammad Yousaf Khawaja is another current employee of the PSB, and holds the position of Director of Finance.⁶⁶⁶ In the interview conducted with him, a number of matters relating to the financial dealings of the Board were clarified, and used as background for previous sections of this chapter. He confirmed the often limited amount of government resources and the sometimes nominal budgetary increases provided to the Board, noting that defence, education and health were the major concerns of government. Khawaja also stated that the PSB's priority in distributing funds was to elite sport, and even then, only certain sports were provided with grants. He named hockey and squash in this category, noting that responsibility for the highly popular game of cricket had been separated from the ambit of the Board by the government, given that cricket was a relatively self-sufficient sport. Khawaja was of the opinion that other sports that received regular funding included athletics, boxing and yachting, all with the track record or potential to achieve 'world fame' for Pakistan.

Three females were interviewed as part of this phase of data collection. Given the paucity of female 'voices' in Islamic sport, their responses are particularly worthwhile, and point to a useful future line of inquiry. Ghazala Wadood, who was the national badminton champion of Pakistan for seven years, and represented the nation between 1980 and 1992, recalled how Pakistani women participated in very few sports when she first began her career.⁶⁶⁷ In particular, she remembered women playing badminton, table tennis, athletics, tennis and squash, with the caveat that 'it was very difficult for girls to come out of the house and start playing any game'. Drawing from her own experience, she believes that supportive parents were the key

⁶⁶⁶ Muhammad Yousaf Khawaja, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

⁶⁶⁷ Ghazala Wadood, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, February 2002.

to young girls taking up sporting pursuits. In her case, her father was a very good swimmer and football player; while her mother played basketball. Also worthy of comment was that her brother also played badminton. In effect, he was a ready-made chaperone, and he was able to accompany her to venues and tournaments, making her outings more socially acceptable. As Wadood explains, such independence is not common for Pakistani women, and these types of gender restrictions make it difficult for female athletes when they are required to compete at distant locations for national or international tournaments. Wadood also went on to observe that young women are expected to stop playing sport once they marry, a stricture endorsed by most parents and Pakistani society in general. As she notes, it is the 'culture' and 'environment' of Pakistan that is discriminatory towards sporting females.

Some of these views were also reflected by Shaheen Khan, an experienced female sports administrator who was Director General of the Higher Education Commission.⁶⁶⁸ As she pointed out, the Islamic religion does not actually forbid women playing sport, but strict dress requirements are a bane for female athletes. In an anecdotal aside, she related how, as an organizer of the SAF Games in 1989, it was necessary to meet Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto on at least ten occasions, as she had forbidden Pakistani women from competing in the Games. However, when she was reassured concerning the conservative nature of female athletic attire, she relented and allowed women to compete. Khan firmly believes that the re-establishment of a separate women's sports board would play a 'vital' role in the promotion of sport for women. However, she acknowledges that the board would need to be comprised of a

⁶⁶⁸ Shaheen Khan, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

majority of female administrators, rather than men, as was the case in its initial incarnation.⁶⁶⁹

Naheed Shahid, an Assistant Directress of the women's section in the PSB, was quite vocal in her views on women and sport in Pakistan.⁶⁷⁰ She claimed that her own family disapproved of her involvement in sports and games, and she was conscious that young boys, in contrast to girls, had tremendous freedom to pursue their love of athletic activities. Like other interviewees, she specifically noted that Islam did not directly forbid women's sport, but their active participation was limited by restrictions in the area of dress. Shahid confirmed that the inaugural Pakistan Women's Sports Board was established in 1995, partly as a result of the desire to participate in the quadrennial Islamic Solidarity Games, which were first held in Iran in 1993, and scheduled to be held in Pakistan in 1997. In her view, it was no coincidence that the Women's Sports Board was established at the time that Pakistan had a female prime minister, namely Benazir Bhutto. The objective of the Board was, in Shahid's words, 'to improve themselves under the veil', and a number of female coaches and administrators were appointed. However, the women were outnumbered by their male counterparts by a ratio of about five-to-one, and according to Shahid, by October 1997 virtually all of the staff of the Women's Sports Board had departed, with the demise of this Board coinciding with a change of government. The new government claimed that there were not enough funds to maintain a separate Women's Sports Board, thus marking the end of the Pakistan Women's Sports Board.

⁶⁶⁹ As a point of comparison, Khan claims that the women's sports board in the Islamic nation of Iran is comprised of females.

⁶⁷⁰ Naheed Shahid, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

Finally, one sports journalist, Imran Naeem Ahmad, an employee of the Pakistan *Daily News* was interviewed.⁶⁷¹ Given some of the criticism raised above, his responses provide a useful alternative context. A well-travelled journalist, having covered the Olympic Games, Asian Games and a number of World Cups in various sports, he described the PSB as something akin to a 'white elephant'. In criticising the Board's performance, he claimed that lethargy had crept in, and there was a general lack of motivation among employees. However, he also acknowledged that the level of funding from the government was inadequate, identifying the lack of financial resources as the major cause of decline in Pakistan's international performances.

Aside from his observation that the relationship between the POA and the PSB was not good and needed to be improved, he was also critical of the fact that officials in various sports were reluctant to provide journalists with relevant information. Noting this as 'one of the biggest problems' he had faced in his career, he suggested that sports officials deliberately tried to avoid controversies, and so withheld any information that might be misconstrued by journalists.

Several of the interviewees also made observations and suggestions regarding the future of sport in Pakistan. Their comments in this regard are discussed in the next chapter, where a number of comparisons, recommendation and conclusions are outlined.

⁶⁷¹ Imran Naeem Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

5.10 Conclusions

As is evident from the analysis in this chapter, the Pakistan government, despite some ups and downs, generally remained committed to the cause of sports, particularly regarding improvements in sporting standards, performances at international level and the construction of sports infrastructure. Since the creation of Pakistan, the government was obliged to fund the sports sector as no extensive corporate sponsorship, in the form of substantial direct financial support, was available except for the sport of cricket.

The government thus continued to make substantial budgetary allocations out of its scarce public resources. It was also obligated to intervene and audit sporting performances in line with public aspirations. Government interventions were frequent and constant, ranging from the establishment of sports institutions, to inquiries, to stakeholder conferences, to policy proclamations on sports. Owing to immense public pride and national spirit, many of the grants could be said to be motivated towards the promotion of sports in order to not only achieve better results at international competitions but to enhance the political standing of the government in the eyes of the public.

By and large, a number of inquiry reports were comprehensive and their recommendations covered each aspect of the sports sector, but their implementation was selective depending on the availability and cooperation of stakeholders other than the government. All inquiry reports and sports conferences were premised on the notion that the Pakistani nation had abundant talent and potential for excelling at international level. However, as evident above, levels of funding for sport were

inconsistent, and financial support was often arbitrary in nature. In particular, the sport system was not supported by an adequate infrastructure.

The following chapter looks specifically at a comparison between the government delivery of sport in Pakistan and Australia. It does this by focusing on a number of recommendations that draw on the history, politics, economics and management of sporting practices and traditions in the two nations.

Chapter Six

Comparisons, Recommendations and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

The bulk of the thesis thus far has essentially consisted of two parallel chapters on the history and development of sport in Australia and Pakistan, followed by similar twin chapters focusing on the government delivery of sport in those countries. In total, these four chapters reflect an acknowledgement by a number of authors that accounts of political and policy changes need to have ‘a strong historical perspective’.⁶⁷² While there is a logic and certain neatness to a structure whereby stand alone chapters on various aspects of a country’s sporting development are presented side-by-side, it is important that the information contained in those chapters now be considered in a much more comparative and analytical manner.

Since the overall aim of the thesis has been driven by the author’s desire to improve the delivery of sport in his native country, the focus in this chapter is on the presentation of a number of recommendations and discussion areas related specifically to the context of the development of sport in Pakistan. This is not to suggest there is no room for improvement in the government delivery of sport in Australia, but by focusing on the needs of a developing, rather than a developed, nation, it is hoped that the recommendations go some way to establishing a tangible course of action that might hopefully advance the cause of sport in Pakistan. To this end, the structure of this chapter revolves around two key aspects. Firstly, a general comparative overview of certain aspects of the development of elite sport in

⁶⁷² Marsh *et al.* (1999), cited in M. Green and B. Houlihan, *Elite Sports Sports Development: Policy Learning and Political Priorities*, Routledge, London, 2005, p. 4.

Australian and Pakistan is provided. And secondly, a number of recommendations in certain key areas related to the government delivery of sport in Pakistan is set out. In most part, these suggestions are based on the information and historical context provided in the previous four chapters, and therefore the shadow of Australia's recent successes in the sporting realm, and the corresponding difficulties of the Pakistan system, loom large.

6.2 General Comparisons: Political Stability

Earlier in the thesis, the rise and fall of various governments in both Australia and Pakistan, and their involvement in the delivery of sport, was tracked. In Pakistan, the first head of state was the Governor General and he was also the president of a political party named the Muslim League. Unfortunately, due to illness he died within twelve months of his appointment, and the next head of state was assassinated soon after.

As revealed in Chapter Three, some prime ministers only held office for very short periods, while some of the longest serving governments have been characterised by heads of state with military affiliations. Such political instability has been symptomatic of Pakistan throughout its life as an independent nation and it is fair that to say that this flux has had an adverse effect on its economy, its culture, and its relationship with the rest of the world. In the case of Australia, it is equally fair to say that the political system, by and large, has been marked by a significant degree of political stability. The best example of this is the period from 19 December 1949 to 26 January 1966, when Robert Menzies served as Prime Minister. There was only one occasion when an incumbent (Labor) government was sacked by the Governor

General. By contrast, though, in the case of Pakistan, the army has effectively ruled the country for more than 30 years of its 60 year existence, creating the potential for a rapid succession of military coups and suspect election processes. It is this comparison that goes part way to explaining the differing ability of each nation to devote sufficient resources to the government delivery of sport in an on-going and consistent manner, especially when the decades of the 1970s through to the 1990s are compared.

6.3 General Comparisons: Gender and Religion

Although Pakistan has twice been governed by a female prime minister and some women have also been very active at the highest political level (in contrast to Australia where neither the Liberal nor Labor Party have ever elected a female leader), it can be asserted that one of the major differences between the two countries is in the area of gender and religion. In terms of religion, it is accepted that Australia is basically a Christian country. However, it is worthwhile to note that in Australia Islam is the second largest minority religion after Buddhism. In the case of Pakistan, it should be acknowledged that Pakistan was the first independent sovereign state in recent history that was created on the basis of religion. In this respect, it should also be re-iterated that just over 97% of the current population is Muslim, while other religious minorities, such as Christians and Hindus, constitute the remainder.

In terms of sport, it must be remembered that Pakistan is an Islamic state and therefore social and moral conditions are not conducive for women to perform sport or physical activities in public. Indeed, a restrictive dress code and the fact that from an early age girls are trained to play a domestic role rather than indulge in any

physical activity, means that participation in sport and recreation in Pakistan, until recently, has almost entirely been dominated by men. In Australia, however, as a number of historians have pointed out, World War I became a watershed event in respect to the forging of new social roles for women. Despite the fact that there is a long history of marginalisation of women from sport in Australia, and perhaps some parallels may be drawn with the situation in Pakistan, it is clear that the religious dimension surrounding this problem is not as prevalent in western countries such as Australia. Thus, while most women's sport has been confined to the periphery in Australia, it is also a fact that large numbers of women and girls in this country have participated in a wide range of sports over a long period of time, with some achieving notable success, especially at the Olympic level, as highlighted in Chapter Two.

6.4 General Comparisons: Education Systems

It was church organisations that initially began education in Australia, although later it was the government that took over this responsibility, while at the same time providing funds for specifically religious schools. There was no arrangement for higher education in Australia in the beginning of the colonial period and the first university was not established in New South Wales until 1850. At the time of partition, despite the fact that Pakistan had a poorly educated population, there were a few schools and universities. As in Australia, the government of Pakistan is responsible for education, although there are some religious organisations that are responsible for running religious schools in both Australia and Pakistan. In the case of Pakistan, however, the curriculum of government schools and religious schools was quite different, with a key disparity based around the fact that there were usually no physical education classes in religious schools, as mentioned in Chapter Three.

When Australia became federated in 1901, the responsibility for education went to the states and most of the states quickly established education departments. Although every state is independent in making education policy, most of the education system is uniform throughout Australia. In the case of Pakistan, all provinces are independent in making education policy, while the central government looks after academic and technical education institutions through its Ministry of Education. There is at least one designated university in each province, and each of them is responsible for the coordination of its own instruction and examinations. The Pakistan government exercises control over the universities through an autonomous body, namely the Higher Education Commission, formerly known as the University Grants Commission.

Preschool and school education has a similar structure across Australia and Pakistan, with only slight variations amongst the states and territories. The common factor is that education at public schools in Australia and Pakistan is free, although most schools do have a small voluntary annual fee to cover extra activities. Parents may also have to purchase such items as books and uniforms and pay for outings, camps, and so on. Most public schools are co-educational in Australia, whereas in Pakistan schools are generally separate for boys and girls.

Australia and Pakistan also have an independent school system, which basically consists of non-government schools. In the case of Australia, these are a diverse group of schools and they serve a range of different communities. In the case of Pakistan, these independent schools belong to Islamic and Christian missionary

groups. The common factor is that the different levels of governments of Australia and Pakistan divide the delivery of education. In the case of Australia, the central government provides supplementary funding to support certain strategies and priorities such as literacy and numeracy programs, and is responsible for higher education. Vocational education and training is shared between the state and territory and federal governments. The central government of Pakistan is responsible for academic and technical education, as well as higher education

6.5 General Comparisons: Physical Education

When the Australian colonies became a federation in 1901 and Pakistan came into existence in 1947, military defence was high on the agenda for both countries, as discussed in Chapters Two and Three. Indeed, both countries used physical education in order to enhance the physical fitness of their younger generation, with the intention of ensuring the defence of their respective countries. Both countries used army personnel for physical education in educational institutions, as the programs used were essentially based on army drills. In the beginning, both countries also had a shortage of trained physical education teachers. Australia eventually overcame this shortage when a university-level physical education program was introduced after World War II. Pakistan has also overcome its shortage of physical education teachers, but the quality of their professional training and performance in educational institutions has not been satisfactory. Both countries included physical education programs in elementary and secondary schools, and in most of cases the physical education teacher was also responsible for sports and games.

In Pakistan there are usually no professionally trained physical education teachers at elementary level. Indeed, elementary school teachers that had only the single elective subject 'physical education' during their training were usually given the responsibility of supervising physical education lessons. Both countries have interschool sports competitions and in the case of Australia there are also interstate school competitions. In Pakistan the interschool, intercollegiate and interuniversity competitions are organised by government-controlled agencies such as the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, the Inter Board Committee of Sports and the Higher Education Commission. In Australia, non-governmental agencies such as the Australian Sports Council and the Australian University Sport Federation are responsible for the competitions among schools and universities throughout Australia. The federal government, through the ASC, provides funds to member schools Australia-wide through a program called 'The Active After-School Communities Program', with the aim of promoting sports activities at the grass roots level. In contrast, the federal government in Pakistan, under the agency of the PSB, has no such program. The PSB is only responsible for interstate youth tournaments in certain sports, both for boys and girls.

6.6 General Comparisons: Government Funding

Although Australian athletes have participated in every summer Olympic Games since their inception, regular government funding for sports was minimal before 1972. By and large, sports and games were in the hands of volunteer organisations. The Commonwealth government provided some funds through the National Fitness Council in 1939, but those funds were not especially dedicated to sports. In the case of Pakistan, the priority of the government at the time of partition was security, law

and order and the settlement of migrants. Regular government funding for sport started when the Ministry of Education, with a small advisory staff, supervised matters related to sports from 1947 to 1958. Notwithstanding the above dismal situation, the general public, out of sheer love for sports and despite their socio-economic predicament, did manage to financially support some athletes. In Australia, the only other federal government orientated assistance before the 1970s was basically in the form of facility construction, exemplified by assistance in the preparation of the 1938 and the 1962 Commonwealth Games, and the staging of 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games. On the other hand, facilities for sports are developed by the central government of Pakistan in different cities and especially in the capital city of Islamabad.

A separate department, namely the Department of Tourism and Recreation, was established by the Australian Labor government in 1972, and this was responsible for looking after sports activities, as discussed in Chapter Four. Another major step towards the development of sport was the creation of the Australian Sports Commission in 1985. However, in the case of Pakistan a central autonomous body known as the Pakistan Sports Control Board was set up in the Ministry of Education by a Resolution in May 1959. Its aim was the smooth conduct of sports activities throughout the country, as discussed in Chapter Five.

In Australia, the coalition government abolished the department responsible for sports activities when it came into power. However, in the case of Pakistan the department is still in existence, although with a change of name and in its controlling ministry. The Pakistan Sports Control Board was initially established under the Ministry of

Education, but from July 1977 it has been under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Culture and Sports and now under the Ministry of Sports. However, this comparison of government departments and nomenclature also reveals that almost all the expenditures incurred in Pakistan's participation in international sport were borne by the central government from 1959, whereas in Australia effective and substantive central government funding of participation in international sport effectively commenced in 1972, more than a decade later.

In terms of other comparisons, it should be noted that the Australian government is providing funds through the ASC to national federations and also to other agencies that are working for the promotion of sport in the country. Apart from regular funds for national sporting organisations, the ASC provided extra funds for different programs such as the 'Next Step Program', 'Maintain the Momentum Program', 'Olympic Athlete Program', and 'Backing Australia's Sporting Ability: A More Active Australia'. In essence, the bulk of the funds are directed toward high performance sports. The ASC is also spending money on programs such as 'Excellence in Sports Management' and 'Tough on Drugs in Sport', the like of which do not operate in Pakistan. The Australian government is also providing funds for the promotion of sports at grassroots level through the 'The Active After-School Communities Program'. Again, Pakistan has no such program and, as discussed earlier, the only thing which PSB is doing in this area is holding interstate youth (under sixteen) competitions in different sports for both female and male categories.

The government of Pakistan regularly provides funds to those national sporting organisations which are affiliated with the PSB. Moreover, the government, through

the PSB, also allocates funding for the provision of foreign coaches in certain sports. The PSB has two categories of funding for national sporting organisations: Firstly, annual grants, which are largely determined by the international performance of the respective federations, and; secondly, special grants, which are meant to fund participation in international sporting events and the staging of national and international sporting event within the country. There are currently no funds for sports medicine, research and other scientific areas, which are essential ingredients for success at the international level. The PSB has international standard board and lodging facilities at the premises of the Pakistan Sports Complex (PSC) in Islamabad, but there is no dietician in the hostel who could suggest or look after the dietary requirements of athletes. Similarly, there is only one physiotherapist (who works from 9.00 am to 3.00 pm) at the PSC. Overall, the bulk of the Board's budget is directed towards the administration and maintenance of sports facilities.

As a general observation, Pakistani officials and sports-related people, including journalists and athletes, never seem satisfied with the level of funds provided by the government of Pakistan for the promotion of sports. However, in Australia, by and large, most people, including athletes, are generally happy with the level of government funding for the promotion of sports. In Pakistan, the funds distribution for national sports federations is on a performance basis and not on an as-needs basis. Therefore some sports, such as cycling and gymnastics, which receive only nominal funding from the government, have no chance of producing any athlete of international calibre. There are no regular funds for coach education, which often results in the prevalence of unorthodox coaching methods in Pakistan. It is

noteworthy that there is not a single coach with formal qualifications in many major sports, including hockey and squash.

6.7 General Comparisons: Sports System/Structure

In terms of basic structure, both Australia and Pakistan have very similar sports systems. Most clubs are single-sport, local bodies, run by and for their members. Clubs are then affiliated with regional and state associations, which in turn unite to form national sporting organisations. In Australia, volunteers administer sports at all levels (particularly at the club level), but at state and national levels, professional administrators are responsible for sporting bodies. In Pakistan, sports bodies are also administered by volunteers from the club to national level, but there is a distinct lack of trained and professional administrators. The national sporting organisations are affiliated with their international bodies and their respective Olympic associations. The national sporting organisations are responsible for the promotion of their respective sports at the national level.

In terms of the Olympic Games, national Olympic bodies are responsible for coordinating their activities with the IOC. Pakistani athletes for national teams are selected from national championships or from national games. At the level below this, there is reliance on government departmental teams and educational institutions for new talent, rather than on the club system. This contrasts with Australia, which has a very good and historically very strong club system. In Pakistan, as discussed in Chapter Three, many sporting clubs lack the necessary history, tradition and profile to form a strong base or foundation for a hierarchical sports system.

The governments of both countries clearly have an important role in controlling and promoting sport, through the ASC in Australia and the PSB in Pakistan. Both countries have ministers with a sports portfolio at the federal and state level. In both cases, the government provides funds to national sporting organisations and also provides infrastructure for sports. Both countries have well-established sporting facilities of international standard in their capital cities. However, it is clear that in Australia such facilities are more scientifically and technologically advanced than those in Pakistan. The Australian government regularly announces sports policies and then acts upon them, but in the case of Pakistan its first comprehensive official sports policy was announced in 2001 but unfortunately it is still yet to be fully implemented.

6.8 General Comparisons: Olympic Games

In terms of participation in the Olympic arena, the contrasts between Australia and Pakistan are often stark, as some of the following comparisons illustrate. Both countries are members of the IOC. Australia has participated in every summer Games from 1896, while Pakistan has participated in all summer Games from 1948, except for the heavily boycotted Moscow Olympic Games in 1980. Australia's first Olympic medal was in track and field in 1896, while Pakistan received its first Olympic medal in hockey at the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games. Australian athletes have won 343 summer Olympic medals from 1948 to 2004, while Pakistani athletes have won only ten medals during the same period. Australia has successfully organised two Olympic Games, while Pakistan has never even bid to host the Games. Australians have achieved success at the Olympic Games in a variety of sports and games, while Pakistan has received medals in only three sports, namely hockey, wrestling and boxing. At the 2004 Athens Olympic Games, Australia was ranked number four on

the medal table, but Pakistan failed to win a single medal and often failed to even qualify in preliminary heats.

The Australian government has put substantial amounts of money into its Olympic Games program, while the government of Pakistan has also allocated funds under the budgetary title of 'Preparation and Participation in Olympic Games'. However, as usual there is no specific or dedicated funding within this amount for the necessary scientific planning or necessary infrastructure for elite level sport. Australia has won the vast majority of its medals from 1948 to 2004 in the sport of swimming, a traditional area of strength for Australia, an island continent. A second important fact which cannot be ignored is that women have won a larger percentage of medals than men. Pakistan, in contrast, has won the majority of its medals in the sport of hockey. Finally, Australia has significant influence in the supreme Olympic body by having three current IOC delegates, while Pakistan has only one representative.

6.9 Recommendations: Educational Institutions

As a number of previous inquiries and reports have made clear, it is essential that the government of Pakistan should renew its commitment to create a sound base of physical fitness at the grassroots level. In the case of Pakistan, this should be done by ensuring that participation in sport becomes a core activity for all students, especially in the all-important primary school years. Not only will this ensure a solid foundation of individual fitness and skills for their own sake, it will also enable schools and colleges to become nurseries of emerging sports talent.⁶⁷³

⁶⁷³ Some of these recommendations were reflected during interviews conducted for the thesis. See, for example, Zafar Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002.

A number of related suggestions flow from such a recommendation. For instance, based on the present contemporary physical education curriculum, a sound and comprehensive physical education program should be introduced in schools and colleges. Similarly, it should be mandatory for every educational institution to have functional sporting facilities, especially playgrounds. In this respect, each 'Local Government' administration in Pakistan should act to ensure that sporting facilities, including playgrounds, are established in every new educational institution. On this basis, it may then be feasible for each province to declare at least one educational institution a 'Centre of Sporting Excellence'. In this way, quality education as well as quality sports coaching could be achieved under one roof. Such institutions would need to have well-equipped sports facilities and appropriately qualified and trained coaches. Parents having an interest in sporting excellence would then direct their children to join such institutions. If successful, the proposed network of Centres of Sporting Excellence could be extended to other major cities, towns or even to the tehsil level. In terms of parity, it is also pertinent to recommend that this network of facilities and institutions should be replicated, as far as possible, with women's sports and female athletes, although given previous discussion about the gendered nature of physical activity in Pakistan, this may be difficult to achieve without widespread changes in attitudes and previously ingrained behaviours.

In some of the interviews conducted for this thesis, there were calls for the PSB to have closer links with educational institutions. Javed Ali Khan, a former Director General of the Board, for example, spoke at length about government initiatives to strengthen ties between the PSB and youth sport activities, suggesting that a pyramid structure of sporting competitions, leading eventually to national representation is

necessary, although he acknowledged that appropriate funds would need to be forthcoming for such a system to work.⁶⁷⁴

6.10 Recommendations: Religious Schools

A chain of educational institutions under the name of Madrassa/Maktab (Arabic words meaning 'school') exist in Pakistan. Such schools provide free-of-charge education, mostly of a religious nature, to about 0.8 million children aged five years to fifteen years. The majority of these schools are functioning in the outlying NWFP and Balochistan provinces. These schools should also be integrated into the mainstream educational and sports systems, as described above. Inter-Maktab sports competitions, especially in soccer, track and field and wrestling, culminating at national level championships, should be held under the auspices of the PSB, following the pattern of existing inter-provincial sports competitions. Maktab teachers could also be utilised by including them into tournament committees and teaching them how to organise tournaments. To enhance exposure and profile, monetary incentives and media coverage should be given to those Maktab schools that excel in sporting activities. Importantly, especially in terms of consultative practices and the desire to avoid implementing only top-down change, the government should organise a national conference of the heads of Maktab schools, and thus provide an opportunity for the heads of schools to discuss sports participation in their institutions. Finally, the government should encourage Maktab teachers by providing them with free-of-charge coaching at Islamabad, as well as bearing the expenses associated with their travel costs.

⁶⁷⁴ Javed Ali Khan, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002.

6.11 Recommendations: Physical Education Teachers

Physical education teachers in Pakistan are not adequately trained, and the majority of them have never been exposed to the modern scientific discipline of physical education. The government, with the collaboration of the Ministry of Education, the PSB and Physical Education Staff Colleges, should organise country-wide refresher courses for the existing core of teachers. Foreign technical assistance should also be secured for the training of such trainers. In line with such a philosophy, the government must also ensure that physical education teachers should only be used in their area of expertise, and not for general supervision duties, a problem identified in the previous chapter.

Due to overlapping functional responsibilities, there should also be close coordination between the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Sports and the PSB regarding the promotion of sports at the grassroots level. Furthermore, there should be national level conferences, sponsored by the federal government, at Islamabad, Muree or other attractive hill stations during summer vacations for heads of educational institutions, whereby the importance of physical education can be emphasised. At such conferences, those educational institutions excelling in sports could be given awards, certificates or even cash in recognition of their achievements.

6.12 Recommendations: Optimal Utilisation of Resources

Being the major sponsor for the promotion of sport, the government in Pakistan has serious constraints on account of competing demands for expenditure, in areas such as defence, debt retirement, health, and education. Since the above requirements are of paramount nature, little fiscal leeway is left for the allocation of funds for sport. To

overcome such resource constraints, it is imperative to conserve the funds that are allocated to sport and to ensure the optimum utilisation of this funding by attempting to restrict the number of beneficiaries where necessary and appropriate. To this end, the government of Pakistan should, as Australia has done, endeavour to target only a limited number of sports. Currently, the 40 sporting organisations are affiliated with the PSB for annual grant purposes and due the large number of beneficiaries, the meagre budgetary allocation by the government is hopelessly dissipated. To conserve the available resources, it would be advisable if the number of affiliated sporting organisations was substantially reduced, and therefore it is recommended that a smaller number, perhaps only eleven sport organisations, should be targeted and perhaps be known as Level One sports. It would not be out of place to state that the selection of such sports would generate considerable debate among sporting bodies and sports fans in Pakistan.

In line with the above suggestion, the selection of the Level One sports for annual grant purposes could and should be based on sound justifications, perhaps using the following template as a guide. Firstly, sports should be targeted and funded according to whether or not Pakistan has a winning legacy at international level and had/has achieved respectable international standing and standards. These sports are currently squash, hockey, cricket and boxing. Secondly, sports which enjoy popular public appeal and mass participation owing to a large youth sector in the national population and/or some sports that are popular in rural areas should be supported. These sports are currently football (soccer), wrestling, weightlifting, volleyball, and track and field. Thirdly, sports in which female players can conveniently and unobtrusively observe

cultural and religious norms and restrictions should be specifically targeted. These sports are currently badminton and table tennis.

A number of other recommendations flow from the above suggestions. Most importantly, the assumption is that the remaining sporting organisations should be disaffiliated from the PSB. That is, non-targeted, or Level Two sports, should continue to function, managing their own resources as best they can, with the aim of achieving international standards and perhaps then becoming eligible for further government funding. In another related structural re-alignment, cricket, being the most lucrative sports discipline, could be streamlined into Pakistan's sports system so that its funds can be shared with other targeted sports disciplines. As part of this process, a National Sports Task Force should be constituted in order to examine the functioning and organisation of each national sports federation with the aim of making them more democratic and representative.

The government should also play a role in a number of other areas. In Pakistan, the marketing of sport and sporting events is a most neglected area, and one which needs to be exploited by the hiring of marketing professionals rather than relying on the officebearers of the relevant sports federations and the PSB. Similarly, the government should nurture and develop linkages between sport, television, tourism and trade, which could potentially increase overall revenues in the sports industry. Some of these suggestions were intimated by Imran Ahmad, a sports journalist, in his interview, where 'a more cordial relationship' between the POA and the PSB was seen as a pre-condition that might allow sport in Pakistan to 'flourish'.⁶⁷⁵

⁶⁷⁵ Imran Naeem Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

Another flow-on from such recommendations, and one that overlaps across other areas, is the suggestion that the PSB or the tertiary education sector might become more involved in sponsoring academic conferences and courses in sport management, sport administration and sport history. This seems to happen more commonly in the western world, where the disciplines are much more embedded in universities, but there is the potential for such conferences to be held either independently in Pakistan, or as appendages to regional games or more major sporting events such as the Asian Games or the Commonwealth Games. The interchange of ideas between scholars would be worthwhile for both academics in Pakistan and those that attend from other nations, and help to establish a solid foundation of knowledge and expertise in the social science areas of sport.

It needs to be recognised, however, that many of the above suggestions regarding the optimal utilisation of resources are predicated on the government's decision to appropriately fund elite sport (as discussed above). While such funding may not necessarily be to the total exclusion of adequate financial resources for so-called community sport, it is clear that any decision to allocate the bulk of the government sporting rupee to high performance sport has the potential to be highly contentious if not fraught with some risk, especially where the nation in question is considered to be a 'developing' country. While the focus of this thesis has been on elite sport, the ultimate ethical question as to the value of international sporting success (and the sense of national identity that comes with it) versus the value of widespread community health at the grassroots level is critical. In the context of the research and arguments presented in this thesis, it is a complex matter that should not be shirked or

ignored by government officials or sports administrators alike. Indeed, it is a dichotomous issue that will continue to confront all nations with limited resources, including Australia, and therefore it is important that the on-going debate on the optimal utilisation of resources be supported by rigorous research, informed analysis and robust discussion.

6.13 Recommendations: Media

In regard to specific recommendations regarding the media, it is suggested that the PSB should maintain close working relationships with sports journalists and provide them with any necessary and required information in a timely manner. It is also suggested that wherever possible sports journalists should report on and analyse the sports policies of the government with concrete knowledge instead of mere conjecture or bias. The government should also ensure that a greater range of sports be given coverage by the electronic media. It would also be worthwhile if the PSB organised refresher courses for sports journalists, with the aim of making them experts in particular sports.

6.14 Recommendations: Women

Since females constitute more than 50% of the total population, but they receive nowhere this proportion of funding in relation to sport and physical education, special attention should be devoted to lessening the disparity. It is fair to say that only lip-service has been given to this concept in the past, to the detriment of the development of women's sport in Pakistan. The government should therefore create a number of exclusive sports facilities for women, and, wherever possible, have these facilities managed by women, at least at the division level and then gradually down to the

district and tehsil level. Considering the religious and cultural norms of the country, the government should target at least two sports especially for women, perhaps badminton and table tennis, with the potential for other activities such as track and field and netball to be added to the list at a later stage. Female students should be encouraged to receive education in sports management, sports coaching and physical fitness, and respectable jobs should be offered in these areas. The media should also be directed to cover women's participation in sport, rather than just medal-winning performances of men at the international level.

6.15 Recommendations: Coaching

In the critical area of coaching, it is recommended that the government should develop a well qualified national cadre of coaches and trainers by arranging their training abroad. At lower levels, the PSB should also introduce refresher courses for coaches and trainers in association and cooperation with different physical education colleges and universities. It is also important that the PSB should commence a coaching accreditation system. Only accredited coaches should then be assigned duties, with the government providing employment for these appropriately credentialed coaches. In line with these initiatives, a national coaching academy for the training of coaches should be established by the government.

Many of the above proposals in respect to coaching were also highlighted by a number of the interviewees. General Akram Sahi, a former elite athlete, for example, stated that 'a lack of experts' in the training and coaching area was one of the most important issues holding back the development of sport in Pakistan. In his view, very few coaching and training personnel had obtained internationally recognised

qualifications, and many relied on their own personal experiences as the basis for their coaching techniques. Sahi also went on to suggest that a 'Sports Academy', with a nucleus of highly-trained, internationally-qualified Pakistan staff, supplemented if necessary by recruits from overseas, would provide a solid foundation for the future of elite coaching in Pakistan.⁶⁷⁶ Imran Ahmad also echoed these concerns, calling for the PSB to be appropriately funded so that foreign coaches could be imported.⁶⁷⁷ It also seems obvious that more female coaches are required, and as Shaheen Khan pointed out in her interview, it is important that women be given the opportunity to coach other women.⁶⁷⁸

6.16 Recommendations: Rural Areas

In Pakistan, more than 60% of the population lives in rural areas, and so this geographic aspect also merits special attention. Indigenous sports such as wrestling, kabaddi and track and field should be especially encouraged in rural areas through local competitions. The sport of cycling should be introduced in the areas of Bhawalpur and Dera Ismail Khan, partly because in these regions anecdotal evidence suggests that the bicycle is used very regularly in the daily life of the inhabitants. There should be competitions in cycling with prize money in these areas and winners groomed at the national level.

6.17 Conclusions

Pakistan is a sport loving country and takes immense pride in the achievements of its athletes. However, on a number of occasions the nation's elite athletes have either

⁶⁷⁶ A. Sahi, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002. Colonel Zafar Ahmad, an ex-member of the PAAF, also made similar comments in respect to the need for coach education. Zafar Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002.

⁶⁷⁷ Imran Naeem Ahmad, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

⁶⁷⁸ Shaheen Khan, interviewed (in person) in Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.

fallen short of, or failed, public expectations, which has often led to widespread community anger, adverse criticism and sometimes recriminations for athletes and administrators alike. In the absence of an objective, scholarly analysis of Pakistan's sporting past, it is clear that no effective solution can be put forward for the future improvement of elite sport development in Pakistan, hence the importance of this pioneering study. At the heart of this particular investigation is a comparative analysis, and the recognition that there are both similarities and differences between Australia and Pakistan. For example, European settlement in Australia was established in order to solve the problem of overcrowded prisons in Great Britain, while Pakistan came into existence as a separate homeland for Indian Muslims. Australia is considered to be a Christian country while Pakistan is avowedly Muslim in religious orientation. Australian women appear to have more freedom than their Pakistan counterparts, but both countries have almost similar education systems. Significantly, both countries were clearly influenced by the British in terms of their form of government, legal systems, and, not least, their predisposition toward sports. The general principle of federal government support for sport in both countries is similar, but as the previous chapters have demonstrated, the Australian government tends to provide funds more systemically than the Pakistani government. It should also be noted that Australia's achievements in sport are greater than Pakistan at the international level, although both countries share a very competitive spirit in the sports of hockey, cricket and squash.

This dissertation represents the beginning of formal academic sports research in Pakistan, an area that needs to be taken up by other researchers who hopefully might use the information contained in this thesis as the foundation for their endeavours.

The proposed project therefore has a number of benefits. First and foremost, this project will help combat the deficiency in scholarly literature concerning the development and administration of elite sport programs in Pakistan. Given that the context for the study is a comparison of elite sport in Australia and Pakistan, it is clear that the thesis will also have the potential to provide important insights into the historical, social, cultural, economic and political dimensions of sporting policies and practices in Pakistan and Australia.

This project has the capability to be significant for a number of different reasons. At one level, the information in the thesis should be of popular interest to a wide range of people, media, athletes and officials who may wish to know something about the historical development and current standing of sport in Pakistan and Australia. Secondly the Pakistan government may be able to use this research not only to appraise and evaluate current policy but to produce a collection or index of historical material which should ultimately create incentives to produce local, club and even national histories. Finally, the thesis will be able to raise the public profile of sport and help to nurture a protective environment, which will minimize the risk of losing important information or archives for future generations. It is not unrealistic to believe that the thesis, as a pioneering work on the subject, may attract the interest and initiative of policy planners, sports managers and promoters in Pakistan and cause them to pause, ponder and promote sport by way of the informed perspective that this thesis provides. Moreover, in terms of academic scholarship, it is hoped that this investigation may serve as an impetus for further comparative works that seek to examine sport in diverse settings, particularly in developing nations such as Pakistan,

where there are many rich political, social, economic and cultural traditions to be explored.

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 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002
2. Name: Ahmad, Zafar
 Position: Former member (Associate Secretary), Pakistan Amateur Athletics Federation
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002
3. Name: Akhtar, Javed
 Position: Deputy Director General (Administration), Pakistan Sports Board
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002
4. Name: Ashfaq, Mohammad
 Position: Deputy Director General (National Federations), Pakistan Sports Board
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002
5. Name: Awan, Asem Mustafa
 Position: Sports journalist, *Daily Nation*
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002
6. Name: Khan, Javaid Ali
 Position: Former Director General, Pakistan Sports Board
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002
7. Name: Khan, Khalique
 Position: Associate Secretary, Pakistan Olympic Association
 Place and date of (telephone) interview: Lahore, Pakistan, May 2002
8. Name: Khan, Shaheen
 Position: Secretary, Sports University Grants Commission
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002.
9. Name: Khawaja, Mohammad Yousaf
 Position: Director Finance, Pakistan Sports Board
 Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002

10. Name: Sahi, Brig. Akram
Position: Former national elite athlete and national broad jump record holder
Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, May 2002
11. Name: Shah, Syed Habib
Position: Former national elite athlete and national record holder of 100 meter sprint
Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, March 2002
12. Name: Shahid, Naheed
Position: Assistant Directress, Women's Cell, Pakistan Sports Board
Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, April 2002
13. Name: Wadood, Ghazala
Position: Former national female badminton champion
Place and date of interview: Islamabad, Pakistan, February 2002

Correspondence and Communications

Ali, Salamat, Director, National Federation – Talent Hunt Scheme, Pakistan Sports Board, 17 August 2004.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Information to Participants

Information & Consent Form for Subjects Involved in Research by Mohammad Akhtar Nawaz for Thesis Topic: A Comparative and Historical Analysis of Elite Sport Programs in Australia and Pakistan

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

I would like to invite you to be a part of the research for the thesis topic '**A Comparative and Historical Analysis of Elite Sport Programs in Australia and Pakistan**'. The purpose and scope of this thesis is to develop an objective comparison between elite sport programs in Australia and Pakistan. The research methods involve analysing secondary source material and conducting interviews. The following information is for the benefit of those participating in interviews:

- a) Participants may withdraw from the interview at any time.
- b) The interview will be taped.
- c) If requested, a participant will be provided with a copy of the tape and a transcription of the interview for review.
- d) A participant must give consent for any material provided during the interview, including personal documents to be disclosed in the thesis or associated publications. Personal documents may include letters, faxes, memos, photos, programs and diaries. All information will be treated as confidential until released by the consent of the participant.
- e) Where it is proposed that a person be identified by name or would be identified by role, his/her specific authority to disclose information will be obtained.
- f) Interview materials will be kept as confidential on university premises by the supervisor.
- g) Participants are asked to use pseudonyms or to refrain from disclosing names of other persons or their position titles.
- h) To combat any inadvertent disclosure the identified persons can be struck from the written record or a pseudonym can be used for their protection.
- i) The completed thesis will be made available to all participants.

If you have any concern regarding questions or areas discussed before, after or during the interview please contact either Akhtar Nawaz or Richard Baka on the numbers provided below. I thank you very much for your time

Mohammad Akhtar Nawaz

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher Mohammad Akhtar Nawaz (ph: 9866 4066) or to the supervisor Richard Baka (ph: 9688 4358). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, PO Box 14428 MCMC, Melbourne, 8001 (ph: 03-9688 4710).

Appendix 3

Australian Government Expenditure on Sport and Recreation, 1972-2007

Source: Departmental Annual Reports, 1986-2006.

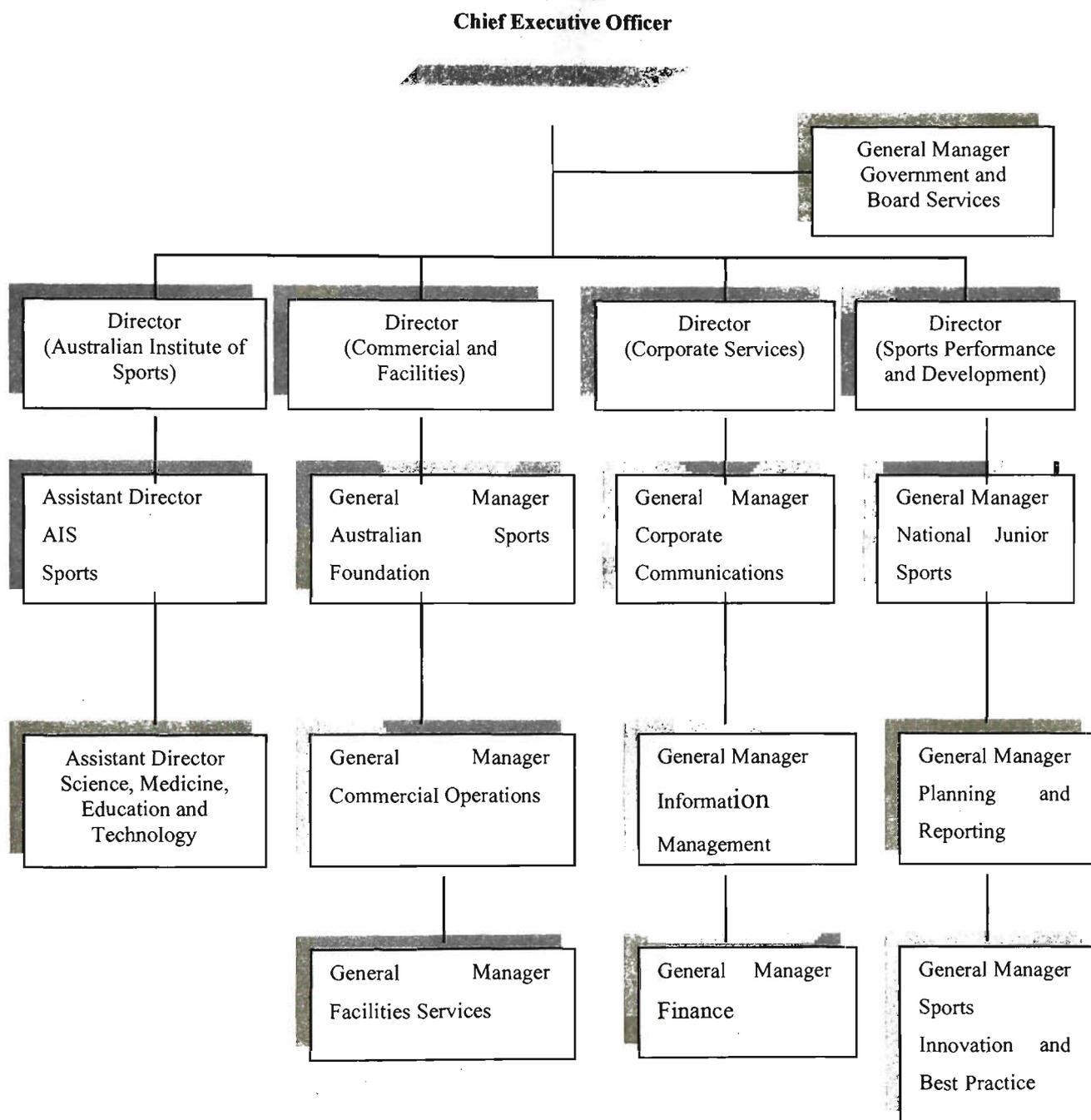
Note 1: Includes a grant of \$50 millions to fund the preparations of Sydney Olympics Games. **Note 2:** Includes additional funding from an Olympic athlete program supported by the Federal government with \$135 million over six years.

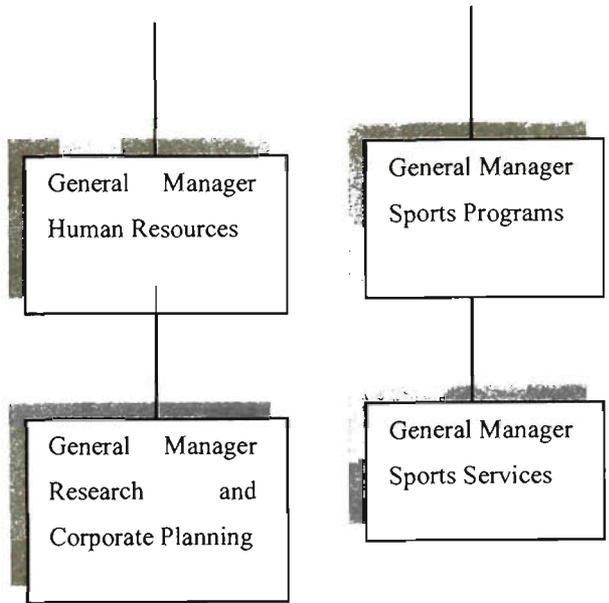
Financial Year	Agency/Department	Expenditure (AUS \$ Millions)
1972-73	Department of Tourism and Recreation	1.2
1973-74	Department of Tourism and Recreation	3.8
1974-75	Department of Tourism and Recreation	8.1
1975-76	Environment, Housing and Community Development	11.4
1976-77	Environment, Housing and Community Development	7.6
1977-78	Environment, Housing and Community Development	5.6
1978-79	Home Affairs	5.8
1989-80	Home Affairs	6.8
1980-81	Home Affairs and Environment	9.0
1981-82	Home Affairs and Environment	13.1
1982-83	Home Affairs and Environment	14.5
1983-84	Sport, Recreation and Tourism	22.5
1984-85	Sport, Recreation and Tourism (inc.\$0.8m. ASC)	41.2
1985-86	Sport, Recreation and Tourism (inc.\$8.7m. ASC)	23.1
1986-87	Sport, Recreation and Tourism (inc.\$9.1m. ASC)	31.9
1987-88	Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories	32.8
1988-89	Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories	30.4
1989-90	Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories	44.9
1990-91	Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories	57.1
1991-92	Environment, Sport and Territories	82.9
1992-93	Environment, Sport and Territories	86.0
1993-94	Environment, Sport and Territories	137.9 ¹
1994-95	Environment, Sport and Territories	159.0 ²
1995-96	Environment, Sport and Territories	139.9 ²
1996-97	Australian Sports Commission	91.320
1997-98	Australian Sports Commission	98.977
1998-99	Australian Sports Commission	106.231
1999-00	Australian Sports Commission	133.144
2000-01	Australian Sports Commission	113.707
2001-02	Australian Sports Commission	145.1
2002-03	Australian Sports Commission	157.0
2003-04	Australian Sports Commission	147.949
2004-05	Australian Sports Commission	170.606
2005-06	Australian Sports Commission	190.526
2006-07	Australian Sports Commission	N/A

Appendix 4

Organisational Chart of the Australian Sports Commission

Source: ASC, *Annual Report, 2005-2006*.





Appendix 5

National Sports Committee Questionnaire, 1967.

This questionnaire is being issued by the national sports committee in an effort to determine the conditions under which games and sports are organized and played in Pakistan and to find out whether it is possible to provide better opportunities to more people and to raise the standards within the available resources. It is not necessary to answer every question but comments and suggestions outside the questionnaire would be equally welcome.

The Role of Sports and Games

- (1) What role do games and sports play in moulding the character of youth, inculcating discipline and improving their health? Presuming that the bulk of our sportsmen come out of the educational institutions, what emphasis should be placed on games and sports and what place should these occupy *vis-à-vis* other curricular and extra-curricular activities?
- (2) What is the dominant interest of youth? Do you have any suggestions as to how the activities of youth should be directed?

(2) Deterioration in Standards

- (1) Do you think that there has been deterioration in the standard of sports and games? If so, in which ones?
- (2) What remedies do you suggest?
- (3) Do you think that sports in the educational institutions are inadequately staffed and equipped? If so, how should they be improved?

(4) What steps should be taken to establish and maintain effective contact between the national sports organizations and educational institutions?

(5) What suggestions would you make for providing incentives for talented sportsmen at all levels such as scholarships and a fee concession scheme for students?

(6) Do you believe that Pakistan should take part in International contests? If, so in which games and sports?

(7) Do you believe that Pakistan can achieve international recognition? If so, in which games?

(8) Should emphasis be laid on achieving International standards or on providing more and better opportunities to more people to take part in games and sports?

(3) Organization and Administration

(1) Are you satisfied with the present organization and administration of the various National Sports Organizations?

(2) Should there be a uniform pattern for all organization throughout the country? If you are not satisfied with either the constitution or the administration of any of these organizations, can you suggest improvement?

(4) Coaching and Training

Are you satisfied with the present facilities for coaching and training? What could be done to improve the standards of coaching and training?

(1) What suggestions have you for talent spotting?

(2) What are the factors, which militate against the development of standards?

(3) Have you any suggestions about coaching centers?

(4) Do you suggest any facilities and incentives for sportsmen and coaches on International standards?

(5) Selection of Contingents for International Contests

(1) Are you satisfied with the selectors and selections of Pakistan contingents, which have gone for International contests during the last few years?

If not what, in your opinion should be the qualifications of a Selector?

(2) Are you satisfied with the selections of the managerial staff appointment for Pakistan contingents in recent years? If not, what in your opinion should be the qualifications of the managerial staff?

(6) Umpires and Referees

(1) Are our Umpires and Referees of International standards? If not, what can be done to improve their standard?

(2) What can be done to disseminate a wider knowledge of the rules of various games?

(3) Should the National Sports Organizations undertake or sponsor our own publications giving explanations and interpretations of Laws and Rules of games and sports?

(7) Stadia, Gymnasia and Playing Fields

(1) Are you satisfied with the present number of Stadia and Gymnasia and their administration?

(2) Are you satisfied with the number and upkeep of playing fields? How can we have more playing fields and how will they be maintained?

(8) Sporting Events

(1) Do we have enough sporting events in the country and in the proper places to generate and keep up interest in games and sports?

(9) Youth Organization

(1) Do you believe in a mass youth organization, which will cater for sporting and cultural activities of the younger generations? If you agree with this, would you comment on how this could be created and financed?

(10) Finance

(1) Do you think that the current level of financial help given by the Central and Provincial Governments and local Bodies is adequate?

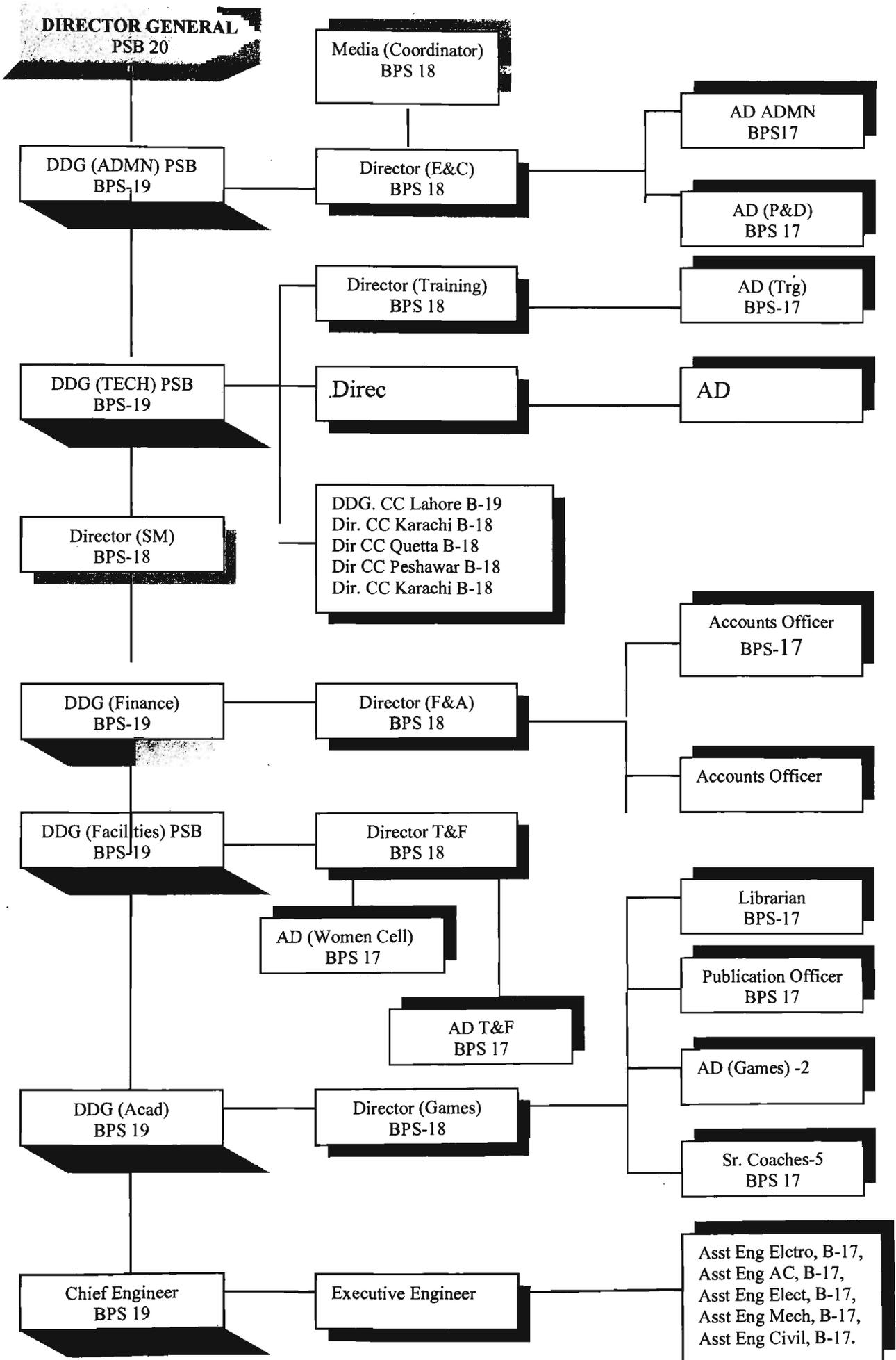
(2) Could you suggest any other means of raising finances?

(3) How would you assess needs as between the various organizations and what do you consider, are the best means of arriving at an equitable assessment of the distributions of present financial resources?

(11) Any Other Comments

Appendix 6

Organisational Chart of the Pakistan Sports Board



Appendix 7

Pakistan Medal Tables

Medals Won by Pakistan in Olympics Games

Sport	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Boxing	-	-	1	1
Hockey	3	3	2	8
Wrestling	-	-	1	1
Total:	3	3	4	10

Medals Won by Pakistan in Asian Games

Sport	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Athletic	14	13	12	39
Boxing	05	16	33	54
Cycling	-	02	01	03
Wrestling	06	15	14	35
Weightlifting	-	01	02	03
Hockey	07	02	02	11
Volleyball	-	-	01	01
Tennis	-	01	02	03
Badminton	-	-	01	01
Equestrian	-	01	-	01
Sailing	05	02	02	09
Kabaddi	-	01	02	03
Rowing	-	-	02	02
Squash	01	01	-	02
Snooker	01	-	02	03
Total:	39	55	76	170

Medals Won by Pakistan in South Asian Federation Games

Sport	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
Athletics	31	29	42	102
Basketball	-	03	-	03
Boxing	40	14	07	61
Football	02	-	01	03
Hockey	-	01	-	01
Kabaddi	01	01	03	05
Rifle Shooting	02	09	06	17
Squash	02	-	01	03
Swimming	04	20	20	44
Table Tennis	03	09	14	26
Tennis	01	02	16	19
Volleyball	02	03	01	06
Weightlifting	39	70	11	120
Wrestling	16	24	09	49
Total:	143	185	131	459

Appendix 8

Operations of the Pakistan Sports Board

Source: PSB

Patron-in-Chief

The President of Pakistan is the Patron-in-Chief of the Board. The Board consists of 76 members.

Executive Committee

The Executive Committee is competent to deal with any matter within the competence of the Board. The Executive Committee consists of the following 21 members, namely a President, Senior Vice President, Vice President, Additional Vice President, Secretary Ministry of Education, Financial Advisor, Director General, PSB (Secretary), President POA, Presidents of six Federations (Athletics, Boxing, Cricket, Hockey, Squash, Sailing), two lady members, and four Members to be nominated by the President (four Provincial Sports Ministers have been nominated by the President of the Board)

Functions of the Board

The following are the functions of the Board;

- To promote and develop standards of national fitness as well as standards of competition, comparable to the international standards.
- To make the public sports conscious and to encourage their participation in the national and international sporting events.

- To affiliate, assist and guide the National Games and Sports Organizations in executing their programs of sports activities.
- To approve budget of the Board.
- To appoint Sub-Committees as and when it thinks fit and their terms of reference.
- To receive any money or financial grants-in-aid from the Federal Government, the provincial governments, local bodies and any statutory or non-statutory corporations or bodies.
- To collect, accept or otherwise receive from any person, body, association or organization, any subscription, donation, assistance or help either in money, land or by transfer in favor of the Board.
- To encourage, promote and undertake all such measures as would assist in the development of sports in Pakistan.
- To manage, improve or otherwise supervise, any property, movable or immovable, with all necessary powers, in the interest of the Board.
- To take, with the approval of the President, such disciplinary action as may be necessary against any National Games and Sports Organization including the amendment or suspension of its Constitution and removal of any of its office bearers in the interest of the games and in order to maintain discipline, provided that the President may, in such cases as he may deem fit, obtain the approval of the Patron-in-Chief of the Board before authorizing action under this clause.
- To give grants-in-aid and subsidies from time to time to the National Games and Sports Organizations affiliated to the Board and deserving sportsmen;

- To construct, develop and maintain the National Stadia, Gymnasias, Sports Training and Coaching Centres, Squash Courts, Golf Courses and other playing fields.
- To consider and approve the affiliation of the National Games and Sports Organizations, International Sports Associations and Federations and the like in consultation with the Pakistan Olympic Association.
- To arrange and secure foreign training facilities and scholarships for Pakistani Coaches, Sports Organizations and sportsmen.
- To sponsor and provide administrative and financial support for exchange of sports teams, coaches, organizers and delegations with various countries at international level;
- To approve awards and scholarships in the field of sports.
- To maintain liaison with international agencies and organizations for sports promotion in Pakistan.
- To make rules and regulations to carry out its objectives.

Administration of the Pakistan Sports Board

The headquarters of the Pakistan Sports Board is at Islamabad and four subordinate offices are at provincial headquarters called PSB Coaching Centers. The strength of PSB (HQ) is 338 officials, PSB Coaching Centre Lahore³⁵, PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi 37, PSB Coaching Centre, Quetta 23, and PSB Coaching Centre Peshawar 20 (Total 453).

Sports Facilities

The facilities are primarily used for the National training camps and holding of various National and International competitions. In addition, they are made available to general public on membership basis.

Pakistan Sports Complex was completed in 1985. After completion, various facilities were added from time to time. The existing facilities are:

Jinnah Stadium	2 Sportspersons Hostels (Men & Women)
Liaquat Gymnasium	Synthetic Athletic Track
Roshan Khan Squash Complex	Football Ground
Swimming Pool Complex.	Sand Volleyball Court
Naseer Bunda Hockey Stadium	Two Basketball Courts (cemented)
Tennis Courts	Mushaf Ali Squash Complex
Rodham Hall	Billiards & Snooker Hall
Hamidi Hall	Boxing Gymnasium (under construction)

PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi

The centre was constructed in 1960 at Sir Shah Suleman Road, covering a total area of 24.8 acres. The facilities available are as follows:

- Multipurpose Gymnasium
- Hostel for 60 Persons
- Synthetic Track (Athletics)
- Football Ground
- Boxing Hall
- Squash Courts (Three)
- Tennis Courts (Two)

PSB Coaching Centre, Lahore

The Centre was constructed during 1962. The following facilities are available;

- Two Mini Halls
- Hostel for 60 persons
- Cycling Velodrome (new Cycling Velodrome will be constructed at the same place).
- Boxing Gymnasium (under construction).

PSB Coaching Centre, Peshawar

The Centre was constructed in 1981. Facilities available are:

- One multipurpose Gymnasium with seating capacity of 2000
- Sportsmen Hostel for 60 persons
- Two Squash Courts with back glass wall - 500 seating capacity
- Mini Hall for practice.

PSB Coaching Centre, Quetta

The project was completed during 1994. The facilities available are: -

- One multipurpose Gymnasium with 2000 seating capacity.
- 2 Squash Courts with 500 seating capacity.
- One Mini Hall for practice.
- Hostel for 60 persons.

Pakistan Olympic Association

- The Pakistan Olympic Association is a subsidiary organization of International Olympic Committee. The main task of the NOC is to develop and protect the Olympic Movement in Pakistan in accordance with the Olympic Charter.
- POA is also responsible to bring athletes to Regional, Asian, Commonwealth and Olympic games.
- POA has its Provincial bodies, which are also responsible to organize biennial Pakistan National Games in rotation.
- POA is totally dependent on PSB for preparation and participation of Pakistan contingents in international competitions.

National Sports Federations

- The basic responsibility of the development of games lies with National Federations, which are supposed to have their branches at Provincial, District, Tehsil and Club levels.
- These Federations are provided annual grants by PSB to meet their day-to-day requirements and special grants for participation in international competitions besides the expenses on national training camps. However, the annual and special grants are too meagre to enable the Federations to carry out their promotional activities.

Provincial Sports Boards

- Provincial Sports Boards are responsible for promoting games in their respective Provinces down to Tehsil level. Some of the Boards are not really effective at the District and Tehsil level. The situation in Punjab is encouraging to certain extent,

whereas, other three Provinces have not been able to establish sports organizations at all the Districts and Tehsils level.

- Provincial Sports Boards draw their grants from their respective Provinces and are expected to distribute them down to District, Tehsil and Provincial Sports Associations.

Pakistan Sports Trust

The Pakistan Sports Trust was established under the Societies Registration Act XXI 1960 with the approval of the Cabinet. The mission of the Pakistan Sports Trust is to encourage and bolster participation and excellence in sports in Pakistan by providing young Pakistani sportsmen and women with everything they need to succeed. This vision looks to build Pakistan's spirit of competition and sportsmanship by encouraging participation in sports through various sporting events and common forums.

The primary aim of the Pakistan Sports Trust is to establish sustainable streams of revenue, so as to meet the needs and requirements of budding athletes throughout the country. The Trust aims to identify rising sports talent, and assist them in the development of their skills by funding their training and participation in sports events.

Appendix 9**Annual Development Budgets of the Pakistan Sports Board, 1993-2007****Annual Development Programme – 1993-94**

	Name of the Project	Allocations	Releases
1	Sports Stadium at Kalat, Sibbi and Mekran.	0.343	0.343
2.	Sports Stadium at Mazafarabad (AK)	0.023	-
3	Sports Stadium at D.I. Khan	0.144	0.144
4	Sports Stadium at Kohat.	0.500	0.500
5	Synthetic Track at NSTCC, Karachi.	15.536	6.990
6	Custom Sports Complex, Karachi.	2.932	2.198
	Total	19.478	9.987

Annual Development Programme – 1994-95

	Name of the Project	Allocation	Release
1.	Sports Stadium at Mansehra	1.129	1.129
2.	Sports Stadium at Sukkar.	0.906	-
3.	Sports Stadium at Khairpur.	0.906	-
4.	Sports Stadium at Nawab Shah.	2.717	2.717
5.	Tennis Courts at NSTCC, Karachi.	0.453	0.340
6.	Swimming Pool at Karachi.	4.528	-
7.	Training Turf for Hockey at Gojra.	9.056	9.056
8.	Tube well at NSTCC, Karachi.	1.162	1.162
9.	Development of Women Sports in Country	4.528	-
	Total	25.385	16.585

Annual Development Programme – 1995-96

	Name of the Project	Allocation	Release
1.	Synthetic Track at Karachi	8.546	3.846
2.	Tube well at NSTCC, Karachi.	0.006	0.006
3.	Sports Stadia at Sibbi, Kalat and Mekran	0.188	0.188
4.	Sports Stadium at Nawab Shah.	3.857	3.857
5.	Tennis Courts at NSTCC, Karachi.	0.047	0.047
6.	Hockey Turf at Gojra.	10.860	10.860
7.	Hockey Turf at Sialkot	15.000	15.000
8.	Hockey Turf at Bannu	15.000	15.000
9.	Hockey Turf at Abbottabad.	15.000	-
10.	Bilawal Stadium at Karachi.	3.000	3.000
11.	Sports Stadium at Gojra,	4.900	-
12.	Sports Stadium at Toba Tek Singh	5.000	-
	Total:	81.404	36.804

Annual Development Programme – 1996-97

	Name of the Project	Allocation	Release
1.	Sports Stadium at Mansehra	2.500	1.875
2.	Sports Stadium at Nawabshah.	5.000	2.500
	Total:	7.500	4.375

Annual Development Programme – 1997-98

	Name of the Project	Allocation	Release
1.	Athletic Track at NSTCC, Karachi.	3.478	3.478
2.	Sports Stadium at Mansehra.	2.118	2.118
3.	Tennis Courts at NSTCC, Karachi.	0.113	0.113
	Total: -	5.709	5.709

Annual Development Programme – 1998-99

	Name of the Project	Allocation	Release
1.	Hockey turf at Gojra.	4.442	-
2.	Hockey turf at Bannu.	4.442	4.842
3.	Score Board at PSC, Islamabad.	78.000	78.000
	Total: -	86.884	82.842

Annual Development Programme – 1999-2000

	<u>Name of project</u>	<u>Allocation</u>	<u>Released</u>
1.	Synthetic Athletic Track at National Sports Training & Coaching Centre, Karachi	1.222	1.222
2.	Hockey Turf at Bannu	2.915	0.071
	Total	4.137	1.293

Annual Development Programme – 2000-2001

	Name of project	Allocation	Releases
1.	Sports Stadium at Mansehra	0.725	0.200
	Total	0.725	0.200

Annual Development Programme – 2001-2002

	Name of Project	Allocation	Released
1.	Sports Stadium at Mansehra	0.525	0.394
2.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sialkot	32.000	-
3.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Abbottabad	32.000	31.987
4.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Karachi	32.000	32.000
5.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Quetta	32.000	32.000
6.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Peshawar	32.000	31.071
7.	Facilities for 9 th SAF Games at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	32.580	32.580
8.	Services Network (Phase-I), Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	06.400	06.400
9.	Installation of AC Plant at Squash Court, Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	12.000	12.000
10.	Construction of Swimming Pool (Phase-II), Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	10.200	10.200
	Total	221.705	188.632

Annual Development Programme – 2002-2003

	Name of Project	Allocation	Releases
1.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sialkot	34.260	34.260
2.	Renovation of NSTCC, Lahore	07.962	07.962
3.	Renovation of NSTCC, Karachi	10.487	10.487
4.	Construction of Sportsmen Hostel (120 Persons) at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	19.295	9.295
5.	Sports Stadium at Gilgit	01.000	-
6.	Sports Stadium at Skardu	01.000	-
	Total	74.004	62.004

Annual Development Programme – 2003-2004

	Name of Project	Allocation	Released
1.	Mini Sports Stadium at Okara	03.458	03.458
2.	Swimming Pool at Quetta	24.792	24.792
3.	Athletic Track/Football Ground at Quetta	23.254	23.254
4.	Mushaf Squash Complex, PSC, Islamabad	30.000	30.000
5.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sialkot	02.168	-
6.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Hyderabad	34.260	34.260
7.	Sports Stadium at Gilgit	01.000	01.000
8.	Sports Stadium at Skardu	01.000	01.000
9.	Sports Complex at Nawabshah	16.000	16.000
10.	Construction of Sportsmen Hostel (120 Persons) at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	10.000	10.000
11.	Synthetic Hockey Turf at PSC, Islamabad	30.610	30.610
12.	Renovation/Upgradation of NSTCC, Peshawar	03.000	03.000
13.	Extension of Abbottabad Squash Complex and Renovation of Existing Courts of Quetta, Peshawar and Rawalpindi	15.000	14.000
14.	Construction of Boxing Gymnasia at Islamabad, Lahore, Karachi, Peshawar and Quetta	01.000	01.000
15.	Ghazi Sports Complex at Sadiqabad District Rahim Yar Khan	20.000	20.000
	Total	215.502	212.374

Annual Development Programme – 2004-05

	Name of project	Allocation	Released
1	Ghazi Sports Complex at Sadiqabad District Rahim Yar Khan.	08.000	08.000
2	Renovation & Up-gradation of NSTCC, Peshawar.	03.801	03.801
3	Extension of Abbottabad Squash Complex and Renovation of Existing Courts of Quetta, Peshawar & Rawalpindi.	16.000	16.000
4	Boxing Gymnasium at Islamabad.	15.000	15.000
5	Boxing Gymnasium at Lahore.	15.000	15.000
6	Boxing Gymnasium at Peshawar.	15.000	15.000
7	Boxing Gymnasium at Quetta.	15.000	15.000
8	Sports Stadium at Skardu.	10.000	10.000
9	Boxing Gymnasium at NSTCC, Karachi.	10.000	10.000
10	Hockey Stadium at Khushab.	19.500	19.500
11	Sports Stadium at Curtus Ground Haripur.	07.044	07.044
12	Sports Complex at Mardan.	05.136	05.136
13	Sports Stadium at Chakwal.	19.000	19.000
14	Sports Complex at Thatta.	07.000	07.000
15	Sports Complex at Badin.	11.334	11.334
16	Tennis Court and Hockey Ground -Peshawar.	02.000	2.000
17	Sports Stadium - Charsadda.	02.000	02.000
18	Facilities in Qazi Mohib Hockey stadium at Bannu	02.000	02.000
19	Sports Stadium at District Lakki Marwat.	02.000	02.000
20	Playground at Hangu.	02.000	02.000
21	Sports Stadium at Jhang.	04.049	04.049
22	Sports Stadium at Lodhran	04.000	04.000
23	Football Stadium at Kharan	03.000	03.000
24	Football Stadium at Pashin	02.000	02.000
25	Synthetic Track Football Ground at Quetta. (PM's Directive)	0 9.196	09.196
	Total	209.060	209.060

Annual Development Programme – 2005-06

	Name of Project	Allocation	Released
1	Ghazi Sports Complex at Sadiqabad, Rahim Yar Khan.	11.000	11.000
2	Boxing Gymnasium at Islamabad.	13.895	13.895
3	Boxing Gymnasium at Lahore.	24.595	24.595
4	Boxing Gymnasium at Peshawar.	16.095	16.095
5	Boxing Gymnasium at Quetta.	24.595	24.595
6	Boxing Gymnasium at Karachi.	24.595	24.595
7	Sports Stadium at Jhang.	15.851	15.851
8	Sports Stadium at Lodhran	07.534	07.534
9	Old Terminal Building into world class Sports Complex	06.000	06.000
10	Synthetic Hockey turf at Khushab.	28.865	28.865
11	Sports Complex at Sialkot.	10.000	10.000
12	Sports Stadium at Curtus Ground Haripur.	07.000	07.000
13	Sports Complex at Mardan.	25.136	25.136
14	Tennis Court and Hockey Ground at Peshawar.	02.600	02.600
15	Sports Stadium at Charsadda.	06.928	06.928
16	Facilities in Qazi Mohib Hockey stadium at Bannu	06.000	06.000
17	Sports Stadium at Lakki Marwat.	06.980	06.980
18	Playground at Hangu.	04.492	04.492
19	Football Stadium at Kharan	02.681	02.681
20	Football Stadium at Pashin	03.681	03.681
21	Repair & Renovation of PSB Coaching Centre, Quetta.	09.557	09.557
22	Sports Complex at Thatta.	21.000	21.000
23	Sports Complex at Badin.	22.000	22.000
24	Sports Stadium at Skardu.	04.980	04.980
25	Synthetic Hockey Turf at Rawalakot.	04.393	04.393
26	Sports Stadium at Nowshera.	03.000	03.000
27	Cycling Velodrome at PSB Coaching Centre, Lahore.	07.620	07.620
28	Sports Stadium at Dir.	02.000	02.000
29	Sports Stadium at Tehsil Patoki District Kasur	03.000	03.000
30	Sports Stadium at Tehsil Chunian District Kasur	02.000	02.000
31	One Wrestling Hall & Renovation/Upgradation of existing weightlifting Hall at Gujranwala	01.000	01.000
	Total:	329.073	329.073

Annual Development Programme – 2006-07

	Name of Project	Allocation	Released
1.	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Islamabad (President's Directive)	10.000	10.000
2.	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Karachi (President's Directive)	05.000	05.000
3.	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Peshawar (President's Directive)	08.500	08.500
4.	Construction of Sports Stadium at Skardu.	13.234	03.500
5.	Construction of Sports Stadium at Jhang.	0.090	0.090
6.	Construction of Sports Complex at Sialkot.	17.632	00.090
7.	Construction of Sports Stadium at Nowshera. (Prime Minister's Announcement)	03.500	-
8.	Construction of one Wrestling Hall & Renovation/ Upgradation of Existing Weightlifting Hall at Gujranwala.	04.675	04.675
9.	Construction of Sports Stadium at Dir.	04.114	04.114
10	Construction of Sports Stadium at Tehsil Patoki District Kasur.	04.000	-
11	Construction of Sports Stadium at Tehsil Chunian District Kasur.	03.000	03.000
12	Construction of Sports Stadium, Phase-II, Mingora, Swat	09.832	09.832
13	Construction of Baseball Stadium at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad.	07.662	05.988
14	Establishment of Sports Medicine Centre at Pakistan Sports Board, Islamabad	10.000	10.000
15	Improvement of Malam Jabba Ski Slope at Malam Jabba, District Swat	05.000	05.000
16	Special Repair & Roof Treatment of Liaquat Gymnasium at PSC, Islamabad	05.899	05.899
17	Construction of Players Hostel at PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi	10.000	10.000
18	Laying of Hockey Turf at Swat (Prime Minister's Directive)	22.500	-
19	Laying of Hockey Turf at Sargodha. (Prime Minister's Directive)	20.000	20.000
20	Laying of Hockey Turf at Sibi (Prime Minister's Directive)	20.000	10.000
21	Laying of Hockey Turf at Gilgit (Prime Minister's Directive)	20.000	20.000
22	Repair and Renovation of Hockey Club of Pakistan Stadium, Karachi. (Prime Minister's Directive)	06.500	-
23	Construction of Sports Stadium at Taxila (Prime Minister's Directive)	10.000	-
24	Construction of Gymnasium Hall at Bahawalpur	07.500	-
25	Construction of Gymnasium Hall at Sialkot	05.000	-

	Name of Project	Allocation	Released
26	Construction of Sports Stadium at Tando Adam District Sanghar	07.927	-
27	Construction of Gymnasium Hall at Bahawalnagar	03.600	-
28	Construction of Sports Stadium at Saidu Sharif District Swat (Prime Minister's Directive)	05.000	05.000
29	Construction of Sports Complex at Mianwali	10.000	10.000
30	Construction of Practicing Hall at PSB Coaching Centre, Quetta	0.998	0.998
31	Construction of Boundary Wall at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	01.137	01.137
32	Construction of Staff Residential Flats at PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi	01.832	01.832
33	Construction of Sports Stadium at Shahkot District Nankana Sahib	10.000	10.000
34	Construction of Sports Stadium at Nankana Sahib	05.000	05.000
35	Up-gradation of Municipal Stadium at Sangla Hill and Construction of Hockey Ground at Bhulair Chak 119 District Nankana Sahib	05.365	05.365
36	Construction of Staff Residential Flats at Pakistan Sports Board, Islamabad	06.328	03.5000
37	Construction of Ghazi Sports Complex at Sadiqabad District Rahim Yar Khan	0.988	0.988
38	Construction of Football Ground at Civil Quarters, Peshawar	02.168	02.168
39	Construction of Stadium at Curtus Ground Haripur	05.641	-
40	Provision of External Services Network at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	02.000	02.000
41	Provision of Facilities at Qazi Mohib Hockey Stadium at Bannu	02.621	-
42	Establishment of Planning and Monitoring Cell (PMC)	03.000	-
43	Construction of Vehicle Shed, Chowkidar room with bath, grassing lawn and payment of driveway, Squash Courts, Ayub Stadium, Quetta	01.050	01.050
44	Construction of Wrestling Arena at Iqbal Park, Lahore	03.785	-
45	Construction of Malakhra Stadium at Sehwan Sharif, Dadu.	03.000	03.000
46	Construction of Sports Complex at Mardan	20.000	20.000
47	Replacement of existing Swimming Pool of Islamabad Club, Islamabad	30.000	30.000
	Total	365.078	237.726

Appendix 10**Proposed Development Budget Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2007-08:
Ongoing Projects**

Source: PSB

S. No.	Name of Project	Approved Cost	Allocation
1	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Islamabad (President's directive)	39.895	10.000
2	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Lahore (President's directive)	39.595	10.000
3	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Quetta (President's directive)	39.595	10.000
4	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Peshawar (President's directive)	39.595	10.000
5	Construction of Boxing Gymnasium at Karachi (President's directive)	39.595	10.000
6	Construction of Sports Stadium at Nowshera (President's Announcement)	16.996	10.496
7	Improvement of Malam Jabba Ski Slope at Malam Jabba, District Swat	12.905	7.905
8	Establishment of Sports Medicine Centre at Pakistan Sports Board, Islamabad	39.543	15.000
9	Construction of Players Hostel at PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi	13.294	3.294
10	Laying of Hockey Turf at Swat (Prime Minister's Directive)	35.043	15.043
11	Laying of Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sargodha. (Prime Minister's Directive)	35.101	15.101
12	Laying of Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sibi (Prime Minister's Directive)	35.101	15.101
13	Laying of Synthetic Hockey Turf at Gilgit (Prime Minister's Directive)	35.807	15.807
14	Construction of Sports Stadium at Taxila (Prime Minister's Directive)	32.018	5.000
15	Construction of Sports Stadium at Patuki District Kasur	14.500	7.500
16	Construction of Sports Stadium at Chunian District Kasur	12.260	7.260
17	Construction of Gymnasium Hall at Sialkot	21.053	11.053
18	Construction of Gymnasium Hall at Bahawalnagar	11.270	4.670
19	Construction of Sports Stadium at Saidu Sharif District Swat (Prime Minister's Directive)	5.000	1.400
20	Construction of Sports Stadium at Tando Adam District Sanghar	10.427	2.500

21	Construction of Sports Hall at Bahawalpur	21.924	14.424
22	Construction of Sports Complex at Mianwali	20.000	10.000
23	Construction of Boundary Wall at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	12.535	6.035
24	Construction of Staff Residential Flats at PSB Coaching Centre, Karachi	13.034	8.689
25	Construction of Sports Stadium at Shahkot District Nankana Sahib	20.958	10.958
26	Construction of Sports Stadium at Nankana Sahib	20.237	10.237
27	Upgradation of Municipal Stadium at Sangla Hill and Construction of Hockey Ground at Bhulair Chak 19 District Nankana Sahib	5.470	0.261
28	Construction of Ghazi Sports Complex at Sadiqabad District Rahim Yar Khan	39.988	0.988
29	Construction of Staff Residential Flats at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	12.535	9.035
30	Construction of Players Hostel at PSB Coaching Centre, Lahore	34.772	10.000
31	Construction of Planning and Monitoring Cell (PMC)	18.907	8.000
32	Provision of External Services Network (Phase-II) at Pakistan Sports Complex, Islamabad	13.011	5.000
33	Provision of Facilities at Qazi Mohib Hockey Stadium at Bannu	12.621	2.000
34	Construction of Wrestling Arena at Iqbal Park, Lahore	33.641	10.950
35	Construction of Malakhra Stadium at Sehwan Sharif, District Dadu	22.000	10.000
	Total (On-going projects)	830.226	303.707

Appendix 11

Proposed Development Budget Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2007-08: New Projects

Source: PSB

S.No.	Name of Project and Province	Approved Cost	Allocation
	Sindh		
1	Laying of Synthetic Hockey Turf at Sukkur (Prime Minister's Directive)	35.079	20.000
	NWFP		
2	Construction of Boundary Wall/Shed of Graveyard & Playground in District Hangu	1.000	1.000
	PUNJAB		
3	Construction of Sports Stadium-cum-Children Park, Pasrur	15.000	8.060
4	Provision for Sports Projects to be prepared during the year	200.000	190.000
	Total of New Projects	251.079	219.060

Appendix 12

Growth of Commonwealth Games

Source: ASC

Year	Host City-Country	Participating Countries	Sports	Events Contested	Athletes
1930	Hamilton, Canada	11	6	59	400
1934	London, England	16	6	68	500
1938	Sydney, Australia	15	7	71	464
1950	Auckland, New Zealand	12	9	88	590
1954	Vancouver, Canada	24	9	91	662
1958	Cardiff, Wales	35	9	94	1122
1962	Perth, Australia	35	9	104	863
1966	Kingston, Jamaica	34	9	110	1050
1970	Edinburgh, Scotland	42	9	121	1383
1974	Christchurch, New Zealand	38	9	121	1276
1978	Edmonton, Canada	46	10	128	1474
1982	Brisbane, Australia	46	10	142	1583
1986	Edinburgh, Scotland	26	10	163	1662
1990	Auckland, New Zealand	55	10	204	2073
1994	Victoria, Canada	63	10	217	2557
1998	Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	70	15	213	3633
2002	Manchester, England	72	17	281	3679
2006	Melbourne, Australia	71	16	245	4049
2010	Delhi, India	71	17		

Appendix 13

Interview Questions

1) Sample Interview Questions for Government Officials and Sports Administrators

- (a) Name
- (b) Date of birth
- (c) When did you first begin your involvement in Pakistan's sports? (Past position)
- (d) What has been your involvement in Pakistan's sports? (Current Position)
- (e) What are your views about the level of government support for sport in Pakistan?
- (f) What difficulties/hurdles have you faced in the performance of your duties?
- (g) What political influences and developments have had an impact on your organisation?
- (h) Are you satisfied with the facilities provided for elite athletes in Pakistan?
- (i) Have new policies related to the development of sport been developed during your term of office?
- (j) Were there any significant hurdles in creating or administering these policies?
- (k) Have you been satisfied with the media coverage of particular sports in Pakistan?
- (l) Is the level of funding adequate for your operations?
- (m) Are you satisfied with relationship between the Pakistan Sports Board (PSB) and Pakistan Olympic Association (POA)?
- (n) Are you satisfied with the relationship between the PSB and the National Sport Federations?
- (o) Describe the relationship of the PSB with educational institutions regarding the promotion of games and sports?
- (p) What has been the relationship of the federal government with local sports bodies and clubs?
- (q) Describe any programs that exist which involve mass participation regarding fitness/sports in Pakistan?

- (r) What sources of funding do they have?
- (s) Are the persons employed in your organisation suitably qualified?
- (t) Have you had any direct role in employing personnel for PSB?

2) Interview Questions for Sportsmen/Sportswomen

- (a) Name
- (b) Present Occupation
- (c) Participation Year
- (d) Event
- (e) National standing
- (f) International Participation
- (g) What was the Government contribution/incentive toward sports in your period of participation?
- (h) What type of facilities did the Government provide?
- (i) Were you satisfied with boarding and lodging facilities at that time?
- (j) Were you provided with any weight training facility or other sport technology at that time?
- (k) Were you satisfied with the organization of national competitions in Pakistan?
- (l) Have you ever had access to any laboratory facilities?
- (m) Have you ever consulted any diet expert or other sports scientist at that time?
- (n) What was daily allowance at that time for a sportsmen/women?

3) Interview Questions for Media

- (a) Name
- (b) Present position in Media
- (c) Past experience in Media
- (d) When did you first begin your involvement in sports media?
- (e) What has been your involvement in media coverage of Pakistan Sports Board related matters/ events?

- (f) What difficulties have you faced while covering Pakistan's sports?
- (g) What facilities are you provided with to cover different sporting events in Pakistan?
- (h) Have you any experience of coverage of an international event?
- (i) Is it easy to get an international exposure or coverage of an event in Pakistan?
- (j) What is your sports background?
- (k) Are you satisfied with the information provided to you by different sports related departments?
- (l) Do you receive information well in time for any coming event?
- (m) What problems did you face when you do not receive information of an event well in time?
- (n) What is your opinion about the Pakistan Sports Board?
- (o) What is your opinion about the Pakistan Olympic Association?
- (p) What is your opinion about the relationship between the POA and the PSB?
- (q) What is your opinion about the relationship between the NSFs and the PSB?
- (r) Are you satisfied with Government policies relating to sports in the past and the present?
- (s) What should be five basic steps for promotion of sports in Pakistan in your opinion?

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Table 5e: PSB Administration and Maintenance Expenses, 1980-81 – 1989-90.

Table 5f: PSB Annual and Special Grants to National Sports Federations, 1980-81 – 1989-90.

Table 5g: PSB Expenditure on Training and Coaching, 1980-81 – 1989-90.

Table 5h: Annual and Special Grants from the PSB to National Sports Federations, 1990-91 - 2000-01.

Table 5i: PSB Coaching and Training Expenses, 1990-91 – 2000-01.

Table 5j: PSB Administration and Maintenance Expenses, 1990-91 - 2000-01.

Table 5k: Total Budgetary Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2000/01 – 2007-08.

Table 5l: Total Budgetary Allocation of the Pakistan Sports Board, 2000-01 – 2007-08.

Table 5m: PSB Annual Special Grants to National Sport Federations, 2000/01 – 2007/08.

Table 5n: PSB Administration Expenses, 2000/01 – 2007/08.

Table 5o: PSB Expenditure for Coaching and Training, 2000-01 – 2007/08.

Table 5p: Members of the Task Force Overseeing the Implementation Strategy of the National Sports Policy.