CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

It would be very difficult to imagine life without sport. Sport has permeated other aspects of our lives including education, economics, politics and international diplomacy (Kenyon & Loy, 1969). Sport is not only conceptualised in terms of diverse components such as region, class, gender, religion, age and ethnicity but it is also in constant flux (Riordan, 1999). Sport is very much a part of culture. Frederickson (1969) considers it as a product of culture. According to Reid (1986) sport is part of man’s cultural heritage, and also helps to prepare man to make the best of what education has to offer. As MacClancy (1996) states:

Sports, in sum, may be used to fulfil a plethora of functions: to define more sharply the already established boundaries of moral and political communities; to assist in the creation of new social identities; to give physical expression to certain social values and to act as a means of reflecting on those values; to serve as potentially contested space by opposed groups. (p. 7)

Malaysia is a sport-loving nation. Malaysians are known to be good sports hosts, participants and spectators. In recent years, the country has hosted world class sporting events, including the Commonwealth Games (1998), the biggest cycling event in Asia le Tour de Langkawi (since 1996), the Petronas Malaysia Formula One Grand Prix (since 1999), the World Cup Golf tournament as well as the badminton Thomas-Uber Cup (2000), the 21st South East Asian Games and the final round of the World Cup Track Cycling Championships (2001). Prior to this, Malaysia has also successfully hosted the 1975 World Cup Hockey Tournament, 1989 South East Asian
Games, the 1989 World Youth Hockey Tournament, the 1989 World Squash Open, the 1990 International Professional Tennis Tournaments, the 1990 World Cup Badminton, the 1990 World Youth Basketball Championships and the 1990 Professional Golf Association Championships.

Malaysia as Sports Host

It is generally acknowledged that Malaysia is excellent at hosting games and sports, for example, Malaysia has received accolades for hosting the 1998 Commonwealth Games. The chief of the Commonwealth Games Federation, Michael Fennell ("It's still worth all the trouble", 1998) and the Australian Sport Commission executive director, Jim Ferguson ("Games a success, say Aussies", 1998) declared the Games a major success.

Malaysia was also praised for hosting the Petronas Malaysia Formula One Grand Prix. The president of Britain's Motorsport Industries Association, Lord Astor of Hever, commented that the Formula One track in Sepang was one of the best in the world (Shamsul Yunus, 1998). The event has been memorable in many ways. At the 2000 Petronas Malaysia Formula One Grand Prix in Sepang, Michael Schumacher won Ferrari's second constructor's title, giving Ferrari its first double in 21 years ("Sepang, Malaysia winners too", 2000). According to Malaysian Prime Minister, Dr Mahathir Mohamad, the country could have earned as much as RM1 billion from the event. Malaysian national oil corporation, Petronas, became the main and technical sponsor for the Red Bull Sauber Petronas Formula One team from 1996 ("Counting down to Sepang '99", 1998). In 2000, the team finished the constructor's
championship in eighth position ("Sauber-Petronas end season without a point", 2000).

When Malaysia hosts sporting events, Malaysians offer themselves as volunteers. During the 1998 Commonwealth Games in Kuala Lumpur, a total of 50,000 people signed up as volunteers although only 16,800 were chosen for training (Hew, 1998).

Malaysia has proven its ability to host international events and is scheduled to host future events, including the hockey World Cup in 2002. Malaysia is the only country to be given the honour of hosting the event twice. Malaysia also made bids for the 2006 Asian Games as well as the 2008 Olympic Games. However, the city of Doha (Qatar) was awarded the privilege of hosting the 2006 Asian Games. For the 2008 Olympic Games, Malaysia was not short-listed among the final five bids. Sport for athletes with disabilities is also not forgotten as Malaysia hosted the first ASEAN Para Games in 2001 and will be hosting the 2006 Far East and South Pacific Games for the Disabled.

**Malaysia as Participants**

Malaysia has had mixed fortunes as participants in sport. Malaysia first took part in the Olympics in 1956 after the Federation of Malaya Olympic Council was formed in 1953. However Malaysia did not win its first medals until badminton was included as an Olympic sport. In the 1996 Games in Atlanta, Rashid Sidek won the bronze medal in the men's singles while Cheah Soon Kit and Yap Kim Hock won the silver medal in the men's doubles.
Malaysia's first participation in the British Empire (now Commonwealth) Games in 1950 could be considered the most successful as all four weightlifters won medals (2 gold, 1 silver and 1 bronze). Up until the 1994 Games, Malaysia had only won medals in weightlifting and badminton. However when Kuala Lumpur hosted the Games in 1998, Malaysia won a total of 10 gold, 14 silver and 12 bronze medals. The gold medals came from bowling (men’s singles and doubles), shooting (women’s air rifle), weightlifting, badminton, athletics (men’s 50km walk), boxing and rhythmic gymnastics. This greatly exceeded the 2 gold, 3 silver and 2 bronze medals won at the 1994 Games (S. Navalan, 1998).

Malaysia's success in the Asian Games has also been modest. Since Malaysia first took part in 1954, the country has won only a total of 28 gold medals. The 1966 results are noteworthy as Malaysia secured 5 gold medals in athletics. Malaysia’s haul of 5 gold, 10 silver and 14 bronze medals at the 1998 Asian Games was the best since then (S. Navalan, 1998).

A sport that Malaysians have excelled in is badminton. Malaya was the first winner of the Thomas Cup in 1949 and retained the cup in 1952 and 1955. Malaysia regained the Cup twice after that, in 1967 and 1992. Malaysia has also achieved success in the All England Badminton Championships. The country’s first title in the Championship was in the doubles through Ooi Teik Hock and Teoh Seng Khoon in 1949. Wong Peng Soon was the singles champion from 1950 to 1952 and again in 1955. Also noteworthy is the feat of Eddy Choong, who won the singles crown four times in 1952, 1953, 1956 and 1957. He was also a doubles champion with his brother David from 1951 till 1953. In the World Grand Prix, Malaysia won the men’s singles

Men’s hockey has also achieved world standard. The Malaysian men’s hockey team has qualified for every Olympics from 1954 until 2000, except the 1960 and 1988 Games. Important successes include finishing fourth in the 1975 World Cup and second behind Australia in the 1998 Commonwealth Games. Malaysia took fourth place in the Junior World Cup in 1989.

Comparatively newer sports in Malaysia, such as squash, tenpin bowling and lawn bowls have gained popularity among Malaysians. These are also sports that are bringing national glory; for example, Nicol David is the current world junior squash champion. Another squash player, Ong Beng Hee won the men’s title at the World Junior Squash Championships in 1998 and is currently ranked 7th in the world as a senior. In tenpin bowling, Shalin Zulkifli finished second in the 1996 World Cup competition in Belfast and third the following two years (Cairo in 1997 and Kobe in 1998). Alex Liew won the men’s Masters title while Shalin Zulkifli won the women’s singles title at the Federation International des Quilleurs World Youth Championship in Seoul in 1998 (S. Navalan, 1998). Among the accomplishments of the national lawn bowls team was being ranked ninth in the women’s category and eleventh in the men’s category of the 2000 World Bowls Championship in Moama, Australia. The national team was the overall champion in the 2001 Asian Championship in Hong Kong.

Malaysians as Sports Spectators

Whenever Malaysia hosts an international event, the whole nation is caught up in the excitement. Attendance at these events is high, especially when the national
team takes part. During the 1998 Commonwealth Games in Kuala Lumpur, the
matches where the Malaysian men's hockey team was playing had a full or almost fuli
house. The income from such events is used to further illustrate sports attendance. For
example, during the 1998 Commonwealth Games in Kuala Lumpur, a total of 710,197
tickets were sold, bringing in RM38,335,098 (Hong, 1998).

In addition to following the local sport scene, Malaysians follow overseas
sports events, especially in athletics, basketball, soccer, tennis, hockey, golf,
badminton and squash. Popular events are broadcast and covered in the local
newspapers. A perusal of the television guide shows that there is daily at least one
sport programme. There are live and delayed broadcasts of popular competitions
including the English Premier League football, Tiger Cup, Thomas Cup, Wimbledon,
World Wrestling Federation and Formula One. In addition to that there are also
programmes which highlight sporting events throughout the world, such as Sports
Diary, Sports Arena, Sports World and Sports Talk broadcast over the government
television station, RTM, as well as Gillette's World of Sports over a private television
station, NTV7. The print media also have an extensive coverage of sport. The sport
section in the local newspapers takes up about eight pages of the average 40 pages of
the main paper, which includes local, foreign and business news but excludes the
entertainment and feature sections. According to Douglas (1989), the Malaysian mass
media coverage of sport seems to be "extra thorough" (p. 169). However this is not
necessarily positive as reports could at times be more destructive than constructive.

Other evidence of Malaysians' support for sport is the fan clubs in support of
foreign teams such as the Manchester United Football Club, Liverpool Football Club
and the Ferrari Fan Club. There are even Manchester United Football Club stores that exclusively sell the club’s souvenirs.

**History of Sport in Malaysia**

Malaysians’ passion for sport goes back a long way. Brown (1970) mentioned several games that were played during the 15th century. They were *sepak raga* (a game where a group of four or five players keep a rattan ball in the air for as long as possible using all parts of the body except the hands), *chuki* (a board game that resembles chess) and cock-fighting. These games were played by the Malays, who are the indigenous people of Malaysia.

Rural Malays, who tilled the soil, mixed work with play. Many Malays were padi farmers, others were fishermen. Padi fields were the venue for recreational activities as well as being a source of income (Abdul Rahim Ahmad, 1987). After the harvest, the wide open fields were ideal for kite-flying. In urbanised Malaysia, this recreational activity has since become a competitive event, where competitors try to fly their kites, known as *wau*, higher and keep them up longer. Another popular past-time was *gasing* (top-spinning). There are two versions of this game. The first version is a competition between two teams of four to seven players in each team. A circle is used as a boundary and one team spins its tops within the circle. The object is for the other team to eliminate the tops in the circle by knocking them down or moving them outside the circle. The other version is an individual competition between two or more players. The object of the game is to see whose top spins the longest. In this competition tops of various sizes and designs are used. In the east coast of Peninsular
Malaysia, water festivals were held after the rice season. These festivals included dances and boat racing.

During the period of colonial rule, 1786 – 1957 (December 1941 until August 1945 Japanese interregnum), the British imported modern sports such as golf, polo, rugby, cricket, tennis, football, and hockey. In the beginning, these games, with the exception of football, were the privilege of the elite, including the Malay royal family, English-educated Chinese mining tycoons and merchants. These sports gained popularity only when they were part of the English school programme by the second half of the 19th century. According to Douglas (1989), school sport programmes were developed under colonial policy. However, initially only the local elite were given the opportunity of an English education, where schools emphasised fair play, loyalty, cooperation and class. In this way, sport was used to disseminate Western values as well as obtain the co-operation of members of the local elite (Douglas, 1989). This education enabled them to be government clerks and low officials (Andaya & Andaya, 1982).

The British found that they could build good relations with the locals through playing sports in the community (Holt, 1989). During the last two decades of the 19th century, British officials in Malaya encouraged the local population to participate in sports and by the early 20th century, sports had a large following in the country (Khoo, 1989). Many towns around the country held league competitions. The most popular sport for the masses was football as it required only a ball and some open space. Fields were made available in all towns and government schools. Football was even popular in remote Malay kampongs (villages) and the game's popularity among the Malays remains till today.
Badminton proved to be very popular among the Malaysians after World War I and it soon rivalled football in popularity. Today, Malaysians of all races still enjoy these two sports. According to Douglas (1989), in its own way each is the national sport.

According to Andaya and Andaya (1982), the Chinese came to Malaysia mainly to work in the colonial economy from the late 18\textsuperscript{th} century. In the 19\textsuperscript{th} century, they were mostly involved in tin mining and plantation agriculture. Chinese immigrants to Malaya participated enthusiastically in basketball, table tennis and volleyball (National Museum, 1979). Teachers from mainland China who taught at Chinese vernacular schools (which drew political inspiration from China) promoted these games in schools. Indoor games were popular because most Chinese schools had no playing field. Khoo (1989) noted that basketball eventually became the premier game in Chinese middle schools.

Transcending nationality, sex, age, social status, geography and political ideology, sport has the potential to unite wider sections of the population. According to Riordan (1977), this is because of its "inherent qualities of being easily understood and enjoyed, being capable of generating mass enthusiasm" (p. 7). This is especially important in multi-cultural, multi-racial and multi-religious Malaysia, where three main races (Malays, Chinese and Indians) live together in harmony. The mid-year population for 2000 estimated that out of 21,552,400 Malaysians, 62.8\% were Bumiputera (out of which 50.8\% were Malays and 12\% other Bumiputera), 26.3\% Chinese, 7.4\% Indians and 3.5\% others (Department of Statistics, Malaysia, 2000).

From colonial times, each race has contributed a unique dimension to Malaysia in terms of language, customs, values, beliefs and lifestyle (Aziz Deraman, 1984). A
unifying force was needed to unite Malaysians after gaining independence from the British in 1957. According to MacClancy (1996), sport, has amongst other functions, the ability to assist in creating a sense of identity for newly independent states. Sugden and Bairner (1993) mentioned that the superpower strategy of associating sporting success with national pride has also benefited developing countries. They further argued that in the post-colonial era newly independent states have used sport to create a sense of national identity.

Each country's involvement in sport has developed in its own economic, social and political climate (Bedecki, 1986). According to Khoo (1989), in the case of pre-1957 Malaya/Malaysia, the colonial government was rarely involved in the public promotion of sport. However, this lack of overt political action changed after independence: the first Prime Minister of Malaya/Malaysia, Tunku Abdul Rahman, was a sport enthusiast and was popularly known as the "sporting prince". In conjunction with the country's independence in 1957, he built Stadium Merdeka and initiated the Merdeka Soccer Festival, an international competition (Khoo, 1989). Tunku Abdul Rahman and his successor, Tun Abdul Razak, established sport as a means of unity and solidarity in the country (Dawson, 1975). Tun Abdul Razak was the President of the Federation of Malaya Olympic Council and later the Olympic Council of Malaysia from 1959 till his death in 1976.

Since independence the Malaysian government has been increasingly involved in the organisation and promotion of sport. According to Bedecki (1986), the main reason for the government's increased interest in sport is its conviction that international sport is a means of "promoting an international image, understanding, and prestige" (p. 147). The Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports was established on
national agenda. The National Sports Policy (1988) states that sport is as important as other social areas of development such as education, transport, housing and health in nation building. This stress can also be inferred from the emphasis the government has put on sport. Foreign coaches were hired for national teams; allowances were paid to athletes during training; sports schools were built; state of the art facilities were constructed and sports activities supported by the government. According to the National Sports Council 2000 Annual Report, there are currently 130 foreign coaches in the country. These are in addition to the 19 foreign specialists such as therapists, trainers and masseurs. There are currently two sports schools in the country. The Bukit Jalil Sports School, set up in 1996, is next to the Kuala Lumpur Commonwealth Games stadium. The Bandar Penawar Sports School, set up in 1998, is in the southern state of Peninsula Malaysia, viz. Johore. Another sports school is planned for the East Malaysian state of Sarawak. The government spends considerable sums of money to train athletes; for example, RM129 million was spent on training the athletes for the 1998 Commonwealth Games (S. Navalan, 1998). According to its 1998 Annual Report, that year the National Sports Council spent RM4,377,987.50 on reward schemes for excellence in athletic performance, coaching and management. However, sport expenditure is not limited to the government. The Prime Minister of Malaysia, Dr. Mahathir Mohamed, launched the Rakan Sukan (Sports Friends) programme in 1994. This 5-year plan tied a corporate sponsor to a sport (see Appendix B). The money from the corporate sponsor was used in developing the particular sport, managing the sports association and organising competitions. By the end of the 5-year plan in 1999, a total of RM47.3 million was given to sports associations.

Sport in the National Agenda

National development in Malaysia is broken into 5-year planning modules. These plans, which are known as the Malaysia Plans, started in 1966. Based on the allocation given to the focus areas, it is possible to investigate the programme priorities of the various Malaysia Plans. The allocation for sport under the 5-year Malaysia Plans is given in Table 1 below.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Allocation for sports (RM million)</th>
<th>Allocation for culture, youth and sports (RM million)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Malaysia Plan (1966 – 1970)</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>6.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Malaysia Plan (1971 – 1975)</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>24.29</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fourth Malaysia Plan (1981 – 1985)</td>
<td>71.29</td>
<td>103.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986 – 1990)</td>
<td>94.74</td>
<td>110.76 *a</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991 – 1995)</td>
<td>291.3</td>
<td>502 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996 – 2000)</td>
<td>997.6</td>
<td>2393.7 *b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Note. *a Excludes allocation for youth training centres; *b This total is the sum of the allocation for youth, culture as well as community and family development as the allocation for youth was included under community and family development. From Malaysia Plan and Mid-term review of the Malaysia Plan for the plans cited.

As culture, youth and sports were initially under the same ministry, their budget was grouped together as an item under the social and community services
sector together with housing, major sewerage services, fire services, community services, welfare and aborigines. During the First Malaysia Plan (1966-1970), culture, youth and sports was originally allocated RM12.4 million (First Malaysia Plan 1966-1970, 1965). This figure was approximately 0.3% of the total development expenditure. However, as culture, youth and sports was one of the lower priority areas for development at that time, the amount was reduced to RM6.52 million (the total budget for the First Malaysia Plan was reduced from RM4,550.9 million to RM3,838.228 million) during the mid-term review (Mid-term review of the First Malaysia Plan 1966-1970, 1969). The government’s priority was to develop youth activities to foster creative thinking, interest in arts and culture, community co-operation and youth leadership. Multi-purpose centres were built in various states for training and coaching courses.

Sports was expended during the Second Malaysia Plan (1971-1975), when the emphasis was still on youth development (Second Malaysia Plan 1971-1975, 1971). However, sports facilities were constructed and youth sports activities were encouraged. The allocation for culture, youth and sports was RM24.29 million (Mid-term review of the Second Malaysia Plan 1971-1975, 1973). From that total, sports was allotted RM7.29 million (Fourth Malaysia Plan 1981-1985, 1981), which is approximately 30% of the allocation for culture, youth and sports. By the end of the Second Malaysia Plan, multi-purpose complexes were built in all state capitals except Kota Bharu, Kelantan and Kota Kinabalu, Sabah (Third Malaysia Plan 1976-1980, 1976).

During the Third Malaysia Plan (1976-1980), sports facilities were improved and expanded while playing fields in small towns were upgraded. The construction of
the Kota Bharu and Kota Kinabalu multi-purpose complexes began in 1978 (Mid-term review of the Third Malaysia Plan 1976-1980, 1979). The construction of both these complexes meant that all state capitals had facilities for leadership training, sports and cultural activities. Culture, youth and sports was originally allocated RM32.5 million or 0.2% of the total allocation (Third Malaysia Plan 1976-1980, 1976). However, this figure was increased to RM63.49 million during the mid-term review. Out of that total, sports was given RM21.39 million (Fourth Malaysia Plan 1981-1985, 1981). This amount is approximately 34% of the allocation for culture, youth and sports.

The Fourth Malaysia Plan report reviewed the development of the various sectors from 1971 to 1980. It was found that the development of sport was directed towards building a healthy community, promoting national unity as well as enhancing the country’s image at national and international sports meets. During that period, sports facilities were expanded and national sports organisations were given financial assistance for training programmes as well as organising national and international tournaments (Fourth Malaysia Plan 1981-1985, 1981).

During the Fourth Malaysia Plan (1981-1985), culture, youth and sports were no longer given a combined allocation but each was given a separate allocation. Sports was allotted RM71.29 million. A comprehensive programme was planned under the Fourth Malaysia Plan with the government continuing to encourage the participation of all sections of society in sport. Efforts were concentrated to expand sports facilities in state capitals and smaller towns. Among the sports facilities that were built during this time were a swimming pool in Alor Setar, an indoor stadium in Ipoh, a covered gymnasium and synthetic athletic track in Kuala Lumpur as well as a sports complex in Labuan (Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986-1990, 1986). Mass participation and high
performance sport were used as the foundation for sports recreation development in the country.

During the Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986-1990), emphasis was given to sport with an allocation of RM94.74 million (Mid-term review of the Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986-1990, 1989). Sport was given a special commitment through the formulation of the National Sports Policy (1988). The objective of this policy was to develop an active, healthy and fit society through sports and physical recreational activities, in an effort towards nation building. In an effort to promote sport for all, leadership training was held for fitness, outdoor activities as well as traditional and conventional sports (Mid-term review of the Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986-1990, 1989). In addition to that, sports facilities were upgraded and renovated in addition to constructing new facilities in smaller towns and rural areas. These included the Merdeka Stadium, the Negara Stadium, the Tun Razak Hockey Stadium, the Squash Complex, the National Tennis Centre as well as state sports complexes (Sixth Malaysia Plan 1991-1995, 1991). The private sector was encouraged to complement these government efforts.

During the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995), the allocation for sports was RM291.3 million. During this period, sports facilities continued to be upgraded, renovated and constructed (Mid-term review of the Sixth Malaysia Plan 1991-1995, 1993). Both the public and private sectors undertook to provide sports facilities for the public. The Youth and Sports complexes in the various states were upgraded during this time. In 1994, the National Sports Institute was established to conduct courses in sports science and sports medicine (Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000, 1996). Sports programmes for the masses were organised to promote a healthy lifestyle as well as to
foster national solidarity. Examples of these programmes included the Sport for All Year 1991, World Walking Day and Merdeka Games.

During the Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996-2000), sports was allocated RM997.6 million (Mid-term review of the Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000, 1999). Various sports and recreational activities were organised at national, state and district levels including league and championship circuits in recreational and popular sports. Some of the activities promoted were hiking, trekking, aerobic dance, cycling, horse riding and canoeing.

Analyses of the Malaysia Plans provide an overview of sports development in Malaysia. It can be seen that sport has only recently been a priority for development. From the Fourth Malaysia Plan onwards, sport for all was emphasised and mass programmes were organised for the public. This is because the government has realised the impact of sport for all in the national agenda. The government agency mainly responsible for sport for all is the Ministry of Youth and Sports, more specifically its Sports Division. The Malaysian government realises the benefits of encouraging the people to be physically active. Sport for all benefits the individual, the society and the country (National Sports Policy, 1988). Having a healthy and united society is a priority for the Malaysian government. These aims are specifically stated in most, if not all of the programmes that are run by the Sports Division of the Ministry of Youth and Sports.
Sport for all

Although the concept of sport for all has been widely used for some time, the definition is credited to the Council of Europe's Planning Group of the Sport Section of the Committee for Out-of-School Education meeting held in Bruges in 1968. It concluded that sport for all must provide "conditions to enable the widest possible range of the population to practise regularly either sport proper or various physical activities calling for an effort adapted to individual capacities" (Marchand, 1990, p.3). People should be able to participate irrespective of physical or financial ability.

In the 6th World Sport for All Congress, Juan Antonio Samaranch (1996) emphasised that "the right to practice sport is a human right, and must be open to all, regardless of sex, race, religion, age or physical disability" (p. 16). Samaranch also quoted Pierre de Coubertin as having said “all sports for all people” (p. 16). Kim (1996) concurred with this sentiment and declared:

Physical and recreational activities are first and foremost the right which everyone must enjoy; every single human being should have the right to practice sport in accordance with their personal tastes, as sport promotes a healthy mind and a healthy body for people of all ages and at all socio-economic levels. (p. 30)

According to Wolanska (1991), the characteristics of sport for all are a health orientation, sport as a way of life, varied programmes that offer recreational sports for the different needs of man throughout his lifetime as well as the development of the private sector.
The importance of sport for all is widely acknowledged and many organisations are dedicated to its cause. Some such organisations mentioned by Skirstad (1991) are the Federation International Sport Pour Tous (FISpT), the Trim and Fitness International Sport for All Association (TAFISA), the International Assembly of National Organizations of Sport (IANOS), the Sport for All Commission of the International Olympic Committee, the Sport and Leisure Committee of the International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education and the World Leisure and Recreation Association (WLRA). According to Palm (1993), there is close cooperation between the various organisations including TAFISA, the International Olympic Council (IOC), the World Health Organisation (WHO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Council of Sport Sciences and Physical Education (ICSSPE). Kopper (1986) quoted Coubertin as having said that “sport shall be accessible to all social strata, in the most varied forms and, if possible, free of charge. This would be one of the most noble duties of the modern state” (p. 4). Himl (1986) stated that in sport for all, there are no losers, only winners. He said that participants “win of themselves, of their own indolence” (p. 103).

It has come to be accepted that the aim of sport for all in Malaysia is to enable as many people as possible, irrespective of age, gender, weight, fitness, culture, race, religion, socio-economic background or ability, to take part in various sporting activities. Sport for all activities include outdoor recreation (including camping, trekking, kayaking, orienteering, caving and mountaineering), martial arts, movement activities (such as dance and aerobic dance), modified sports (street soccer, wall climbing, beach volleyball) and traditional sports (*wau, gasing* and dragon boat race).
The reasons why people take part also vary – whether it is for health, fitness, fun, enjoyment or relaxation.

Statement of the Problem

After Malaysia gained independence, and even after the Ministry of Youth and Sports was established in 1964, the government stressed on high performance sport. It has been only in recent years that the Malaysian government placed more importance on sport for all. However, despite the government’s efforts in promoting sport for all, analysis and evaluation of these programmes have not been undertaken. This study plans to examine the extent of the government’s involvement in sport for all in the country in terms of programmes, activities, finances, personnel and facilities till the year 2000.

Purpose of the Study

The study aims to highlight the importance of sport for all in Malaysia to the individual, society and nation as well as to evaluate the extent of the government’s commitment and initiatives towards sport for all. In so doing it will help to fill the gap of information on sport for all in Malaysia. In addition, the study will examine the outcomes of these government initiatives in promoting sport for all. Their effects will be evaluated against the sport for all objectives stated in the National Sports Policy (1988).
Significance of the Study

In spite of its perceived importance to the development of national goals, as far as the researcher is aware, little research has been conducted on the development of sport for all in Malaysia. Because the government has been conducting sport for all programmes, it is essential to review the programmes in terms of accountability and sustainability. In order to do this, the research will first describe and discuss all government initiatives before evaluating them. It is important to look at sport within the social, economic and political development of the country because sport should be viewed within the wider context of social history.

Limitations of the Study

There is a scarcity of literature and documentation in government departments. In 1986, a fire gutted the Wisma Keramat office of the Ministry of Youth and Sports and destroyed records. Hence it is difficult to chronologically document the programmes and activities of the ministry. In addition to that, there is no standardised system in keeping records. Annual reports of the Ministry of Youth and Sports as well as State Youth and Sports Departments were only available for certain years and have only recently been regularly published. Moreover, confidential files at government departments were not accessible to members of the public. Due to the lack of documentation, the researcher conducted interviews. Unfortunately with interviews, the memory factor is another limitation as details have disappeared from memory. In order to minimise the effect of these limitations, information from interviews were
cross-referenced. Therefore the data was limited by documentation available and willingness of individuals with relevant information to participate in the study.

**Methodology**

This study is categorised as a descriptive research. According to Thomas and Nelson (1990), the value of such research is based on the premise that it is possible to solve problems and improve practices through observation, analysis and description. As sport for all in Malaysia is an under researched area with notable limitations in terms of research resources, this study is in essence introductory and exploratory. Several methods of investigation have been employed, including the use of documentary evidence and personal interviews. Whenever possible original documentary evidence were referred to. In the event that these were unavailable, secondary materials were used. The documents that were accessed and analysed fell into six categories: published government records and reports available to the public, government policies and acts, sports organisations records, sport for all souvenir programmes, published and unpublished conference papers and English and Malay language newspaper reports.

Government records and reports included:

1. Files, minutes of meetings, speeches and annual reports from the Ministry of Youth and Sports and the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur Youth and Sports Department;
3. Ministry of Health Annual Reports from 1985 to the year 2000;
5. Material from the National Archives, Malaysia;
6. Annual Malaysian budget from 1985 to the year 2000; and

The government policies and acts included the National Sports Policy 1988, the National Sports Council Malaysia Act 1971, the Merdeka Stadium Corporation Act 1963, the Education Act 1996 and the Local Government Act 1976. Sports organisations' records included the constitution and rules of non-governmental sports organisations such as the Olympic Council of Malaysia and the Paralympic Council of Malaysia.

Sport for all souvenir programmes included those by the Ministry of Youth and Sports and non-governmental organisations. The conference papers were from conventions, conferences, workshops and seminars by the Ministry of Youth and Sports. Malaysian newspaper reports were from English publications such as the New Straits Times, Malay Mail and their Sunday editions the New Sunday Times and Sunday Mail as well as the Business Times. Malay newspaper reports included the Harian Metro, Berita Harian and its Sunday edition Berita Minggu.

Another method of gathering data was by conducting interviews. This method has filled in gaps and provided details that were not available from documentary
evidence. The key people who agreed to be interviewed were: present and previous
government administrators Mr. Sarjit Singh, Mr. Zainal Abu Zarin, Madam Salmah
Hamid Sultan, Dr. Mohd Nor Che Noh, Mr. Chin Siew Foong, Mr. Ramnaidu
Sinanchalam and Ms. Azura Abidin; representatives from sports organisations, Mr. S.
Radha Krishnan and Mr. M. P. Haridas and faculty member at a teacher training
college Dr. Wee Eng Hoe.

**Definition of Terms**

The key terms relevant to this thesis are sport for all, high performance sport
and physical activity.

1. Sport for all according to the National Sports Policy (1988), is "sport and physical
recreation activities which may be spontaneous or organised aimed at encouraging
greater participation rather than for competition at national or international level" (p. 5).

2. High performance sport as defined in the National Sports Policy (1988), is
"competitive sport organised in accordance with International Federation and
Olympic Committee rules and conditions at national or international level to
determine the winners" (p. 5).

3. Physical activity is seen by Martin (1996) as involving any bodily movement
produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure. The term
incorporates active physical leisure, exercise, sports, occupational work and chores
(Shephard, 1994).