

**PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT
WITHIN THE POST-APARTHEID EDUCATIONAL
DISPENSATION OF SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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(i)

I declare that **PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT WITHIN THE POST-APARTHEID EDUCATIONAL DISPENSATION OF SOUTH AFRICA** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used, quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Dedication:

**To Mark, Lauren, Adrian and
him/her who is still to come**

"Sport was created out of the instinct of modern man, out of the spiritual interests of our time, out of the appreciation of the measurable, the increasable, and the speed of our modern life. In its obedience to the needs of the body, in its encouragement of the mind in governing the body, and in its own peculiar social life lies its essential educational value" (Diem 1960:7).

SUMMARY

This study theoretically presupposes that the individual is an integral entity, therefore, education should take place according to the harmonious development of all the facets of a child's being. Even in antiquity, physical education and sport were seen to be important for a balanced education. Every society implements physical education and sport according to own needs and requirements, according certain values to sport, which values are reviewed in this study. A literature study corroborates that the intellectual, physical and social development of the child undoubtedly forms part of the total environment of the educative process. Exclusion of any facet could cause an imbalance in the development of the child. Incorporation of physical education and sport in the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa forms the later part of the investigation. Various factors in South Africa have an influence on the role and place of physical education and sport within the curriculum. Government involvement in sport can determine the place of sport in society and in the curriculum. The readmittance of South Africa into international participation and changes in the political policy also play a role. These factors pose the challenge and facilitate the possibility to reinstate physical education and sport at schools. The structure of South African sport is undergoing a total change and the role players in the sports fraternity are now faced with numerous challenges and opportunities. Reinstating physical education and sport in the school curriculum serves a vital role in the reconstruction and development of a healthy and well-balanced society. Furthermore, reinstatement could reverse the consequences of social and economic injustices. Research undertaken in Australia, also provides some answers to problems for the South African situation. It proposes new initiatives that could be of help to the relevant role players in the planning of physical education and school sport in the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa.

Key terms:

Physical education; School sport; Sport history; Educational dispensation; Apartheid sport; Post-apartheid sport; Educational programme; Physical development; Educational value; Economical value; Social value; Political value; Ethical value; Psychological value; Physiological value; South African sport; Government involvement; International participation; Australian sport.

ABBREVIATIONS USED

ANC - African National Congress

COSAS - Confederation of South African Sport

DSR - Department of Sport and Recreation

GDE - Gauteng Department of Education

HSRC - Human Science Research Council

IOC - International Olympic Committee

MEC - Member of Executive Committee

NOCSA - National Olympic Committee of South Africa

NSC - National Sports Council

SA - South Africa

SABC - South African Broadcasting Corporation

UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USSASA - United School Sports Association of South Africa

USSR - Union of Soviet Socialist Republic

THE USE OF *SPORT*, AND COGNATES IN THIS STUDY

The following remark will obviate confusion:

When used absolutely, the term "sport" is used; when used as a modifier the plural "sports" (e g *sports* council; *sports* fields) is used. The adjectival use "sporting" was generally avoided, since this has a limited field of meaning.

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CHAPTER 1

THE TRANSFORMATION REGARDING PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT, WITHIN THE POST-APARTHEID EDUCATIONAL DISPENSATION OF SOUTH AFRICA

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

There is little doubt concerning the educational value of physical education and sport for the human being (Diem 1960:7; Botha 1986:59, and Nieuwoudt 1988:226). In fact, the once German Democratic Republic went as far as regarding sport as the single most important aspect of the education of young children (*ACHPER National Journal* 1984:62). This article argues that the main aim of the Spartakiad movement was to arouse enthusiasm for sport in young people, make them realise (as early as possible) that sport is a source of pleasure, recreation and relaxation and to improve their health. Sport was thus emphasised to help children develop, through regular physical exercise, those abilities and skills that make it easier for them to cope with their tasks at school, training or work (*ACHPER National Journal* 1984:62).

Since 1948 physical education and sport have played a prominent role in the curriculum of South African schools. Despite the recognition of the educational value of physical education and sport, both were used as a means of promoting nation-building and promoting Afrikaner nationalism in schools. It was particularly rugby that was used for this purpose (Archer & Bouillon 1982:65; Bose 1994:16, and Sarakinsky 1995:176).

1.2 BACKGROUND TO, AND INCENTIVES FOR THIS RESEARCH

It is thus noteworthy that *physical education* and *school sport* formed an integral part of the school curriculum in both the above mentioned cases. However, *political factors* in SA have played a major role in determining the place, nature and importance of *physical education* and *sport* within the curriculum of South African schools. This resulted in the inequality of opportunities in sport for children in South African schools; not all schools had equal amenities and funding (Gauteng Department of Education [hence GDE] 1995:1-2). The

Government's policy engineered segregation and disparities in sport. Disparities in the provision of opportunities, facilities and financing, caused considerable harm to the total structure of South African sport, in general, and to *physical education* and *school sport* in particular.

Since 1990, political changes and an interaction of various factors resulted in changes and developments in: political, economic, cultural, social, and educational spheres in South Africa. These changes and developments undoubtedly had an influence on physical education and sport. However, there were other factors which influenced the nature of sport. Landman (1983:94) mentions: professionalism in sport; government involvement; money in sport; the influence of the mass media; greater financial responsibility on the shoulders of parents, and changes in the educational policy.

In order to understand the above mentioned problem areas surrounding school sport, recent issues and intricacies, related to sport, have been identified as foci for this particular research. These developments have been indicated in: announcements, research, actions and tendencies, which substantiate the relevance of this research regarding the: place, status, value and the existence of physical education, as well as school sport, as part of the curriculum programme.

This study was undertaken from 1991 until 1996. This period is signalled as an era of transformation in South African sport. As a result of the paucity of literature on South African sport, in particular physical education and school sport, the researcher had to rely on personal observations encountered during: her own sports career (awarded Springbok colours from 1982-1989); as a physical education teacher from 1986-1989, and as a national coach since 1989. In the light of this, this research will endeavour to make a contribution to rectify the vacuum in the current educational dispensation, regarding physical education and school sport. This research should also be of interest to future education and sport policy makers.

1.2.1 The depoliticisation of sport and South Africa's readmittance into the international arena

The most dramatic struggle in South African history, namely the policy of isolation, and the *campaign against "apartheid"*, had consequences for the sports world (Kidd 1989:35). Anti-apartheid organisations, and other countries, applied considerable pressure on the Government and sports bodies to abandon the policy of racial segregation. Their aim was to promote a non-racial, fair, inclusive and acceptable sport dispensation for SA (Confederation of South African Sport [hence COSAS] 1990/1991:22).

The beginning of 1990, saw the National Government of President De Klerk revert to the scrapping of discriminatory laws, which led to the depoliticisation of sport, and the readmittance to international participation (Guelke 1993:155-156 and Bose 1994:3). Various changes have since taken place and these had specific consequences for South African sport, physical education and school sport.

1.2.2 Government involvement in sport

Government involvement in South African sport can be traced as far back as 1920. Many believe that "sport has nothing to do with politics" or "politics has nothing to do with sport." Sarakinsky (1995:160) believes this is a naive statement, for SA is a country that has a long history of *political interference in sport*. Strict enforcement of racial segregation was implemented from 1948. Recently the implementation of the new school sport policy has resulted in a number of significant changes.

History was made in South Africa when decisions were made on cabinet level to *create a portfolio for a Minister of Sport* (presently Steve Tshwete) (*Beeld*, 22 Februarie 1993:1). Previously, this portfolio was combined with that of National Education. This important step proved the need for the reconstruction of sport on national, regional and local levels. The government has played a major role in the development of a new structure for sport in SA (*White Paper* 1995:13). In the interest of the development of sport, the National Sports Council [hence NSC] launched a national development programme *Protea Sport* for SA (NSC

1995). The mission and purpose of this programme is to create the structures to meet the needs of all concerned (e.g. administrators, coaches and participants).

1.2.3 Curriculum aspects

Historically, White schools had more privileges regarding physical education and school sport than their Black counterparts. Physical education was practically non-existent in Black schools, and it had to be reinstated as a compulsory subject in all schools, from 1995 onwards (GDE 1995:2 and *White Paper* 1995:17).

Another aspect needing attention according to the *White Paper* (1995:17) is the *presentation of the extra-curricular programmes*. Research found that a deterioration in the extra-curricular programmes in SA (and England) were due to the *unwillingness of teachers to help with the presentation thereof* (Human Science Research Council, [hence HSRC] - *Sport Research* 1982(1):50 and McStravick 1989:14). Both the Department of Education and schools, should look at ways and means to supply financial compensation for teachers and coaches involved in sport.

Similarly, teachers involved in sport, are not *acknowledged for their involvement* when promotion is considered. The findings showed that this datum dampens continual and increasing service delivered in sport (*HSRC - Sport Research* 1982(1):130). The accreditation system is therefore inadequate and schools must consider outside coaches.

Furthermore, parents are continuously and frequently endeavouring to solicit the services of coaches from private sports clubs, to train their children. This is necessitated on account of unqualified teachers, who are unequipped to bridge the gap between school and after school participation.

Establishing clubs at schools for every type of sport, is an alternative already being considered by numerous schools (*Beeld*, 13 Januarie 1993:4). This may result in better organisation and may raise the quality of school sport.

1.2.4 Financial aspects: affordability of physical education and school sport and the controversy of money in sport

The dramatic cut-back in the *educational budget* of the schools has forced parents to contribute financially more towards their children's academic education (*Metro*, 8 September 1995:11). This could imply that less emphasis will be given to physical education and sport in schools. However, this amounts to an unfortunate and unfair imbalance when compared to the weight given to other subjects. Sport is as important and an essential part of the development of the child. School committees at many schools have even considered the possibility of parents having to pay for each individual sport, in which children participate (*Beeld*, 13 Januarie 1993:4). This trend already exists and therefore attention should be paid to the affordability of youth sport.

Sport in general, however, is a *growing economic commodity*. The universal financial turnover amounts to billions: for example entrance fees; concessions; sports goods; books; advertising; licensed products; broadcasting fees and stadium constructions, etc. The rising costs in sport cannot be excluded in any organisation (Sandomir, cited in Eitzen 1989:190).

Remuneration offered to players, amounts to million of dollars per season (*Super Sport*, 14 August 1995). Goldlust (1987:154) points out that the expansion of the sports industry includes personal managers and agents who negotiate contracts and conditions for players. In SA the controversy in rugby circles concerning the "play for pay" resulted in the death of the charade of amateurism (*The Sunday Times*, 6 August 1995:30). The remuneration offered, cannot be ignored when talented young sport people are already recognised at school level and are encouraged to follow a career in sport.

1.2.5 The impact of the mass media on sport

Countless *articles on sport* appear daily in newspapers, magazines, on radio and on television. Thus reporting may obviously have a positive as well as a negative impact on sport and school sport. The media has also brought about changes in sport especially

regarding substance abuse and heroism. Obviously numerous instances can be cited, however for the present confer:

- *Drugs and steroids* (*The Sunday Star*, 26 July 1992:21, *Dying for Glory* and *Rapport*, 23 April 1995:4, *Opkikker bom bars oor 14-jarige meisie*);
- *Heroism* (*The Citizen*, 2 March 1992:39, *Bedford says SA needs Black heroes in sport*).

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

This investigation proposes to seek scientifically substantiated answers to the following research question: What are the implications and influence of the momentous *developments* in South African sport, on the place, importance, and purpose of *physical education* and *sport* in the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THIS INVESTIGATION

With reference to the introductory remarks and the formulated problem for this research, a general objective and specific objectives have been identified.

1.4.1 General objective

An overall view and integration of available and relevant literature is used in order to provide more insight into the role and function of physical education and school sport within the politically complex and heterogeneous South African school system and society. In the light of the general objective the following specific objectives have emerged in this study.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

In order to provide a possible solution for the research problem various objectives have been formulated. These objectives are:

- to illustrate the nature and origin of physical education and sport and the value thereof to society;
- to describe the nature, place and value of *physical education and sport* for the development of the child;
- to sketch and evaluate the relevant role of *physical education and sport* in the post-apartheid educational dispensation as well as to investigate the current issues related to both aspects in SA;
- to investigate the relevance of *physical education and school sport* in Australia as a case study, with the aim of providing possible guidelines, strategies, and solutions for problems encountered in SA;
- to present challenges facing post-apartheid sport and recommendations for *physical education and school sport* within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of SA.

1.5 THE NATURE, APPROACH AND METHOD OF THIS RESEARCH

Chapters One to Five constitute the theoretical substantiation of the research project. Information was obtained from articles, research documents, educational indexes, policy documents, minutes of meetings, newspaper articles and other relevant literature.

The reason for using a literature study was to enable the researcher to make a valid evaluation of the present state of physical education and school sport. The nature of possible problem areas could also be identified in this manner. Using this method the researcher could motivate and accurately plan the relevant theme.

Chapter Five includes a case study of physical education and sport in Australia. The researcher considered Australia relevant due to various new initiatives that have taken place in that country. In order to obtain the relevant information an overseas visit was undertaken. Observation took place and discussions were conducted with specialists in the field of *physical education and school sport*, which enabled the researcher to describe the present trends. The researcher also made use of other relevant reports, work documents and articles for the benefit of the study. This literature study enabled the researcher to comment on the relevance of findings for the South African situation.

In Chapter Six conclusions are drawn and the findings of the research, with the aim of indicating challenges and recommendations for future educational planners are outlined.

1.6 DEFINING THE TERMINOLOGY

This research is specifically aimed at physical education and school sport as part of the South African heterogeneous education system and society. For the purpose of this research various definitions that appear throughout this research need to be defined.

1.6.1 Recreation

The term *recreation* is derived from the Latin word *recreatio* which means restoration or recovery (Kelly 1982:26). Very often leisure and recreation are seen as equivalents.

Blanchard and Cheska (1985:58) define *recreation* as any voluntary activity, engaged in by a person during his own free time, with the aim of personal enjoyment. It is unlike work, and it is not compulsive or obligatory (MaClean, Peterson & Martin 1985:110). Kelly (1982:25) concurs and adds that these activities are beneficial to the participant. Elvin (1992:5) accentuates the facet of activity in recreation, as the satisfaction gained primarily from the quality of the experience. It is pointed out by Weiskopf (1982:21) that although the motivation for recreational participation rests on personal enjoyment, it usually results in intellectual, physical and social growth.

In summary: Recreation entails the time when one is free to engage in, activities that provide a refreshing change-of-pace. It includes a wide range of activities that provide enjoyment, fun and personal satisfaction.

1.6.2 Play

The notion of *play* is derived from the Anglo-Saxon word *plega* meaning a game or sport, fight, or battle (Kelly 1982:28 and Weiskopf 1982:22). It entails an enjoyable activity that individuals engage in for their own sake, in a free and spontaneous way. Play is spontaneous

for some, and for others it is structured by orderly rules (MaClean et al 1985:8). Some see play as only children's activities, others see it as the spirit of mood that accompanies behaviour.

Sport innately contains: elements of competition; physical activity; aspects of organisation; a certain influence of outcome on the quality of experience (cf Elvin 1992:5). Huizinga (1949:3-8), a philosopher, well-known for his theorising regarding play, summarises the main characteristics as being: a voluntarily activity; not revealing real life, but is a temporary sphere of activity; different from the real world regarding place and time; constituting various methods. Furthermore, play incorporates notions of: balance, variation, solutions and tension, it also involves an element of fun and embraces an element of secrecy.

Play is a biological and cultural function that is indispensable to the development of the young child (Weiskopf 1982:24). It is a natural activity of the child (Kelly 1982:28). For the young child games involve the total exploration of his/her surroundings. Steyn (1983:37) argues that during the exploration of his surrounding reality, the child develops self-knowledge and self-esteem. He learns more about himself as well as about the world around him.

Thus the most salient objectives involved in play are:

- enjoyment and pleasure;
- recuperation and revitalisation;
- stemming from a natural instinct, in order to prepare the young for adulthood;
- it is a natural outflow (learned behaviour) as seen in the activities of preceding generations.

Play, therefore, involves creativity and relaxation. *Sport* on the other hand, is more specific and is a refined form of play. Sport entails a definite goal and material compensation, and yet it is motivated by the same intrinsic reasons as play.

1.6.3 Physical education

Various attempts have been made to define the term *physical education*. This is no simple task. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the notions *physical education* and *sport* were seen to refer to the same phenomenon. Only after the First World War, did this change with the incorporation of cooperative games and extra-curricular *games days* (school sport as known today). Sport was introduced for the first time by the educationist Dewey in the form of organised games and leagues (Bunker 1981:26).

Blanchard and Cheska (1985:58) demarcate *physical education* as involving both mental and physical activities, that are ultimately designed to preserve or improve one's health. At the same time it teaches students to effectively utilise leisure time. These facets are also accentuated by the Confederation of Australian Sport (1984:162).

Botha (1982:11); De Beer (1992:5), and Kirchner (1992:6-7) all refer to physical education as a means of educating youth with the aid of experience, acquired during motor activities and to impart knowledge to the youth concerning their bodies. Furthermore, to impart information concerning possibilities of movement (the kinetic aspect).

In conclusion, *physical education* is that section of education which uses physical activity as the medium for instruction. It develops attitudes, knowledge and skills related to health, fitness and recreation. Physical education constitutes the basis of sport.

1.6.4 Sport

Sport is an internationally recognised term, and is practically found and used by all nations all over the world. The origin of the word *sport* can be traced back to the Latin word *desporte* which means *to entertain yourself*. Since the twelfth century the word in Spanish was known as *deportarse* and in France as *se deporter*. In Anglo Franc the word sport was reformed to *disport*. For the first time during the fifteenth century the word "sport" appeared in the English language (*Sportbulletin* 1987:63).

Kelly (1982:188-189) appends a wider connotation: "...sport, pastime, recreation, pleasure." Sport is a universal phenomenon that is practised in almost every civilised country in some or other form, varying from recreation sport to highly competitive sport.

De Villiers and Smuts (1985:483) describe sport as any form of relaxation that is usually practised outdoors by groups of people. It is characterised by: certain rules; common goals; formation of two teams; or participation of individuals, competing against each other to win, using the best performance.

Siedentop (1990:83) would concur with the above observation:

Sport - as an institutionalised form of play - creates forums within which persons can demonstrate competence, can reach goals that have been set, and learn what new goals might await them in the future.

Thus sport can be defined as an exceptional form of play with the emphasis on performance (Botha 1986:58). He adds that sport has an ethical dimension. It takes place outside the "usual" lifestyle and that it intensely catches the attention of the participant, yet play as such, is not serious. With regard to the previous comment Recla (in Botha 1982:12) states that the present significance of sport (prestige, competition, training methods and organisation) differs from its original meaning of entertainment.

According to Diem (1960:6) the well-known German sport philosopher, sport originated from at least three development tendencies, namely:

- the instinctive need for movement, a longing to return to nature;
- the enjoyment that a person gains from the application of his individuality in a freely chosen sport discipline, and the will to perform and achieve success;
- the growth of camaraderie from joint sport participation wherein sport becomes a binding factor between people.

In summary: Sport forms an integral part of most communities and cultures. It consists of recreation and competition. It adds to the enjoyment of people and entices them to reach for

the highest goal. Play is a fundamental ingredient of sport, and it forms an indispensable part of humankind kinetic expression.

1.6.5 School sport/youth sport

In this study *school sport* is defined as: all sport activities presented by a school or other educational institutions, in which pupils and teachers participate, or in which they are involved; where sport activities are part of teaching and where the education programme of the school falls under the jurisdiction of the school governing body, and the Department of Education (GDE 1995:5-6).

According to the relevant *White Paper* (1995:23) youth sport refers to all sport that children out-of-school participate in. This arose due to the previous problems within the education system. For the purpose of this study, *youth sport*, will be relegated to those activities that fall outside the jurisdiction of schools and the Department of Education. Regarding youth sport the principal has no control of pupils who participate on a provincial level; the parents assume total responsibility for their children's participation.

1.7 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The ensuing chapters concur with the components of this project:

- **Chapter Two** : the origins and development of *physical education and sport* throughout the ages are investigated and particular attention is paid to the fundamental characteristics and the value of sport to society.
- Different philosophies of life that determine the nature of humankind education are discussed in **Chapter Three**. This research focuses on *physical education and sport*. Thus a detailed discussion of the nature, place and value of physical education and sport for the development of the child is presented in this chapter.
- An indication of the historical, political, historical, economical, educational and social changes in physical education and sport and implications thereof to the South African situation are provided in **Chapter Four**. An investigation and evaluation of the present

state of affairs of *physical education and school sport* in SA with regard to the structures of sport in general is presented, in order to indicate the present status of physical education and school sport, within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa.

- **Chapter Five** comprises the results of a case study on the present role and place of physical education and sport within the Australian curriculum. The aim is to provide possible guidelines and solutions for problems encountered in SA.
- **Chapter Six** summarises and integrates the findings of the research; challenges facing post-apartheid sport are highlighted along with recommendations for the implementation of *physical education and school sport* within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa.

1.8 IN CONCLUSION

This study is undertaken, in the light of the transformation that has taken place with regard to *physical education and school sport*, within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa. In any country, the political, demographic, educational, historical, economic, religious, social and cultural factors provide essential background information upon which an interpretation of physical education and sport can be based. Therefore, changes and trends in (international and national) political, economic and educational arenas create challenges for educationists and planners of physical education and sport to: accommodate these changes; react positively to challenges, and help provide possible solutions to problems which may arise.

The specific changes, issues and trends regarding *sport in SA* are highlighted in order to indicate the influences of these on *physical education and school sport*, for the present as well as for the future.

CHAPTER 2

THE NATURE AND ORIGINS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT AND THE VALUE TO HUMANKIND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter primarily focuses on the *development* of physical education and sport throughout the ages. Each and every society has varying ideas as how to accommodate physical education and sport. Both physical education and sport have developed alongside each other. Because physical education is particularly linked to education, more specific attention regarding its educational value will be paid to in **Chapter Three**. Secondly this investigation focuses on the significance of sport and its particular value to man.

Sport is a dominant factor which shapes the values and norms of society. Society determines the development of sport and it usually exhibits something of the innate value of a particular community. In general sport adds to the development of the individual as well as of society at large and many benefits accrue from participation in sport.

Sport is a definite cultural activity and is universally part of societies and individuals. Sport is created by the ability of people to create games. Throughout the ages sport has been a reflection of a certain development within a society. Sport is the utilisation of physical abilities, which in turn develops certain important values, norms and other intellectual gifts and whereby these are refined within each individual.

Since sport and physical activities constitute part of people's daily life either in the form of relaxation or competition. Determining the *nature as well as the origin of sport* is critical for this research.

Not only does sport in general, add to the development of individuals as well as to society, but it also bears innumerable benefits for the state and for education. Focus on the origin and development of physical education and the benefits is therefore imperative.

2.2 THE ORIGINS, DEVELOPMENT AND ORGANISATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT

2.2.1 Physical education and sport throughout the ages

From the beginnings of civilisation until modern times, physical education and sport have been an integral part of societies even if not in the same way.

2.2.1.1 *The prehistoric era*

The phenomenon *sport* can be traced to the origin of humankind. It can be linked to human beings struggle against nature and his fellowmen. During prehistoric times people relied on their physical abilities to survive (MaClean et al 1985:30 and Coakley 1986:44). Their daily routine depended on throwing, hunting, climbing, swimming, catching fish, the swinging of a stick. Movement was an enjoyable experience. According to Shivers (1981:37-38) this period is actually a *non-sport period* because physical activities were tied solely to the challenge of survival (Coakley 1986:60 and Van der Merwe 1990:1).

Obviously very little *physical education* was purposively organised during this period. It was all a by-product of the daily experiences, activities and of religious and social ceremonies. Parents were the first actual physical educators. Children spent most of their days outdoors. They learnt many games (tag, hide-and-seek and a variety of ball games) and had a natural urge to keep themselves creatively busy (Howell & Howell 1986:33-35).

Howell and Howell (1986:33-35) point out that numerous rock paintings found in caves revealed depictions of physical activities in which primitive man was engaged in. Hunting and dancing were two of the most prominent activities. Being physically fit was essential: the weak did not survive. Further attributes that ensured survival were muscular strength, endurance, speed and reaction time. Fundamental elements of the physical education programme began during this period and have continued undebated throughout all ages (Howell & Howell 1986:33-35).

2.2.1.2 *In Antiquity*

In antiquity the Romans and Greeks were responsible for the development of leisure and free time. Aristotle, the philosopher, described *leisure* as a productive aspect of life through which the highest good attainable by human action could be achieved (Yoshioka & Simpson 1989:36). The importance of leisure caused philosophers to regard leisure as the basis of culture. Coakley (1986:45) points out that the games played by the early Greeks were grounded in mythology and religious beliefs.

The main aim of the Graeco-Roman *education system* revolved around a military goal with the state as the ultimate power. The Greeks concentrated mainly on the facet of competition. The focus was on physical ability, and organisers of competitions concentrated on mass participation for leisure and recreational activities. The objective of these activities was the entertainment of the citizens and it also served as means of social control (Howell & Howell 1986:60-61 and Yoshioka & Simpson 1989:38).

During this era, Plato especially, emphasised the moral value of physical education. He believed exercise and sport not to be ends in themselves, but these were means to *moral perfection*. An important aspect was the training of the ideal athlete; a person who possessed: perfection, physical beauty, wonderful condition, irresistible strength, daring and rivalry (Freyne 1989:94).

Already by 776 BCE games were held. MaClean et al (1985:35) points out the activities that were practised in modern sport events were: boxing, wrestling, archery and acrobatics (gymnastics). These were not the only events, but they are the most well-known. According to an article in Van der Merwe (1990:33), the Games were later known as the "Olympic Games" as we know it today.

Participation in these games, in antiquity, was an all encompassing driving force. By means of these its participants endeavoured to raise more cultural aspects than merely the physical. Thus the games possessed religious, artistic and even "educational" significance (Van der Merwe 1990:33).

Howell and Howell (1986:54-83) also observe that physical activities were considered to be essential for *military purposes*. Participation in gymnastics (throwing, jumping, running, boxing wrestling and chariot racing) was not for pleasure but rather to contribute to the growth of an well balanced person. The participation in physical activities became an accepted way of life during this period.

In summary: The goal of physical education was established during this period. Plato and Aristotle both advocated that physical education should contribute to the intellectual development of the child. This aspect of body and mind is still prevalent today. Considerable involvement by the state is also found during this period.

2.2.1.3 *During the Middle Ages*

During the Middle Ages, education displayed its own nature and character. Education was characterised by the influence of the Roman Catholic Church and the obtaining of the Christian morals (Shivers 1981:78-79 and MaClean et al 1985:35). Van der Merwe (1990:62) observes that *control of participation in leisure and recreation* was aimed at attaining of overall Christian influence. Various sport activities were banned by the church and contact with secular presentations were forbidden. Religious influence of the church dominated the choices of recreational activities (Howell & Howell 1986:84-85). There was a noticeable absence of the *physical* games and contests which took place in the arena. *Physical education* was not considered as part of the school curriculum.

The rise of the feudal system required that men had to be trained as knights. Activities such as: horsemanship; fighting on horseback; activities of self defence; shooting; handling a crossbow; swimming and wrestling formed the main element of the physical education programme (Nixon & Jewett 1980:83-86 and Howell & Howell 1986:83-86). The upper classes never took notice of those who were considered inferior. They engaged in various tournaments of war games. Women were less apt to be involved in physical activities. They sometimes got involved in "ladylike" games (Coakley 1986:49-51).

There were a variety of ball games and social games played during the Middle Ages. Children played leap frog, marbles, hop scotch, skipping, running and hiding games. Adults enjoyed blindfold games, diving for apples, and gambling games (Howell & Howell 1986:91).

In summary: It is noteworthy that from the time of the Greeks until today, sport has been approached from various considerations. Philosophies and religions have led to differing viewpoints regarding sport. Slowly but surely the importance of physical activities was reduced, and they were frequently used to train the youth. Thus sport progressively receded into the background to make room for a more religious education.

2.2.1.4 During the era of the Reformation

MaClean et al (1985:37) describes the era of the Reformation and the Renaissance, as the well-known but indefinite stretch of time between the Middle Ages and the modern world. It designates the period of European history from the fourteenth to the early sixteenth centuries. At that stage mankind rediscovered itself and evidenced a tendency to develop technical abilities (Cross 1990:57-61). Sport and recreation were then seen as a positive foundation of society facilitating the restoration of society. The ensuing Industrial Revolution caused sport to bloom on all levels of society and paved the way for the modern Olympic Games (also Van der Merwe 1990:11-15). Pierre de Coubertin, the founder of the modern Olympic Games, was interested in creating a platform to develop the educational value of sport, as well as its popularity.

During this time much attention was devoted to recreation in Europe. England was one of the first countries to present sport as an organised form of recreational activity (Van der Merwe 1990:80-81). This revolutionary period was the beginning of a notion that sport should be part of the daily lifestyle of society. The necessity of physical education was emphasised due to the changes and developments in the technical, economic, political, social and recreational fields. People had to learn how to spend their free time productively.

According to Howell and Howell (1986:94-95) education during the Renaissance focused on the studying of grammar, Greek and Latin, history, mathematics, the natural sciences, philosophy, and this programme was further supplemented by means of physical activities.

The dramatic development of sport in England during this period had a significant role to play in physical education across the world. The foundation of many modern games and sports were laid during this period. Rules were formulated for games such as tennis, golf, soccer, cricket, rugby and bowling and recorded in books. This period was a stimulus for physical education and sport, with a multitude of pastimes being pursued by the nobility. Physical education and sport reflected the values and norms of society.

2.2.1.5 The beginning of modern physical education and sport

The Renaissance initiated the changes that were to follow during the Modern Ages. Howell and Howell (1986:106-117) describe the emergence of the modern era as a complex evolution which involved religious, economic, political and social movements. It was a time of change and traditional ways of life and thinking were rejected. The Napoleonic wars saw the replacement of the *professional soldier* armies with *citizen* armies. Physical training was therefore recognised as a necessity. Germany and Sweden developed distinct national systems for physical education or gymnastics. This period also saw physical education, or gymnastics being accepted as part of the public school curriculum. Its main purposes were to ensure the future development of physically fit soldiers, as well as the promotion of health and healthy life styles.

The Swedish physical education system involved mass drills in which a large number of people could participate. In contrast the German system, emphasised individual activities which only a few could participate in. The Swedish system was adopted in the general school programmes of England, the United States and Canada (Howell & Howell 1986:109-110).

The roots of modern sport lie in the games and pastimes of medieval times. However, the main characteristics of modern sport developed in the sport and games in nineteenth century England. During the middle of the nineteenth century sport was characterised by the

establishment of more clubs and increasing organisation. This was one of the most remarkable and most important features of the nineteenth century. There was a growing emphasis on the seriousness of sports and an increase in the opportunities offered (Coakley 1986:61 and Howell & Howell 1986:111). Cross (1990:143-144) noted that various social changes took place and sport was seen as a potential educational experience. Howell and Howell (1986:115) emphasise the role of the Public Schools of England in the development of sport in England. The schools valued games, not for their physical development, but rather for their contribution to the social development of the child. Organised games were accepted as an important part of the total education process.

People started seeing sport as a tool for changing behaviour; shaping character; building unity and cohesion within a diversified population, and creating national loyalty. Coaching became more specialised by means of technical professionals and coaches being hired to supervise teams (Coakley 1986:54-56).

Howell and Howell (1986:125-126) also concludes that the Olympic Games became the centre stage for local, national and international causes. Problems that have accompanied the Games range from the gigantic costs of hosting the Games, to security concerns, to drug abuse among athletes, to boycotts of the games.

According to Guttman (cited in Coakley 1986:48-49 and cited in Baum & Coleman 1989:6) this era could possibly be recognised by seven interrelated characteristics. The seven characteristics are described as follows:

- **Secularism:** Sport is not directly linked to religious beliefs or religious rituals. Modern sport embodies the immediacy and values of the material world.
- **Equality:** Modern sport is not regulated by birthrights or social backgrounds. Everybody should have equal opportunities.
- **Specialisation:** Specialised sports equipment and training methods are the order of the day. Athletes specialise at an early age. Sports are dominated by specialists who seek the materialistic recognition for their performances.

- Rationalisation: With regard to rationalisation it is specified that sport is controlled and regulated by rules and strategies. Rules in turn regulate equipment, playing techniques and participation.
- Bureaucratisation: Modern sport is characterised by complex organisations on all three levels of organisation, namely national, regional and local levels. The rules are made on top level and athletes are occasionally overseen. Events are organised and records are certified.
- Quantification: Measurements and statistics are common aspects related to modern sport. All events are reduced to a time, distance or score.
- Records: Presently there is an emphasis on setting and breaking records; most important are world records. Performances are compared and individuals are organised within leagues, communities, states, provinces and continents.

Heinemann (1989:15) points out the more recent developments in the form of sport organisations, such as: fitness centres; gym studios; sport schools and leisure parks, which provide more competition. Sport is used more frequently as a therapeutic function (rehabilitation centres, spas and therapy groups). Holiday companies and resorts are marketing sport as an attractive package. Sport marketing and management is becoming even more important. Political parties, universities, organisers of commercial sports promoters and the media, are discovering sport as a central aspect of these respective strategies to gain influence.

2.2.2 The origin and development of South African physical education and sport

The origin of South African *physical education* and *sport* is obviously of extreme relevance here. According to Van der Merwe (1990:122-127) the first indications of sport in SA were in the year 1660 in the form of a skittle game. This was an activity that originated in the Netherlands and was introduced by Dutch settlers settling in the Cape. Crew members from the British ships played an important part in the development of sport and the encouragement thereof (*HSRC - Sport Research* 1982(1):35).

At the beginning of the nineteenth century soldiers, administrators, teachers, missionaries, business men and settlers from Britain organised and encouraged various games as part of the recreational programmes of inhabitants of the Cape. These games included rowing, horse riding, sailing and rugby (Van der Merwe 1990:122-127).

Organised sport in SA became an important part of the community's activities, thanks to the English regiments which settled in the Cape after the take over by Britain. Sport and physical activities were used as part of the recreational programme, to prevent laziness and boredom, amongst the troops of the regiments. Even more people arrived in SA with the discovery of diamonds. Cricket, soccer, rugby, polo and gymnastics were considered the most important sports activities by these foreigners (Archer & Bouillon 1982:16-21).

It is indicated in *Sportbulletin* (1987:62) that the first ever sport club was established in 1887 to provide for the increasing needs in the sport arena. The importance of sport is noticeable during the Anglo-Boer war. On the 28th April 1902 a day of peace was called for by Manie Maritz for the playing of a rugby match between the Boer and the British armies.

The twentieth century is characterised by a flourishing period of sport in SA. Various teams took part in international sports meetings, and SA was one of the establishing members of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the British Kingdom Games. In 1961 SA resigned from the Commonwealth, and due to political pressure, SA was not allowed to compete in the Commonwealth Games or the Olympic Games (Archer & Bouillon 1982:206-207 and *HSRC-Sport Research* 1982(1):35).

The history of South African sport clearly reveals a relationship and struggle between sport and politics (Archer & Bouillon 1982:1 and Sarakinsky 1995:160). Hendricks (cited in Sarakinsky 1995:171) verifies that the central aim of physical education was to promote nation-building amongst the Afrikaner nation. Only after the internal political policy was altered in 1992, was SA readmitted to the international sports arena, after years of isolation and boycotts.

The question arises as to the state of physical education. It needs to be pointed out that *literature* concerning the development of physical education in SA is extremely limited. According to De Klerk (1984:228) and Du Toit (1980:531) the development of physical education in SA can be linked to the influence of sport in Europe, South African teachers studying overseas, and other contentious influences. Numerous qualified physical education specialists from England, the Netherlands, Denmark and Germany started coming to SA since 1940. Most of these teachers were appointed at secondary schools. A few were also offered posts. Swedish gymnastics and games from England therefore, played a prominent role in South African physical education.

A few well-known physical education specialists visited SA and left their mark on the development of physical education. In 1939 Niels Bukh, in 1959 Dr Carl Diem and Mrs Lieselotte, and in 1960 Dorothy Ainsworth, all visited SA (De Klerk 1984:229).

The physical education system of SA is an eclectic one that has drawn heavily upon German schools, as well as on systems of other countries (*Vigour* 1960:30). In this regard De Klerk (1984:229) indicates that four systems had originally left a lasting impression on physical education in SA. These four can be summarised as follows:

- English Sport: Especially informal activities (Athletics, boxing, swimming and wrestling).
- The Swedish-Danish formative gymnastics. This system of physical education was introduced by the British who settled in SA. It was actually implemented in schools the first time in 1939 by Niels Bukh and was contained in a document entitled: *Syllabus of Physical Exercise*.
- German Turnen: This movement was spread by German immigrants, British army instructors and a number of persons who studied physical education in Germany. The Turnen featured in the physical education curriculum of boys. It consisted of general activities and outdoor activities.
- The Austrian *natural* physical education of Gaulhofer and Streicher: this was stressed by a few individuals. The periodical of *Physical Education* in SA, at that time, was

a follower thereof. Accordingly the system of physical education had to make provision for small children in the form of individualism, creativity and imitation.

The very first attempts to include physical education in the curriculum in SA were undertaken by Commissioner de Mist between 1803-1806 (sic)[Obviously the correct dates are 1803-1806]. He advocated physical activities such as music, dance, fencing and horse riding. These were all definite signs of the eighteenth century rationalism (De Klerk 1984:230-231).

Physical education was formally introduced for the first time in South Africa in the curriculum of Cape Province schools in 1897 (Du Toit 1980:530 and *Vigour* 1948:6-7). At that stage more physical education was offered to girls than to boys. In 1918 Dr Karl Bremmer the first inspector for physical education in the Cape Province included sport and games to the physical education programme for boys (De Klerk 1984:231-232).

Some of the schools were privileged to have a trained physical educational specialist. The first ever specialist course for physical education was introduced in 1921 at the Cape Town Training college. Considerable development took place in the field of physical education from 1936 until 1939. For the first time in history a degree was offered in physical education at the University of Stellenbosch. As a result physical education formed a central part in the curriculum of the school (Du Toit 1980:531 and *Vigour* 1948:6-7).

Not only was physical education made compulsory in government schools in 1939, but it was also included in the programmes of the Union Defence Force and the South African Railways and Harbours (Archer & Bouillon 1982:129). Considerable interest was attracted to physical education and in 1938 the National Advisory Council for Physical Education was formed. These developments resulted in physical education forming a central part in the curriculum (De Klerk 1984:232-234; Du Toit 1980:531, and *Vigour* 1948:6). The main object of the abovementioned Council was to coordinate and stimulate the development of physical education for pupils and students. It did not take long for physical education to establish itself as an indispensable part of education in South Africa (*Vigour* 1960:30).

Most schools encouraged participation in sport. Secondary schools adopted the policy that only teachers with specialised training were allowed to teach physical education. Only a limited number of schools were equipped with modern gymnasiums. The majority, however, had playgrounds and sport fields (*Vigour* 1948:7-8).

De Klerk (1984:237-249) indicates that the other three provinces of South Africa (Orange Free State, Transvaal & Natal) also provided physical education under the auspices of the various educational departments. Physical education was only included in Natal schools from 1859: from 1851 in the Transvaal, and from 1872 in the Orange Free State. Physical education has remained a subject in all schools since that time.

The most significant development regarding physical education and sport in SA was the establishment of a *Government Department of Sport and Recreation* in 1966. It was the brainchild of the South African Association for Physical Education and Recreation. The Department's aims were to: render a service to the various sport associations; encourage activities which were aimed at the development of a strong and healthy nation and to grant subsidies for such activities. This department also made funds available to scientific research in the field of sport and recreation. Another outstanding feature was the establishment of the *Sport Foundation of South Africa* by a prominent public company. It was a non-profit organisation which provided expert tuition and coaching to amateur sport (Du Toit 1980:532-533). It is necessary to mention that the majority of courses sponsored by the Foundation were presented in rural areas and amongst the Black communities (personal observation).

The situation regarding physical education in schools for other ethnic groups was far different to that in White schools. At the beginning of 1803 mission schools were opened by the London Missionary Society which provided schooling free of charge to all races. The number of schools and children attending the schools grew considerably during this time. However, by the end of the century Whites demanded the provision of separate education. In 1905 the first state schools for Whites were introduced in the Cape Province (Archer & Bouillon 1982:26-27).

Compulsory education for Whites up to age 14 was presented in the four provinces between 1905 and 1908 (Christie & Gordon 1992:402). Education for Blacks, mostly missionary run, was neither free nor compulsory. Education remained in the hands of missionaries; was poorly funded; sparsely provided and of varying quality (Archer & Bouillon 1982:164 and Behr 1984:177). Sports equipment and facilities in White schools were supplied by the government. Very little equipment, if any was supplied to Black schools (Archer & Bouillon 1982:164).

Indians received very little education, yet they were allowed to attend White schools between 1885 and 1905. A separate curriculum was imposed on African children in 1904. In 1907 the opening of the first state school for Africans followed (Archer & Bouillon 1982:26-27). The South African Act (1909) placed the control of Black education, in the hands of the then Minister of Native Affairs (Behr 1984:175-176).

As previously stated physical education was not obligatory in White government schools until 1939. The Black population was hardly affected by this as only one-quarter of the school going age children were enrolled (Archer & Bouillon 1982:35). Opportunities for studying physical education for coloured teachers were initiated in 1939 at the Wesley Training School and for Black teachers in 1943 at Healdtown Native Training Institution (Du Toit 1980:531). Outside the formal school structure the majority of Black school children had virtually no opportunity to play sport. In the early 1950's the government seized to acknowledge the education in mission schools. The Bantu Education Act of 1953 resulted in the control of Black schools to be taken away from the missionary bodies and placed under Department of Native Affairs (Archer & Bouillon 1980:47 and Christie & Collins 1990:160).

This of course, had a dramatic influence on physical education and sport. Children were not only excluded from any sport but schools frequently provided them an opportunity to participate. Government schools paid far less attention to physical education than the missionary schools did.

By 1975, a considerable shortage of teachers and classrooms existed in Black schools. Subsequently double sessions were arranged for pupils which resulted in the school day to

be shortened by approximately one-third (Mncwabe 1992:59 and Christie & Collins 1990:177). Obviously, physical education and school sport could not be included in the short day. Furthermore, school children were leaving school with less than four years of schooling (Samuel 1990:20). Therefore, they were illiterate and also not knowledgeable as to any physical education or sport.

Until 1994, four state education departments existed for the four main ethnic groups (White, Black, Indian and Coloureds) (Van Schalkwyk 1988:76). Physical education was included in the school curriculum of Black schools, however, principals seldom saw it as an important part of the curriculum. Facilities in Black schools were also non-existent or of a very poor quality (*White Paper* 1995:17-18).

The above comments only provides a brief background to the history of South African physical education and sport. The place of physical education and sport in the South African curriculum should not be overlooked. Of course, over the years various factors have influenced its inclusion. Two aspects to be accentuated in this research are (1) *the involvement of the government* and (2) South Africa's readmittance into the international arena. These two aspects cannot be ignored in the light of the research problem (cf Chapter Four).

2.3 THE SIGNIFICANCE AND THE SOCIAL NATURE OF SPORT

2.3.1 The significance of sport

Since people are innately beings who participate in play this had to emanate in the phenomena of games and sport (Coetzee 1991:2). Irrespective of the context within which sport is practised people always form the centre thereof. Sport simply cannot exist without people. Individuals from all cohorts participate in some kind of sport: children, adults and the aged. Sport engenders reason for worthwhile and good relationships, sportsmanship, endurance, as well as other qualities. However, sport can also involve corruption, violation of individual dignity, heroism and other unacceptable sports practices.

Nieuwoudt (1988:226) maintains, and correctly so, that the original significance of sport, has undergone a change in emphasis. Currently sport is associated with: practising, competition, specialisation, coaching, administration, and championships.

Sport undoubtedly forms an integral part within the cultural patterns across the world, and it has become a well-established phenomenon with worldwide meaning (McPherson, Curtis & Loy 1989:10-20). The increasing interest in sport, together with the increase in all societies, endorses the legitimacy of research concerning sport.

The importance of sport can no longer be denied by: educators, economists, politicians, sociologists and psychologists. It has become a powerful social force which enjoys wide support and interest within the wider community, as well as within educational circles; it has become a matter of common interest and immense public appeal. Of all societal factors sport probably has the greatest impact on society.

2.3.2 The social nature of sport

In order to gain an in depth insight into the particular nature of sport as a social phenomenon, it is important to study sport from a sociological viewpoint, in other words the social values that are appended to it by society at large.

- Sport is *universal* and enjoys worldwide recognition. Simon (1985:ix) indicates that sport plays a significant role in the lives of millions of people throughout the world. While many men and women participate actively in sport, even more are spectators, fans, critics, and occasional participants.

Van Dellen (1981:9) agrees with the above observations, stating that sport is truly *global* in its scope and followed with avid interest by many people across the world. Many countries are able to compete more frequently against each other due to the developments in transportation. There are definite signs that countries have moved towards a common sports programme, which enables any kind of extensive competition.

Sport represents an universal important human benefit and is found in almost every known society and thus constitutes an anthropological universal phenomenon (Baum & Coleman 1989:4-5).

- *Playing games* forms a prominent part of sport (Kelly 1982:189). The desire to play games has been an inborn impulse and a basic need since primitive man (Calhoun 1987:48).
- Sport *captures the attention* of billions of people. The enormous extension of the mass media has made it possible for millions of people across the world to follow international sports events. Every four years 183 countries get together for the greatest spectacular on earth, the Olympic Games. During the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games an estimated 4,5-billion people watched the games on television (Bierbaum 1994:49).
- Sport is a *human activity*. Since prehistoric times people have engaged in sports activities. Sport and physical activities served as a method to develop skills, physical exercises: techniques for hunting: it served as a socialising technique, and reinforced cultural norms and values (Blanchard & Cheska 1985:93).

In this same contents Botha (1982:15) regards sport as an activity that holds society captive, and creates the opportunity for creativity. These opportunities have been strengthened by various changes and factors. Pitts (1993:12) mentions a few: the exploitation by mass media; the number of sports offered; more free time; sports education; improvements in sports technology, support services and coaching.

The general concept, *sport is very complex*. It includes entertainment, compensation for social defects, an increase in prestige, relief from nervousness and various other benefits. Sport presents its own integral system and task. It is Bannister (1984:8) who remarks that different people competing in sport all work toward the same end, namely releasing a sense of power and beauty that lies in the human body.

- Sport contributes to the *building of the human* character. Erbach (1984:32) and De Vries (1985:39) have no doubt that sport contributes to *education* and the formation of character. These two aspects cannot be understood separately from each other. Sport is advantageous to the development of entire body of the individual; the physical, psychological and social development.
- Irrespective of participation as an individual or as a member of a team, sport lends itself to being a *socialising force* in the community and the society at large. The participant is never alone because he is somehow or other representing the community (Heinemann 1987:12 and Sarakinsky 1995:179).
- Sport represents a *particular means of expression* within different cultures. In this regard Väyrynen (1984:64) remarks that sport provides *linguistic symbolism and social dream by which people can be socialised into the dominant culture*. Rugby is the dominant game in South African sport and its role was to build a powerful nation (Sarakinsky 1995:171). In Canada the national game is ice hockey. No cultural activity unites so many people. It gives them their most heroes, most accessible myths and rituals (Kidd cited in Baum & Coleman 1989:75).
- Sport contains an *element of competition*. Blanchard and Cheska (1985:91-93) indicate that since ancient times people developed a need to defend themselves, their tribe and later their country. In times of fear they learnt to escape danger by running, jumping and swimming. To avoid defeat they invented archery, judo and karate. According to Galtung (1984:13) humankind also developed the need to compete against body, surroundings and exhaustion.

To summarise, sport cannot be disregarded in any society today. Erbach (1984:32) reflects the importance of sport as a social phenomenon:

Sport has become a partner of mankind in the twentieth century; even more - it has become an active co-operation in various social conditions and relations as well as in the individual life of millions of people. Like every progressive phenomenon, modern sport, having emerged from humble local, regional and

national beginnings, has been able to spread across social, political, religious and other barriers throughout the world within a historically short time. Neither two dreadful wars nor temporary social or political setbacks have been able to halt its rapid development for long. Today sport is reflected in the social consciousness as a phenomenon of almost universal character.

2.4 THE MULTIFARIOUS VALUE OF SPORT

Sport reflects important values within a society. Leonard (1984:47) describes sport as a microcosm of society at large. The nature, the organisation, goals, functions, and structure of sport reflects the society wherein sport takes place. It has the primary function in disseminating and reinforcing the values regulating behaviour and the goal attainment and determinations of acceptable solutions to problems in the secular sphere of life.

Sport also affects and aids in regulating perceptions of life in general, in addition to this, Calhoun (1987:197-201) suggests that sport offers a particular contribution to: education; constructive recreation, national fitness, youth preparedness, international prestige, and communication. Sport does not go unnoticed in the community and Diem (1960:6) describes sport as a possession of the entire society which provided an antipode for the Industrial era. Sport has become a very important element in the life of every individual irrespective of race, tradition, climate and preferences.

Jarvie and Maguire (1994:9) rightly state that sport is a social institution that transmits values to the participants. Sport contributes to society and is inter-related with other aspects of society. These aspects include, the family and education.

The aim of Greek education was the development of the *total person* which included the physical development. There was a continual desire for a balance between body, mind and soul (Shivers 1981:42). Today the tendency exists to return to the same idea, in spite of the tendencies to use sport as preparation for war and place more emphasis on intellectual development. The emphasis, nowadays is placed on the value of sport for the total person. Hereafter follows an explanation of the most important values of sport for humankind.

2.4.1 Educational value

Even though there follows a detailed discussion of the educational values of sport in Chapter Three, it is apposite to refer to a number of values which sport offers for mankind and society as a whole.

Sport forms an integral part of numerous peoples' lives. This is acknowledged by Diem (1960:6) and Botha (1982:23). In the education system, physical education provides an opportunity for children to make contact with sport and exercise. Within this working sphere the child should be guided to self-confidence. Opportunities should be provided to develop his body power, suppleness and endurance. There is a need to create enjoyment for the child (Horkel 1992:201-202 and Osness 1992:356).

An atmosphere of play provides the ideal opportunity for the educator and the child to communicate more relaxed by. The child is inclined to open up more. Sport teaches young children valuable lessons about life in general and life in society (Jarvie & Maguire 1994:10).

Sport is an instrument in the hands of education that helps to develop characters and personalities. Calhoun (1987:198-199) stresses that to most individuals, sport forms a bond between his daily life and the content thereof, consisting of enjoyment, pleasure and disappointments, hope and fear, ideals and reality. The value of sport differs from person to person. Some see it as a goal in itself, others see it as a means to a goal.

Diem (1960:7) maintains that the educational value of sport is governed by its own laws. The essential educational value of sport, is that:

Sport was created out of the instinct of modern man, out of the spiritual interests of our time, out of the appreciation of the measurable, the increasable, and the speed of our modern life. In its obedience to the needs of the body, in its encouragement of the mind in governing the body, and in its own peculiar social life lies its essential educational value.

The educational value of sport, Meakin (1986:59) observes, rests totally on the possibility of *transferring qualities* such as honesty, fairness and self-discipline.

2.4.2 Social value

It is necessary to add the following perspective to the mere extensive treatment in 2.3. Human beings are naturally community beings with a strong desire to be part of a group. Despite the family, educational institutions, coaches and mass communication methods, social groups of various kinds have the most influence on people. The individuals thoughts are influenced by the attitudes and deeds of that particular society (Leonard 1984:85). Sport is thus seen as *one of the actions* in which the community becomes involved. The inherent need of people for group membership and identification with a group can be provided in play, and in sport (Botha 1982:32).

According to Jarvie and Maguire (1994:10) sport enables individuals and groups to mix freely with other counterparts across a broad spectrum. Sport integrates members into society, and strengthens the social relations necessary for people to be able to work together. It helps people build a *consciousness of togetherness*.

2.4.2.1 Sport as a fundamental human need

Sport is a vital force that influences the life of man. It is the heritage of all living human beings and provides enjoyment in and for life (Sayer 1989:34). Sport in various forms offers enjoyment. Children spend many hours playing games. Meyer (1984:6) stresses the importance of play in the child's life for two reasons namely:

- For the development of growth, experience and knowledge;
- To enable the child to lose himself totally in games, and to enjoy his activities.

Due to various obligations and responsibilities, adults view sport from a different angle than children. The desire to compete must therefore not be suppressed.

2.4.2.2 Other societal benefits of sport

Russel and Wilson (1992:388) indicate the benefits of sport for the society as being, the promotion of health and other social benefits. Without a doubt, sport and physical activity are central to the life of the whole community. For this particular reason many countries across the board, have opted for a "sport for all strategy" (Williams 1993:1). Sport offers the community the basis for national identity and national competence (Väyrynen 1984:67).

The former USSR used sport as a tool to bring about social change. Just after the revolution, the state used sport: to develop health and uplift morality; to promote fitness and discipline in the army, and to provide a source of recreation to a society that was experiencing rapid changes and sacrifices (Riordan 1980:14).

Sport can be used as a form of preventing juvenile delinquency (Rees 1991:54). The youth of today are continuously looking for the boundaries of right and wrong. If they are not kept busy in a constructive way they will look for other destructive methods. Sport creates an opportunity for self-expression.

Not only does sport help to develop individual traits, but it also helps to influence the growth and development of social relationships between people (Jarvie & Maguire 1994:9-10). Other values that are cultivated range from: respect for rules; honest hard play; courage; disregard of own interest and the development of group interest; sportsmanship, and experience in leadership. Since sport contributes to group cohesion, many countries organise mass participation. Especially in groups where there is hostility, sport could help to resolve and stabilise differences concerning, belief, education nationality and cultural backgrounds.

The parties in society concerned with sport can be; the state, the community, the church, private sector, the school and the family. In this research the focus point is obviously *the school* who is the primary provider of sport in the South African educational system (cf Chapter Four).

2.4.3 Psychological value

According to Smoll and Smith (1981:85-94), and Stewart (1981:59) the *psychological value* of sport has already been researched by a number of educationists. Literature indicates that other aspects are also included when a person is involved in sport.

Calhoun (1987:257-262) identifies three main values sport has regarding psychological development. Firstly, sport develops a *spirit of cooperation* when a team sport is being played. Secondly, sport develops the *ability of free participation* between individuals and groups. A third characteristic developed, is the *submission to authority* and disciplined submission to the law (abiding by the rules of the game).

Feltz and Weiss (1982:24) believe it is the task of the coach and the teacher to arrange sports activities that develop self-confidence in the child. Many of the coaches are unaware of the value of sport for the personal development of the child. The result of participation in sport is classified by Feltz and Weiss (1982:24) as:

The strangest most durable determinant of self-efficacy is performance accomplishment. When individuals achieve success in their athletic endeavours, feelings of self-worth and esteem result.

Botha (1982:28) points out that *mass participation* has the most powerful effect on the behaviour of people. The public is the biggest attender of sport and it creates a spectacle and lively show. Heineman (1989:18) indicates that many spectators get carried away to such an extent, that some sports events are characterised by accumulated aggression. These emotions sometimes cause the individual to act irresponsibly. Soccer is the one sport that is known for violence during a game. Despite these negative effects of sport, due to group pressure Botha (1982:29) stresses that this aggression can be controlled.

The interaction between body and soul cannot be ignored. Jennings (1993:1) views sport as offering one the opportunity to experience body and mind in motion. Both the body and the soul form and function as an integrate whole. A dominant body can be of an disadvantage

to the spirit, while a weak soul, can lead to destruction of the body. Further a body ailment can cause various psychological diseases.

Child psychologists have already proven that draw backs in the motor-abilities can bring about various psychological distortions. Stress is becoming an ever-increasing problem in society. Sport can help relieve stress, and therefore has a therapeutic value, namely leading the person away from worries, that cannot be ignored (Weiskopf 1982:60).

2.4.4 Physiological value

Sport consists of a physical and a kinetic aspect. Across the world it is known that the general well-being of a society is closely related to their physical condition. Today people use false substances to help build their health and motivation to help prevent various psychological illnesses.

Dewey (cited in Botha 1982:31) emphasises the need for physical activity, to ensure that organic growth takes place. Normal functioning of the body is stimulated by activity and every person has the need for physical activity. Movement stimulates growth and the strengthening of the organs. Performance of the body is heightened with use, and when it is not used, a degeneration is inevitable.

Numerous research projects have proven that sport is beneficial. The contribution sport makes to physical fitness should be encouraged in schools, seeing there is a deterioration in the physical condition of children (Horkel 1992:201). Physical activity is of importance to the motoria abilities of individuals (e g perceptual motor, balance speed, power, endurance, coordination and flexibility) (Osness 1992:356).

Physical exercise is also of importance to the welfare of an entire country (*White Paper* 1995:34-35). Unfit citizens could cause a country's downfall. Research findings of 1982 revealed that the physical fitness level of South African citizens, needed a lot of attention (*HSRC-Sport Research* 1982(1):42-43 and Tempelhoff 1983:26).

In summary: Many people seldom realise the value of physical activity. It is a fundamental need of every individual. As Tempelhoff (1983:26) concluded: Sport can indeed contribute to mankind's physical vitality through modern physiology: *in the development and maintenance of muscle tone, organic, and vitality of body functioning.*

2.4.5 Ethical value

A long and respected tradition exists regarding the viewpoint that a healthy relationship exists between humankind's physical life and the development and formation of his character. In Plato's *Republic*, he condemns both an exclusive academic education, as well as a purely physical education. Arnold (1984:275) points out that Plato advocates the education of a mind that is civilised and brave, as opposed to cowardly and uncivilised. Rousseau, an eighteenth century philosopher, preferred to constantly participate in physical exercise, strengthening his body and keeping it healthy in order to make him good and wise.

During the Middle Ages, in English private schools sport was highly regarded as the cultivators of bravery, loyalty and cooperation. To this day, this viewpoint is not unfamiliar in the sports arena (Meakin 1981:241 and Arnold 1984:275). Charles Kingsley (cited in Arnold 1984:276) points out ethical characteristics that are developed in sport as games, that are not merely daring and endurance teaching, but better still, temper: self restraint, fairness, honour, and unenvious approbation of another's success.

Competitive sport offers many the opportunity to test ethical performance. Adding to the list, Botha (1982:26) sees sport as providing the opportunity for sportsmanship, loyalty and discipline, respect to other, modesty, dignity. To be able to understand the ethical value of sport the reader should have knowledge about the terms, sportsmanship, fairness and discipline.

Botha (1982:26) considers sportsmanship as an honest trait that requires qualities such as: courage, endurance, self control, self respect, mutual trust, politeness and fairness. Fairness is defined as one of the most important ingredients of sportsmanship. Diem (1960:9) endorses this:

The fairness aspect of sport stresses that "out of the essence of sport, its ethical content demands of a sport, i.e. a fair attitude; an attitude which one cannot capture in rules or regulations but which is equally obligatory to every sportsman and should be felt by every one of them.

Fairness according to Arnold (1984:276), relates to the application of the rules. That which is valid for one player, should be valid for the rest of the team; team members should meet beforehand and decide on the rules to be followed. No one is allowed to be favoured above the rest.

Baxter (1994a:14) agrees with Diem (1960:9). He sees fairplay as much more than rules. It consists of friendship, respect for others, and always playing in the right spirit. It should eliminate cheating, gamesmanship, doping, violence (physical and verbal), exploitation, inequality, corruption and excessive commercialisation.

Discipline is another quality that has developed through sport. Especially in highly competitive matches strict discipline is asked with regard to regular practising, participation and obedience of rules (Botha 1982:26).

Meakin (1981:246) comments that the complete opposite is also possible in matches. Players may see their opponents as their enemies or dishonesty, intimidation and provocation can also be the order of the day. The negative side should not be allowed to overshadow the positive effects of sport on moral development. Many of the misinterpretations are based on the poor presentation of the sport and not the participant himself.

Baxter (1994a:13) justifiably observes how modern sport is faced with numerous pressures experienced in society. The effect of politics in sport; the race to success; the need for heroes; the need for finance, and the exposure to the mass-media increases tension in society.

Competitive sport is often under the spotlight as the cultivator of unwanted behaviour; differences with umpires; the twisting of rules; deliberate fouls; undesirable behaviour, and swearing (Meakin 1986:59). Incidents where players are fined are common in the world of sport (*Pretoria News*, 4 July 1995:17).

In summary: the negative aspects should not be allowed to spoil the true nature of sport. Stricter measures should be taken to rid sport of bad language, foul play and interferences with umpires. All players officials, administrators, spectators, the media, sponsors, and parents should adhere to the codes of behaviour. The code of sport ethics for SA has been clearly set out in the South African Sports Charter (Baxter 1994a:18-25).

2.4.6 Political value

All over the world sport is interlinked with the values of the society (Jarvie & Maguire 1994:9-10). Politics forms an integral part of these values. The political influence on sport is noticeable in the foreign policy where sport performances are seen as the criteria for national prestige (Sarakinsky 1995:167). Archer and Bouillon (1982:64) and Sarakinsky (1995:167) did extensive research on sport in South Africa and found that sport was often used as a psychological weapon, to manipulate other racial groups, because group identification in sport encourages national instincts.

Already in Ancient Greece, sport was used to improve the fitness of the society with the objective of preparing for war. The Romans were one of the first civilisations to use sport for military purposes and later to control the masses (Van der Merwe 1990:49-54). The Russians were also known to use sport as preparation for war. They regarded sport as a means to: achieve physical fitness; psychological awareness; the handling of military skills (shooting & skiing) equipping soldiers with; stamina, endurance, fighting spirit and enterprise (Riordon 1980:9 and Blanchard & Cheska 1985:271).

The strongest bond between sport and politics is in the area of nationalism. The founder of the Olympic movement, Pierre de Coubertin describes his rationale behind the movement as follows:

The Olympics unites as in one brush stroke of sunny rays all those principles which promote the perfection of a man (Stolyarov & Sanadze 1984:38).

The Olympic Games was meant to create peace and collaboration - sport free participation between nations and free of politics. This is the Olympic ideal but today it is not always achievable. Moltmann (1989:102) criticises Courbertin's view of sport as containing two political concerns: *The first concern* "enormously soothing pacifying power of sport" in social conflicts: Sport was seen as a link between social classes. It was not supposed to be the effect. In the former USSR, sport was used as a lever of social control offering the Soviet regime a wonderful opportunity to exploit genuine enthusiasm toward Party-inspired goals (Taylor quoted in Sarakinsky 1995:167). The Party-inspired goals were clearly visible in South African sport between 1948-1967. The National Party's policy of racial segregation in sport, resulted in discrimination against non-White participants (Sarakinsky 1995:160).

The *second concern* was "the honour of our country" (Moltmann 1989:102). Sport is therefore politically manipulated in many countries to gain non-political goals. The performances of a countries athletes are used for propaganda, nationally as well as internationally (Sarakinsky 1995:168).

The abovementioned phenomenon is clearly depicted in South Africa's victory in the World Cup Rugby Tournament. The performances of the players was a prestigious event and is seen as reflecting one team, one nation. Consequently South Africa's strength, vitality and image was spread across the world (*The Sunday Times*, 25 June 1995:1).

In the same sense sport is seen as an important nation builder. Dustan (cited in Evans 1990:5) argues that sport in Australia is regarded as a "super-religion", wherein each Australian passionately believes. In South Africa much the same can be said about sport, in particular rugby, being a nation builder (Sarakinsky 1995:171 and *The Sunday Times*, 25 June 1995:1-2). In Canada no other sport has the ability to unite a nation, than ice hockey has (Kidd 1989:69).

Party-politics and interference in sport by the politicians is also noticeable in SA. Internally there was a continual political onslaught to isolate governing bodies of sport in SA (*The Cape Times*, 23 June 1993:5 and Sarakinsky 1995:169-170). Political infighting was very high on the priority list before SA's readmittance to the international arena. The newspapers

contained numerous articles relating to political events in school sport (*Beeld*, 11 Januarie 1992:9 and *The Sunday Times*, 21 February 1993:2). Even internal political interference was found (*Die Burger*, 14 Januarie 1992:10).

The most well-known method of withholding participation is by calling for boycotts. Boycotts of the Olympic Games can be traced to as far back as 1920 and as recently as 1984. This movement, according to Cheffers, Hawkins & Tait (1988:33-36) was regarded as relatively ineffective, illegal, cynical and misguided.

Activist fighting the racial policy in SA used sport as a political weapon. The continual pressure on the government brought about many changes, which of course, was to the benefit of all. In 1979 the government called all sport to be depoliticised which would speed up SA's re-entry into the international arena (*Beleidsorsig RSA* 1989:38-41).

In summary: all the political tension and interference would certainly have disappointed the founder of the IOC. His aim was the improvement and promotion of the value of English sport, the English private school system, and the character building thereof (*Weekly Mail*, 30 July 1992:25).

2.4.7 Economic value

Vast amounts of money are currently involved in sport, either in the form of prize money, facilities, salaries or equipment. The momentous change in technology has changed sport into an enormous business concern (*Beeld*, 16 Julie 1993:1).

MaClean et al (1985:34-35) illustrates that as far back as ancient times, sport and economy have been interlinked. The Greeks took the lead in the development of modern stadiums. The Olympia stadium was not erected without the necessary expense. Provision was made for training, eating, and the sleeping needs of the athletes. Even though the Greeks professed to take part for a single crown, various athletes expected to be substantially and materially rewarded by his city, for the glory which his victory had brought it. The athletes' search for

more lucrative prizes led to the languishing of the old Olympian Games (Young 1984:7 and Freyne 1989:95).

The magnitude of sport as an economic enterprise has affected numerous industries in every country. A number of aspects are touched upon in this section. The developments in sport have resulted in helping sport become a commodity that is produced, marketed and sold to the public. There are a number of economic advantages when staging a sports event of international standard in a country. One contribution to the national economy is in the form of *tourism*. Tourists stimulate the local economy, especially the hotel trade and restaurants, taxis, and other retail businesses (McPherson et al 1989:115 and *The Cape Argus*, 20 January 1993:1). The hosting of the Rugby World Cup in South Africa led to a tremendous number of visitors to the country. Hotels and the transport industry also flourished (*White Paper* 1995:36).

The building and maintenance of sport facilities across the world constitute a multi-million dollar industry (McPherson et al 1989:114). The need for basic sport facilities in SA will provide a significant job-creation avenue within the *construction* industry. Especially if SA should win the bid for the Olympics of 2004 (*The Cape Times*, 30 June 1993:3; *The Daily News*, 21 July 1993:3, and *White Paper* 1995:36).

The number of *professional athletes* are increasing by the day. The economic status of participants is revealed in the astronomical salaries which sports people receive. Sportsmen and -women often earn larger salaries than people in other professions (*Rapport*, 8 Januarie 1995:22). *Careers* in sports medicine, sports law, sports psychology and sports administration and stadium management, are but a few of the opportunities that are created by sport (*White Paper* 1995:36).

Sponsorships offered to sport, gate earnings and expenditures prove that sport is a moneymaking business (*Weekend Argus*, 9 May 1993:17). Companies spend millions of rand on advertising in order to be able to link their products with sport (McPherson et al 1989:115).

The *economic value of sport for the labourers* of a country, was seriously considered in the former Soviet Union. Workers who were physically fit were regarded as an asset to help increase the production of the country. Much the same ideology was advocated in the People's Republic of China (Calhoun 1987:150).

There are, however, various implications related to the economic side of sport. Due to the rising costs of sport equipment not everybody can afford to participate. Entry fees, membership fees and coaching fees are not accessible to everybody. Prize money, and *win-at-all costs* has caused many athletes to turn to alternative methods (the use of stimulants and steroids) to reach the top (Simon 1985:65-70 and Padwe 1989:105).

An article in *Marketing Mix* (1992b:50) indicates that South Africa's renewed involvement in sport, after 30 years of isolation, has resulted in the increase of broadcast rights. The international world has been conditioned into believing that unless you have beaten the infamous South African teams you cannot claim to be the champions. *Media coverage*, especially television has become a number one priority. Due to the cost of broadcasting rights, and the limited air time, broadcasters have to be very selective. High profile sport such as: rugby, cricket, motor sport and golf, are therefore preferred above less popular sport. Sponsors as a result have become very selective when sponsoring a team (*Marketing Mix* 1992b:50).

The *White Paper* (1995:36) suggests that the proposed *state lottery* for SA can help the Sport Trust fund, to fund the various sports adventures. Other sectors of the country such as housing, health and education will also benefit from such a development. The offering of tax rebates will have to be reconsidered, for companies sponsoring sports events serves as an incentive to companies. The scrapping of this incentive in 1992 according to *Marketing Mix* (1992b:44) has resulted in increased financial pressure which the government has to bear for international events.

To summarise: Sport contains economic advantages as well as disadvantages. Many questions arise from the previous comments and need to be answered: Should players be paid for performances? Do school children have to pay to participate in sport? Should teachers receive

payment for coaching? What is the financial responsibility of the state towards sport? This research would, however, like to emphasise the economic advantages of sport for the country, society and the individual.

2.5 CONCLUSION

From the earliest times sport has played a upbuilding, recreational and reconstructive role in the life people. Yet no nation has emphasised physical education as much as the Greeks. Sport formed an important part in the education of humankind and was often included in the daily school programmes. Modern society has revealed a need of regular exercising, to compensate for the loss of physical activity imposed on him by modern civilisation.

With regard to a physiological aspect there is no doubt that sport offers an opportunity to improve health in general. Physical growth and development of motor-skills are stimulated by participation in sport.

The educational value of sport must never be underestimated. It gives rise to the striving of higher levels of performance. Discipline in sport creates the possibility of developing concentration. Proof exists with regard to sport performances leading to good academic performances.

People are in constant contact with other people and in that way his social growth is stimulated and developed. Team and individual sports opportunities help strengthen friendship bonds. Various social problems can be normalised by the participation in sport. During international meetings people from all over the world are brought together to share a common interest namely sport.

Research has provided clarity concerning the contribution that sport has made throughout the centuries not only to the psychological state of people, but serving as a stabilising factor in emotional life. Sport has unknown value to the retarded in terms of the rebuilding of the state of mind. The development of an individual's character finds its roots in sport and sport helps in developing a positive attitude, endurance and sportsmanship.

With regard to an ethical point of view, sport teaches people to prove themselves in participation. Honour and reputation must be placed above greed and materialistic want. By means of their examples they can become prominent in generations to come.

Economically and politically observed, sport can mean a lot to the community as well as to individuals. Sport provides countless working opportunities for thousands across the world. Sport can be politically inspired to the advantage of bringing about change in the society, the country and the world. Yet attempts should be made to keep sport out of the hands of politics. The meaning of an individual's involvement in sport differs from person to person because each person values sport differently.

In order to determine the place of physical education and sport in the curriculum of schools, requires further investigation. This investigation is undertaken in **Chapter Three**.

CHAPTER 3

THE ROLE, PLACE AND VALUE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT FOR THE DEVELOPING CHILD

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In **Chapter Two** an investigation was undertaken of the origins of physical education and sport and the particular value of sport to humankind. The value of sport inevitably leads to recognition of ineluctable link between education and sport. Education is the obvious vehicle for furthering of the role of *physical education* and *sport* in the lives of young children.

Education is a universal phenomenon; throughout the ages all societies have educated their children. Children show a need for education and are dependent on an educator for guidance to adulthood (Van der Walt, Dekker & Van der Walt 1983:22). It is of paramount importance in this study to realise that each person has a particular philosophy of life¹. The educator requires knowledge of people and the implications of this innate need for education. Furthermore, the educator must bear in mind that the essential education includes the optimal development of the child's potential including his/her physical development. There are numerous philosophies of which will be touched on in this chapter. The influences of these philosophies on education, will also be highlighted, as well as the relationship between physical education, sport and education. This in turn should enable one to determine the value and place of sport in the development of the child.

Of particular importance to this study is an education which emphasises the complete development of the child. In this regard Van Schalkwyk (1988:29-33) points out that the complete development of the child requires the development of all his/her latent potential. This includes the development of all aspects of the human being such as his/her physical, intellectual, social, linguistic, and religious potential. Various school subjects are designed

¹ A life philosophy is what one believes, but in another sense, philosophy is why and how one believes (Hamm 1981:1).

for the specific development of specific aspects of the child's being. In this regard, Physical Education plays a major role in the development and disclosion of the child's physical attributes.

Regarding the study of *physical education* and *sport* as an integral part of the school curriculum, this researcher adopts a *developmental psychology* approach. For this reason, the particular place and value of physical education and sport in education will be analysed in accordance with the development of the child. Sport education forms a central place in the curriculum and therefore requires careful re-thinking and planning.

3.2 PHILOSOPHICAL TENETS DETERMINE THE NATURE OF EDUCATION

3.2.1 Varying philosophies about the essential nature of humanity

From the earliest times educationists have described the child within a particular philosophical ideology. The search for answers regarding who and what is humanity, impinges on one of the most complex fields of enquiry into which the philosopher and educationist can venture.

The answers to abovementioned questions reflect conflicting and even incompatible viewpoints. Consider for example, the radical opposing viewpoints of Freud, who saw humankind as psychological beings; Marx who describes humankind as an economic being; Dewey who views humankind as social beings (Dreckmeyer 1991-2:7). Other philosophies that may be added are idealism and pragmatism (Coetzee 1993:1-2). A selection of philosophies will be briefly treated below.

3.2.1.1 Idealism

Idealism was already contemplated by Socrates and Plato as the underlying philosophy of life. Plato (427-347 BCE) defined people as rational beings. Thus the individual was considered to be a reflection of the *cosmic soul* or absolute spirit (Kruger & White 1982:52). Idealists distinguish between two separate entities namely body and soul. Plato was prompted

by his mentor Socrates into inquiring about the *nature of knowledge* (what knowledge is) and the *nature of reality* (what can be known) (Power 1982:73). The main aim of Plato's education was *to devise a theory and a scheme of education which would result in a balanced and harmonious individual and a balanced and harmonious society* (cf Kelly 1987:3).

In educationists who espouse the idealistic viewpoint favour subjects that would shape the character of children such as religious instruction, music, art and science. These are preferred above physical education, and handwork (Van der Walt & Dekker 1983:43). For the idealist the school career is nothing less than real life and it is hereby a preparation for life in society (Power 1982:85). To show that Plato denigrated play he called children who dropped balls, "*clumsy donkeys*"; the silly games children played with their mothers did not belong to the elite (Cohen 1987:20-21).

3.2.1.2 *Naturalism*

The origin of *naturalism* or otherwise known as *realism* also has its root in Greek philosophy. The founders of this philosophy were Aristotle and Democritus in antiquity and later Hobbes, Locke and Hume (England) (Hamm 1981:57-58). Aristotle had a supreme interest in the nature of human thought. He also regarded the individual as a single entity, composed of mind and body (Power 1982:90).

Kelly (1987:15) points out that the French philosopher Rousseau had a great influence on the view of the child. His emphasis in education was on the *natural development* of the child. He suggested that pupils should be provided with opportunities for experiences. *Nature* according to Van der Walt et al (1983:44) is regarded as the end destination of the child where the strongest will be separated from the weakest. It is here that the expression *the survival of the fittest* originated.

3.2.1.3 *Pragmatism*

Kelly (1987:16) explains that this philosophy mainly focuses on a *practical* approach to life. Its main advocate was the American John Dewey. Dewey's educational philosophy advocated

a learning experience where children are facilitated to arrive at an own knowledge and understanding, rather than that of the teacher. Kruger and White (1982:46) define pragmatism as an approach where valuable experience from society is learnt. People are also regarded as products of development, and therefore have the ability to conquer and control nature.

The pragmatist focuses on the maturing and interest shown by the child. Situations are selected which teach children new problems and provide opportunities to solve problems (Hamm 1981:139).

3.2.1.4 The Christian school of thought

This school prefers to regard the individual as a religious being (Schoeman 1983:5-8; Dreckmeyr 1991-2:7, and Henning 1993:56). According to this philosophy, man stands in a vertical God-Man relationship. 2 Corinthians 6:16 (New International Version 1989:1800) provides a guideline to this relationship: "*For we are the temple of the living God. As God has said: 'I will live with them and walk among them, and I will be their God, and they will be my people'*".

The Christian philosopher considers humans as unique beings. No two persons are the same, each has his/her own identity (Van der Walt & Dekker 1982:69), and should be considered as a whole and not divided into separate components (De Vries 1985:39). Thus one should emphasise a balanced development of the child (cf Dreckmeyr 1991-2:8). The various aspects such as the: physical, intellectual, faith, emotional, social and ethical, have to be considered in education. All knowledge related to humankind should be seen in relation to God (Schoeman 1983:157). People are the crown of creation: created according to the image of God, and they are in three fold relationship: towards God, his neighbour and the world (Kruger & White 1982:56).

Christian philosophy regards humankind to be experiencing various aspects of reality, or modes of existence (Schoeman 1980:20). Education is a temporal entity, and has been made possible by the creation of typical structural laws by the Creator of all things. Both Schoeman

(1983:26) and Van der Walt and Dekker (1982:9) summarise the aspects of reality that have to be taken into account when educating a child, the: pistical; ethical, juridical, aesthetic, economical, social, lingual, historical, logical, psychical, biotic, physical, kinetic, spatial, and numerical. It is the responsibility of the educator to have knowledge of these aspects and accordingly develop children to their optimal potential².

3.2.1.5 A developmental psychology approach

According to Meyer (1990:3) developmental psychology is defined as the study of humankind *from birth until death*. It comprises an enormous area of study, more than merely describing the development of man through the *various stages of life*. The main object of developmental psychology stressed is *man as a totality* (Vasta, Haith & Miller 1992:25). Developmental psychologists are interested in changes which occur systematically as the child becomes older.

Developmental psychology is the scientific study of *how we grow and develop*. Davenport (1989:1) explains that this includes trying to understand topics such as: emotional development, personality development, the development of intelligence, thinking, communication, and living with others.

Throughout the ages, history has witnessed some remarkable differences of opinion about the nature of childhood. Various theories have emphasised different aspects of development. Crain (1992:4-5) identifies two eminent philosophers that set the scene for the fundamental division in developmental psychology namely, John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau. The English philosopher John Locke was an environmentalist. He saw the child as an *apprentice adult*. Concerning the development of the child, environment shaped the child's mind. His emotions developed through associations, repetitions and imitation. The main aim of

² This viewpoint of education is that espoused by Dooyeweerdian philosophy which divides reality into 15 aspects of reality which comprises all epistemic reality.

education was considered, self-control. In order to self-discipline, the child's physical well-being had to receive attention. Children had to have plenty of exercise in order to make their bodies strong. Children needed to play outdoors in all seasons to teach them to endure the hardships or all kinds of weather (Crain 1992:4-5).

Jean-Jacques Rousseau advocated a free and unrestrained environment within which the child should be educated. This environment would enable the child to develop into a healthy adult, through active experiment and investigation. He preferred orderly and sequential development (Gardner 1982:140). Rousseau maintained that children grew according to nature's plan, which encourages them to develop different capacities and modalities, at different stages (Vasta et al 1992:31).

Both Crain (1992:102) and Vasta et al (1992:31) elaborate on Piaget's structural theory of child development. Piaget distinguishes between four stages of thinking in the development of the child: The sensory-motor stage (0-2 years); pre-operational stage (2-7 years); concrete operations (7-11 years); and formal operations (12 - adulthood).

In summary: Each of the above philosophies define people from a different presupposition and these philosophies in turn spawned of different views of education.

Thus: Idealism sees the child as compartmentalised according to educational needs, namely physical and psychological; *Naturalists* advocate an education that equips a child physically, only the strongest in life survived; *Pragmatists* are more interested in an education of a practical nature - the child has to be useful to society. Christian educators are more balanced, in that all aspects of people are important, in education: psychical, physical, aesthetical, economic, lingual, historical, biotic, etc. The human being is educated as a total human being.

Despite the differences in approach one must note that there are four common aspects of importance in the development of the child that are touched upon. The four areas stressed throughout are: the psychological; physical; intellectual/cognitive and social.

The question which arises in this research is: Which is more important; the academic programme or *physical education and sport education*? Does sport fulfil a rightful place in the present sport programme, and what is the value of sport for the child? In order to decide this question, and bearing in mind that the development of the child is important, a *developmental psychology* approach is chosen in this project. The reason for this is as follows:

A developmental psychology approach is used because the basis of school sport is the *total development* of the child. There is a link between a developmental psychology approach and sport. Physical education and sport hold incalculable value for the emotional, cognitive, social and physical development of the child. These aspects complement each other and can therefore not be ignored in education, since the child has to be seen as an integrated being.

3.2.2 The development of the child

Despite all various approaches in developmental psychology Gallahue, Werner & Luedke (1975:4-10); Vannier and Gallahue (1978:104-147); Schickedanz, Schickedanz & Forsyth (1982:x-xi); Lievegoed (1985:29-49); Beaty (1986:35); Meyer (1990:11-13), and Sullivan (1990:iii) all agree on the various processes in the general development of the child. The individual is a unique, yet complex, being, developing in various areas of his/her life, as mentioned above, at different stages. This particular investigation only singles out areas, namely *physical* and *social* development.

3.2.2.1 Physical development

Physical development concerns the growth of the body and the changes in the internal structure and functioning of the body. The stages of childhood are characterised as follows:

Conception till birth

- The *prenatal development* of the child is calculated to be 280 days or 40 weeks.

- *Conception* takes place within two weeks after implantation. The zygote begins to develop.
- *Development of the embryo*: eyes; beginning of ears; a mouth that opens and closes; a nose; hands and feet (fingers and toes still webbed); arms with elbows and legs with knees; primitive circulatory system; a heart that beats, some kidney and liver functions and a spinal cord develop between 3-8 weeks.
- *Weeks 8-40* sees further development of the fetus (Bee 1989:48-50 and Vasta et al 1992:120-121).

Infancy (0-2 years)

- *Newborn*: good at many perceptual skills; poor motor control (cannot hold head up yet);
- Can *focus eyes* on the same point; responds to *sounds*; reacts to *smells*; discriminates between salty and sweet tastes;
- Actions made by babies at this age are purely at random and due to *reflexes* (Bee 1989:91-92);
- *Extremely rapid physical development*;
- Begins to *reach*, *grasp* and *crawl* (Schickedanz et al 1982:148 and Biehler & Hudson 1986:212-213).

Toddlerhood (1,5 - 2 years)

- Growth less rapid;
- Further motor skills begin to emerge;
- Coordination and balance improves; learns to run and climb;
- Finer motor-skills emerge;
- The main preoccupation of the child is playing. By means of playing the child gathers information regarding his surroundings (Schickedanz et al 1982:220).

Preschool Child (3-6 years)

- Physical skills develop rapidly;
- Perform complicated locomotor tasks (hopping and skipping; throwing and moving arms);
- Fine motor skills (buttoning small buttons on shirt; tie shoe laces);
- Exploring the interpersonal world through playing (Gardner 1982:155 and Schickedanz et al 1982:227).

School-age period (7-11 years)

- Increasing in height and weight;
- The acquisition of both fine (Hobbies and crafts) and gross motor skills (games and organised sport);
- Motor skill development can contribute to a child's sense of independence and self-esteem, as well as to social and cognitive development (Schickedanz et al 1982:380 and Biehler & Hudson 1986:437).

The Adolescent (12-18 years)

- Physical changes are dramatic; body growth (height, weight and skeletal growth) and sexual development (Gardner 1982:546);
- Physical skills reach a peak, and physical fitness contributes to good health and improves self-confidence (Schickedanz et al 1982:483).

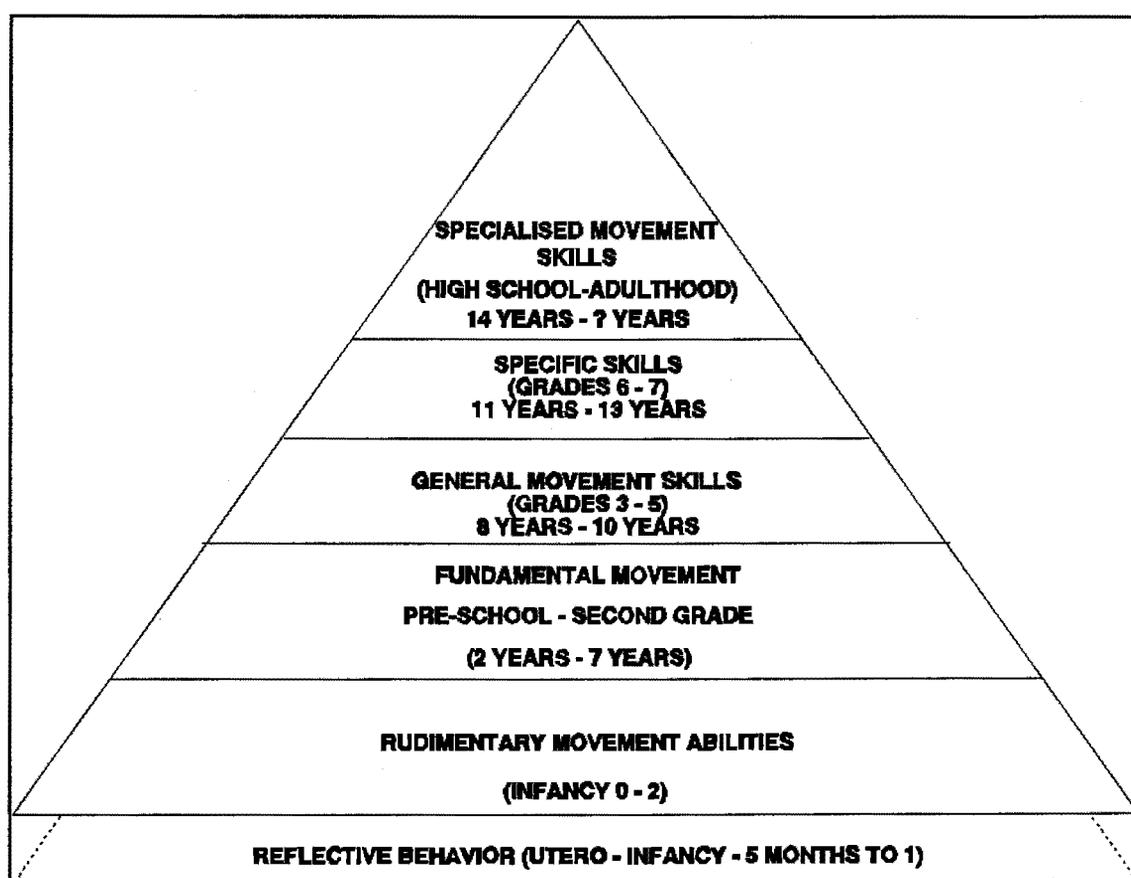
With regard the child's physical development, it is noticeable that health and motor coordination are all reciprocal to each other. These also influence the child's learning, social relationship, and attitude toward himself. This is important motor development for physical development (Meyer 1990:11). Biehler and Hudson (1986:439) stress the fact that spontaneous activities of children are inadequate to facilitate cardiovascular health. For this reason the child needs a wide variety of bodily experiences. Growth of the body, and the

internal structure goes hand in hand with obtaining gradual control of the body and physical movements.

Movement is one of the prerequisites of man's total existence. The child's entire life is centred around exploration. During his exploration the child comes to know more about his own identity and reality. Reality is an unknown entity to the child that invites the child to give it meaning (Sarafino & Armstrong 1980:246-247). Play as means of exploration, forms most of the daily routine and is essential to the child as well as to education. Play is seen as important for growth and development (Johnson, Christie & Yawkey 1987:i).

FIGURE 3.1

The phases of motor development



(Gallahue et al 1975:6)

Gallahue et al (1975:6-11) aptly summarises the above content as the *phases of motor development*. These phases help to identify where *most* children are in the development of their movement skills. The diagram presented above (FIG 3.1), serves as an indicator as to when teachers and parents should emphasise the development of different degrees of skills. These developmental phases account for the different needs, interests, and capabilities of children.

3.2.2.2 *Social development*

People are social beings, born into a social world. Every aspect of a child's development, including physical, intellectual, and cognitive development, is affected by society. From birth children form many social relationships (Vasta et al 1992:406). Social development during the various ages is illustrated below.

□ **Infancy, toddler and preschool age**

Bee (1989:97) indicates that moments after birth the small infant makes contact with society in the person of his/her mother. Babies react on instinct and are focused on looking, touching and exploring their surroundings. Survival is dependent on the providence of consistent care over an extended period. Newborn infants have the capacity to use their social skills to entice others, attract and keep the attention of adults.

Parents regulate the basic biological processes regarding feeding and whilst being awake, and they harmonise the environmental requirements (Schaffer 1989:191). The typical tendency of infants is to cling to their mothers to evidence dependence. At the age of four they seem to grow out of this "babyish behaviour". They spend less and less time with their parents and more and more time with other children. Peer-orientated behaviour sets in when children are sent to nursery school. Initially children preferably play with only one child, then later with others (Bee 1989:415). The preschool child develops the ability to use language and can thus communicate. The child-child relationships are very important and have lasting effects on social development and behaviour.

□ **School age**

Children develop newly found abilities to use language in order to control their behaviour and influence others. Social circles broaden beyond parents and siblings to include peers, teachers, the media of communication and other societal institutions (Gardner 1982:275). Individual friendships start to play a larger role in the social patterns of the child (Bee 1989:416). School age friendships become increasingly cooperative, intimate and durable (Sarafino & Armstrong 1986:171).

According to Van Rensburg (1991:69) family life, peer and group interactions offer children numerous opportunities to learn and practice social behaviour. The great landmark in socialising, is the attainment of a mature moral outlook. Children begin to understand the rules of games. They show a strong desire for adventure and competition.

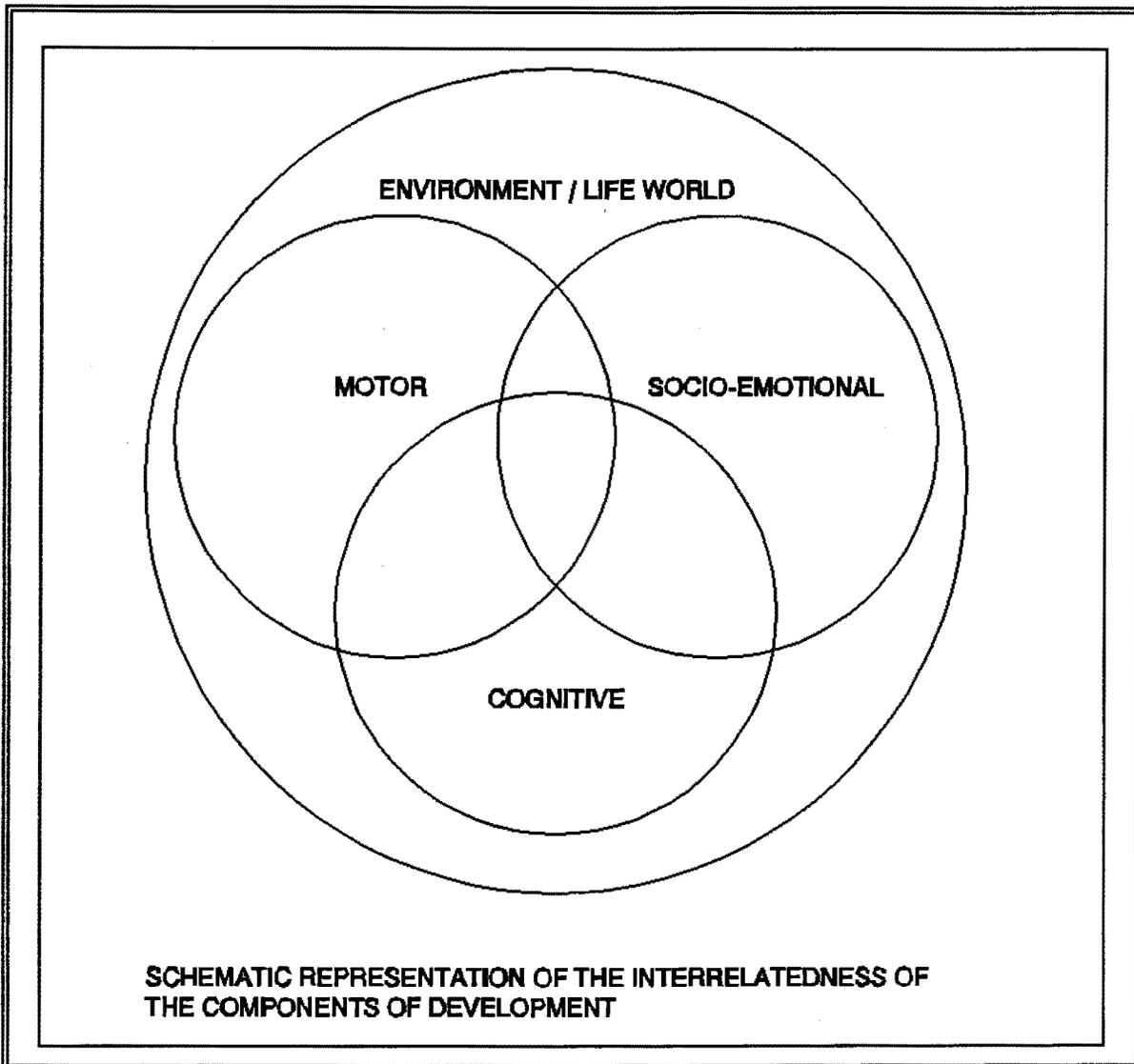
□ **Adolescent**

Biehler and Hudson (1986:582), and Faw and Belkin (1989:442) stress that relations with peers assume greater importance in the lives of adolescents. Adolescents have to acquire knowledge, skills and values, that will enable them to become effective members of society. Their behaviour is determined mainly by social, cultural and situational factors. According to Schickedanz et al (1982:519) keeping the adolescent busy with physical activities helps to ease this stressful period in his life. Taggart, Cowan and Alexander (1994:5) describe the school as the only place where some children and adolescents experience sport, it is therefore important to create the opportunity for at least one positive sports experience; be it in physical education or in sport.

The following diagram (FIG 3.2) in McClenaghan and Gallahue (1978:10), illustrates the total integration of the different components (parts) of development:

FIGURE 3.2

Schematic presentation of the interrelatedness of the components of development



McClenaghan and Gallahue (1978:10)

Movement must be seen as an essential component of the harmonious development of the child.

In summary: the process of development of the child is made up of a series of alternating periods of rapid growth and periods of consolidation. Child development must be seen as a integrated whole. Cognitive development, social development, and physical (motor) development all interact to produce the character of the child. This reasoning helps us to

understand that each child is a unique human being. The environment within which the child grows up, influences his cognitive, physical and social development. It is therefore important that all four aspects of development be considered in the education of the child. With regard to this investigation, the importance of *physical activities* as part of the school curriculum needs to be indicated.

3.3 THE GENERAL NATURE OF EDUCATION

Throughout the ages education was viewed differently by each society. This was apparent after studying a few philosophies of life which exist (cf 3.2). *Education* is defined as an *assertative interaction* between the educator and the child that has to be guided to adulthood (Van Zyl & Duminy 1980:2). The educational process, according to Wilkinson (1993:38-39), should be aimed at the total and optimal development of the child with the aim of attaining a certain call in life. During this process the educator guides the child according to certain valuable criteria and contents.

The education given to animals only exists in the forms of conditioning (stimulus and response), dressage and coaching. According to Van der Walt et al (1983:81) education is a phenomenon that is related to human beings and not animals.

A particular approach to education takes place in accordance with a certain philosophy and its curricula are planned accordingly. Education of a more formal nature is teaching, and this brings to mind a whole range of activities that take place in kindergartens, schools, colleges, institutes and universities (Bowen & Hobson 1987:1).

Teaching, according to De Vries (1985:38), has to do with the opportunity which education provides children in order to know what they previously did not know. Van Zyl and Duminy (1980:2-6) see it in much the same light as the transferring of knowledge and skills from one person to another. Teaching is divided into two categories namely, formal and informal teaching. The latter being teaching received at home and the first more planned, organised and systematic presentations thereof. Steiner (quoted in Wilkinson 1993:15) defines teaching

or instruction as the teaching of subjects, which should be a means to an end and not an end in itself.

Education cannot take place without the necessary content. Developmental psychologists maintain that this content should be structured around the physical, social, emotional and language development of the child (Schickedanz et al 1982:x-xi). Ferreira (1980:5), on the other hand goes further and emphasises the task of the educator as leading, encouraging, motivating and equipping the child with norms, values, skills and attitudes to be able to fit into society. Sport forms part of the so-called skills that are transferred to the child. The question arises as to what is the place of physical education and sport in the curriculum and whether it is therefore educationally accountable.

3.3.1 The relationship between play, physical education, sport and education

The origin of physical education and sport as discussed in **Chapter Two** (cf 2.2) should be sought in the games children play. To some, play is trivial and non-essential, while others believe play forms part of the educational process of the child. Many see it as important for growth and development, in other words, the physical, social and emotional development of the child (Johnson et al 1987:1-6 and Osness 1992:356).

Play contributes to the *physiological development* of the child. The Greeks emphasised the strong and positive physiological effect play had on people. The goals of sport were health and a longer life (Weiskopf 1982:76-77). Sigmund Freud, described play as having an important role to play in the *emotional development* of children (Weiskopf 1982:73; Cohen 1987:3-33, and Johnson et al 1987:7).

Rousseau stressed that children should *learn to perform every exercise which encourages the development of the ability of the body*. Rousseau's work was aimed at the *educational and cognitive* uses of play (Cohen 1987:22-25). According to Jean Piaget, the Swiss psychologist, children engage in the type of play that matches their particular level of development (Johnson et al 1987:7-8). Each child has his own ability and thus plays in his or her own way. Play thus contributes to the cognitive development of the child (Weiskopf 1982:74).

The *social value* of play was emphasised by developmental psychologist Sutton Smith, Curtis, John Bertelson and Joe Benjamin. Children were urged to get off the streets and this was done by the erection of playgrounds. This provided children with enough space and equipment to express themselves (Cohen 1987:31-32).

Whether used as a method to study the development of the child or as a method to improve the development of the child, play cannot be ignored in the life of the child. Research over the years has provided teachers with a guideline regarding the characteristics of children's play. There are basically three stages of play: (1) individual play (2) playing along side others, and (3) playing with others in groups (Beaty 1986:30 and Johnson et al 1987:49). Only at the ages between 7-10 years when children play with others, do they show the inclination to seek more competitive games. It is at this stage that play takes a more serious form, resulting in sport. Play thus forms the basis of physical education and sport.

Physical education and sport are important because movement forms an integral part of the early stage of development of the child. Activities learnt during primary school years are of utmost importance and have an lasting effect on the child. For optimal physical and personality development, the school age child needs a wide variety of experiences in bodily movements (Biehler and Hudson 1986:439). For this reason Van Zijl and Putter (1987:86) and Osness (1992:356) stress the importance of properly administered physical education and sport. A further responsibility of the educator is to provide opportunities for the child to express him/herself, to become actively involved in his surroundings and to give meaning to reality. The school cannot assume that the child will discover the meaning of his/her existence later in life (Smit 1988:123).

Thompson (1991:4.13) adds to the debate regarding the importance of children's basic movements for physical activity programmes (cf FIG 3.3). From birth, the child learns different patterns of movement. All children go through stages as they learn basic movements that will later help with specific athletic skills.

FIGURE 3.3*Patterns of movement*

<p>0 - 2 Years</p> <p>Beginning movements (crawling, walking)</p>	<p>2 - 7 Years</p> <p>Basic movements (running, jumping, throwing, catching, kicking)</p>	<p>7 - 10 Years</p> <p>Sports related movements</p>
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Adapted from Thompson (1991:4.13)

The primary and junior secondary phases provide an excellent opportunity for the establishment of basic sports abilities. Priority should be given to the development of perceptual-motor skills, bilateral coordination, development of these abilities all within the context of play (Terblanche 1986:86).

Theron and Bothma (1988:212) emphasise the presentation of meaningful extra-curricular activities, which contain possibilities for expression. This will enable teachers to purposefully and positively channel the interests of children. Especially during adolescence sport and physical education can be meaningful to help cope the stressful changes.

The above comments stress the need for sport education and physical education. The term "*sport education*" implies that sports activities that are offered as part of the school programme, ought to contribute to the educational outcomes outlined in school policy (Sport Education 1987:3). The question arises as to exactly where sport education fits in the curriculum. Sport education should form part of all the components of a comprehensive physical education programme: It is about sport, through sport and participation in sport (Sport Education 1987:7 and Osness 1992:356-360).

Physical education is about: the *development of the knowledge; skills; attitudes and values* related to: fitness; dance; athletics; aquatics; gymnastics; outdoor adventure activities, and

a wide range of games and sports activities (Confederation of Australian Sport 1984:62 and Evans 1990:51).

Sport Education should lead to responsible games and sport practises as well as to healthy, active recreational activities. Furthermore it should lead to positive habits that will help to compensate for the reduction in physical fitness. Correct sport education should provide self-control, fair play, mutual respect, responsibility and honesty (Evans 1990:50). Sport according to Van der Stoep (1982:74), and Botha (1985:52) should serve humankind and the community and not the other way round. It should be emphasised more and more in this changing world, beset with many ills such as drugs, steroids, foul play and violence.

In conclusion, the goal of physical education and sport participation must be seen as preparation for life and as an integral part of educative teaching. This researcher is of opinion that children should take part in organised sport and physical education. It contributes to the emotional, social and physical development of the child. To summarise the aims of sport education are:

- To *develop skills and fitness* specific to particular sports to provided students the experience of success through enjoyable participation;
- To encourage *participation* by all students;
- To provide opportunity for *playing a wide range* of sports of the local and wider community;
- To develop the capacity *to make rational decisions* about ethical issues in sport that will lead to good player and spectator behaviour;
- To develop and apply knowledge and understanding of the *capabilities and limitations* of the human body in the performance of sport;
- To contribute through participation to the *social, cognitive, emotional and aesthetic aspects* of the individual's development (Sport Education 1987:9 and Evans 1990:50).

3.3.2 Physical education and sport as educational instruments

Sport can be regarded as an educational instrument that can help in the *development of the child's personality* (Osness 1992:356). Through participation in sport the child learns discipline and self-expression. The child discovers his/her own limits and potential. Sport helps the child to act independently and to be more motivated. They learn to handle challenges in life (Van Rensburg 1991:55). Participation in sport can help to overcome weaknesses and to accommodate and develop personality traits (Van Rensburg 1991:69). Using sport as an educational instrument will lead to the *enrichment of the quality of life*. This is essential as we enter a decade of communication and a technical environment (Osness 1992:356).

Sport aims at developing the total individual. The educator requires knowledge and understanding of the complicated growth patterns of people. Education is aimed at improving the quality of life and sport can be used to obtain this quality (McEwan 1984:3).

During *adolescence internal and external frustrations* appear to be most stressful. The individual is very confused about his/her role in society and finds it difficult to form a life philosophy. Religious values, political values, social concepts and questions regarding identity seem to be complicated. The majority of adolescents seem to make the transition from childhood to adulthood. Others turn to deviant behaviour patterns, such as, delinquency, drug use and abuse and even suicide (Sullivan 1990:75-80). Physical education and sport can be used to help deviate the stressfulness of everyday life and keep the adolescent positively occupied (*White Paper* 1995:35).

The importance of physical education and sport in education is acknowledged by the *White Paper* (1995:36). School sport is the single most important feeder system for sport in general. It is a nursery for the nation and facilitates the learning process. Sport helps to convey the importance and values of health, welfare, the economy and education. Horkel (1992:201) stresses the ever increasing important role of physical education. The values of physical education to health have been ignored and unappreciated. Especially in the present state of bad health and a decrease in fitness in many countries.

In the school's involvement with the child, the child is educated to adulthood. Therefore sport should be included as one of the important educational instruments. During the primary school phase each child should be granted the opportunity to encounter a wide variety of sports activities. Mass participation in a number of activities will ensure that children through their own experience can make a choice later in life. A wide variety will help to stop boredom. Negativity can also be cancelled out (Oschman 1986:70 and Evans 1990:13-14).

Evans (1990:18) and Osness (1992:356-360) indicate that the ideal situation to learn various movements, is created in well-organised physical education programmes during the primary school phase. These movements vary from dance, swimming, gymnastics and general skills required for other sport events. After acquiring the basic skills children can then get involved in competitions in the form of modified games (sport). These competitions will only be used in physical education, then in larger groups as part of the extra-curricular programme and much later against other schools.

In conclusion: Physical education and sport as educational instruments, can be utilised to form the child via the physical. Thereby the child is equipped for life. Both effectively applied as an instrument in education lead to the total development of the child (psychological, physical, intellectual and social development). Individual traits also have to be catered for. Children spend more hours than before in school and sport can be used to cancel out possible boredom that could exist.

The child lives in a ever changing society and is faced with considerable stress. Too mention only a few; crime and violence, poverty, working or jobless parents, drugs and alcohol, abuse - physical and verbal, limited career opportunities et cetera. Sport can help to eliminate possible stress. A look into the value of sport for the development of the child is therefore of paramount importance. Values are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

3.4 THE VALUE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

In **Chapter Two** (cf 2.4) the value of sport was touched on. Although various aspects now overlap in this section, the contribution of physical education and sport and the influence on the development of the child needs to be investigated further.

The value of sport within a certain culture according to Coleman (1989:21), is not always understood and sometimes appear to be contradictory. Since earliest times sport formed part of communities. In this regard sport and the values it portrays has supplied insight into the understanding about people. Sport has provided a means for understanding how people live, work, think and play.

One of the most difficult tasks a teacher has, is to motivate children to get involved in the school activities. Sport is one of the easiest ways of improving involvement. There is nothing that satisfies a parent more, than seeing the sport fields occupied by children and sport coaches. The physical and educational values of well organised programmes are indefinite (McEwan 1984:3).

Various values of sport for children range from skills, health, fun and amusement, understanding one self, psychological characteristics, social values, and to a deeper understanding of human nature and society. Physical education and sport programmes organised at school level, or sport in the community, has to be planned to provide certain values to individuals or to the community at large. The ensuing paragraphs briefly discuss the values of physical education and sport for the child.

It is widely acknowledged, around the world, that physical education and sport have a positive effect on the development of the child. Even though there are an unlimited number of values only a selected number are briefly discussed:

3.4.1 The promotion of immediate and long-term benefits

Physical education and school sport programmes should provide and promote long term benefits. For this particular reason the primary school phase is the best opportunity for the development of basic sport skills. The more the child participates the better his physical skills will develop. Between the ages of 10 and 13, is the most critical stage to promote a positive attitude towards lifelong participation in sport (Confederation of Australian Sport 1984:62 and Terblanche 1986:85). Osness (1992:360) and the NSC (*White Paper* 1995:10) support this view by stating that if adult participation is desired in physical activity, motivation should be laid down at a very early age. This is achievable in the physical education programme.

Nieuwoudt (1988:230) stresses that during the elementary phase, each child should be provided with ample opportunities to build his/her performance potential as high as possible. Educationists therefore have a very important responsibility. As Zeigler (1982:140-141) states, children have to be provided with the possibility to develop competency in play that will provide a firm foundation for joyful and healthful involvement in physical education and sport. Participation in developmental physical activity in later life is also included.

Oschman (1986:63) acknowledges that this prospect is possible on the grounds that, during the primary school phase, children are very willing to partake in a wide range of opportunities. This should be cultivated in the physical education programme. By providing a wide spectrum, a love for sport can be nurtured. Sport will then remain a free choice during high school as well as after school. Thus the value of well-organised sport cannot remain unnoticed. It will lead to multiple outcomes.

3.4.2 Higher levels of fitness

Without a doubt, sport correctly organised, develops fitness in children (Nieuwoudt 1988:228 and Rychtecky 1992:393-410). Concern has been expressed regarding the level of fitness of all children in SA (*White Paper* 1995:17-18) and in Europe (Horkel 1992:201). The reasons for inactivity range from the limited number of different sports offered, to disparities in the provision of physical education and sport (Nieuwoudt 1988:228 and *White Paper* 1995:3).

According to Rychtecky (1992:410) physical activities stimulate growth and development and it is absolutely important for the growing child. It promotes blood circulation, respiration and digestion. Physical fitness reduces the number of psychological diseases and changes the life patterns and thoughts of people from a once passive, to a positive, active and healthy person.

In this regard Erbach (1984:32) underlines the argument by stating that participation in sport and physical education has become an irreplaceable field of physical and psychic development and completion of the human being. For this reason Osness (1992:356-360) states that it has become acceptable that physical education and sport are important for health, social and the psychic well-being.

3.4.3 Better health

Throughout the centuries it has been accepted that sport contributes to better health (*ACHPER National Journal* 1984:62 and Confederation of Australian Sports 1984:61-62). Physical activity is necessary to support normal growth in children. It increases bone density and mineralization. Horkel (1992:201) comments that scientific tests have proven that the inactivity during childhood has related to many heart diseases, nervous disorders, diseases of the respiratory and circulatory system and a number of orthopaedic disorders, later in life. The *White Paper* (1995:35) indicates that by improving the physical fitness of the members of society will result in a decrease in health expenses.

Oschman (1986:69) concurs that inactivity by children also leads to the delay and underdevelopment of large muscle groups. Small muscle coordination is also effected in that it develops onesidedly. A further result is unnatural, unhealthy, unfit and bad physical development.

Encouraging participation in physical education and sport at an early age, will encourage participation later in life and help eliminate the mentioned disorders.

3.4.4 Competition

Competition is a form of self-evaluation which is part of human existence. Competition is found within various playing environments and games. It contributes to the child's involvement in play. Snyder and Spreitzer (1983:33-34) emphasise that aspects such as, obedience to rules, discipline, sacrifice, hard work, teamwork, alertness, precision and the ability to make instant strategic and tactical decisions are taught in competition.

Not only is competition encountered on the sport field but also in everyday living. During the middle childhood years children seek challenges and can therefore be introduced to competitions and rules (Schickedanz et al 1982:379). The Confederation of Australian Sport (1984:64) suggests that children between 10-13 years should be developed physically, socially and psychologically to a point where they are eager, ready and willing to participate in sport.

3.4.5 Nationalism - patriotism and love for country

Riordan (1980:23) indicates that sport forms an important instrument in the development of nationalism. Patriotism and love for the country was the main aim of sport participation in the Russian sport system.

Alongside nationalism Bedford (*The Citizen*, 2 March 1992:39) expresses the need for black sports heroes in SA - "They need to be taught in schools". Sarakinsky (1995:176) explains the role of sports heroes to be an important value which was included in the school sport and physical education programme. Since 1940, heroes served as role models for young white children displaying attributes such as pride, fearlessness, skilfulness, integrity, fair-mindedness. Rugby was considered the national sport. The inclusion of physical education in the curriculum was meant to achieve the same results. Paradoxically, this role of sport changed in 1985 when the government moved towards promoting multi-racial school sport in SA. The idea was to bring people together.

The day the South African Springbok rugby team won the World Cup Rugby tournament was probably the biggest day ever in South African sports history. Rugby previously the nation

builder of Whites, was only then the nation builder of all races. The motto "*one team, one nation*", reunited all people across all denominations (*The Sunday Times*, 25 June 1995:1-2).

3.4.6 Formation of positive attitudes towards oneself

Van Rooyen (1990:49) stresses that physical education and sport contribute to the development of a positive self-esteem of the child. Through sport the child learns to know his/her own body, his/her limitations and his/her potential. Games teach children more about themselves. Theron and Bothma (1988:117) suggest that informal activities offer more opportunities for children to establish relationships and attitudes than in formal class situations. If children perform well they immediately feel good about themselves. Schickedanz et al (1982:379) emphasise the need for more of these opportunities which will enable children to test themselves in terms of success and failure. Good motor coordination and strength increases a child's independence and self-esteem.

According to Thomas, Lee and Thomas (1988:181-202) doing ongoing evaluations in the physical education class provides the child with information regarding his/her physical fitness (power, endurance & flexibility). Building on the positive aspects and helping to improve the weaker aspects will improve the child's self-esteem.

3.4.7 The provision of opportunities for socialisation

Sport offers the opportunity for parents and children to move closer together. The shy person can become part of the partnership if he/her competes in sport (Lamb 1985:55). Sport enthusiasts according to Terblanche (1986:86) have the opportunity to get together to discuss their particular interest in sport, thereby getting to know each other better. The amount of children participating in sport is an indication of how the children experience the school situation and how happy they are (Garbers 1980:83). The National Health and Medical Research Council (1988:39) argues that children need to socialise and mix with other children of the same peer group. Through sport participation the socialising opportunities are far greater.

Mass participation offers a wide range of opportunities for underprivileged children. By doing this all performances, big or small can be acknowledged. Children learn to communicate better with others (Van Rooyen 1990:50). Well-organised sport programmes fulfil the emotional and social needs of children (McEwan 1984:3). Children participating in physical education and sport accept the social way of life better.

Looking at the social development of the adolescent, recognition from peer group members is high on their agenda (Schickedanz et al 1982:511). Creating opportunities in sport provide adolescents with the necessary contact and peer group affiliation they desire (Barnard 1987:314).

3.4.8 Participation in physical education and sport involves the total human being

Wilkinson (1993:36-37) points out that the harmonious development of people is aimed at the total development of the individuals and his/her personality, since people consist of both body and mind. The development of the intellectual aspects are interrelated with the development of the physical.

Thomas et al (1988:5) and Osness (1992:356-360) stress the need for a quality physical education programme to develop the total education of the child. Programmes should be aimed at the development of: motor skills; metabolism; the psychosocial; the body structure and cognition.

Thomas et al (1988:5) emphasise that the child's physical needs go beyond food and shelter. By providing opportunities for daily vigorous physical activity children acquire good health.

3.4.9 Sport moulds character and develops morals

Sport at its best contributes to positive character and personality development. It is therefore often described as a 'character-building' agent because it teaches values of self-improvement, how to perform to one's full potential and how to win (Snyder & Spreitzer 1983:33-34). During sport participation participants have to abide by the rules and regulations. According

to Botha (1982:23-24) this creates a sense of the formation of attitudes. Sports results in the development of character on and off the field. Arnold (1984:275) indicates in this regard that the examples of the coaches as well as parents contribute to the child's perception of behaviour.

Participation in sport also contributes to the formation of morals and social values. Simon (1985:153) explains this benefit as the development of moral virtues and vices. Sport involves millions of people and demonstrates the importance of values such as loyalty, dedication, integrity and courage.

3.4.10 Physical education and sport comply with the criteria of education

The history of the "Palaestra and Gymnasia" in ancient Greece expresses the relationship between sport and the educational value thereof. In this regard Coetzee (1981:82) points out that the role of sport in education has been motivated in scientific research. On international level the "International Charter of Physical Education and Sport"- UNESCO, stresses the important part sport has to form in the educational system (Confederation of Australian Sport 1984:63). Sport and physical education in schools contributes to the emotional, moral, aesthetic, physical and intellectual development of the child (Johnson et al 1987:1-6). Dewey (in Coetzee 1981:96) specifies education not as the preparation for life, but life itself. He promoted a wide range of activities in school that fall outside the academic activities. Sport therefore, should not be merely an extra-mural activity and physical education not merely a time filler. Both should be closely linked and integrated with the whole school curriculum.

To summarise: the value of physical education and sport should never be underestimated. Both contribute to the motivations of children to achieve the highest possible goals namely physical fitness and better health. It stimulates the development of the intellectual, personality, self-esteem, concentration, endurance, provides pleasure, provides an opportunity for competition. Participation in sport teaches discipline and sportsmanship, and provides a better quality of life.

The participation of children in physical education and sport helps to promote a healthy atmosphere in schools. In the social context they help individuals to develop to the utmost. As an educational tool they can not be excluded from the curriculum. All possible values must be incorporated in the physical education and sport programmes of children. It strengthens psychological, physiological, cognitive and sociological development. To conclude, all the values considered important by society are transferred by sport and therefore incorporated in the curriculum in the form of physical education and school sport.

3.5 THE PLACE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME OF THE CHILD

3.5.1 Introduction

Physical education and sport form an integral part of the education programme as illustrated in the previous chapters. The values of sport for the child make it impossible to exclude sport and physical activity from the curriculum. Until recently the place of physical education and sport in the curriculum and in the education of the child has seldom been criticised. Is this because it is regarded an essential part of the educational process?

According to Landman (1983:89) it is generally accepted that the role of sport in society is of utmost importance to the education of the child. Through play, games, movement, physical activity and sport the child is educated. It is regarded a basic everyday need of the child.

Vannier and Gallahue (1978:3-5) substantiate the fact that physical activity forms the very centre of the lives of children. It is the centre of their development and has numerous implications for their cognitive and affective development as well as for their motor development. A well-planned physical education programme will contribute to a well-balanced sport programme. If all the needs, interests, and developmental level of children are met, it will make important contributions to their total development.

The child discovers him/herself and the world around him/her through movement. Adults express themselves through "words" and children through "movement". We must therefore provide them ample opportunities for expression. Movement is essential to all human beings. If our hearts stop beating or our lungs cease to exchange used oxygen for new oxygen, we will soon die (Vannier & Gallahue 1978:3-5 and Kirchner 1990:17-31 & 159-171). We therefore need physical activity to enhance our development.

Primitive society depended on their skills to move in order to survive. Their surroundings and hostile environment forced them to use their abilities to secure food, erect shelters and to drive away the enemy. Primitive man had to learn to use his/her body or they would have died (Coakley 1986:44 and Van der Merwe 1990:1-3). Today modern society also needs movement to help him in functioning fully. Where primitive societies placed their needs on the physical, modern man places his/her needs on a struggle against increased emotional, social and mental stresses. The physical needs however do not cease to exist (Diem:1960:6-8 and Vannier & Gallahue 1978:3-5).

Human beings are thus total beings and have to develop in all areas if they want to function to their fullest potential. The growth and development of the child includes the development of the physical, social, mental and emotional growth. The relationship between these aspects must be understood and incorporated in the physical activity and sport programme.

As Arnheim and Pestolesi (1978:55-85) and Vannier and Gallahue (1978:3-7) state physical education and sport are vital ingredients in the school curriculum. They can both be viewed as educational tools. This tool makes major contributions to the broad aims of education: (1) by helping children learn to use their bodies more effectively, and (2) by helping them to get to know their world and people around them through movement. Physical activity develops alongside the other subjects. It can be incorporated with other subjects. This enhances the total development of the child. Social studies, language, art, music, mathematics, geography and science afford many opportunities for integration with physical education and sport.

Physical education and sport make various contributions to the development of ability in the fundamental processes of speech, reading and writing. Holding sport quiz competitions, and setting assignments stimulate children's interest in sport and physical education and encourages them to read about it. Nixon and Jewett (1980:198-204) point out that certain evidence has proved that if children are exposed to limited movement during infancy it could have a detrimental effect on later learned speech, reading, writing, and spelling patterns. The child has to pass successfully through stages of neuromuscular development during childhood. These stages provide a base for academic activities. If children miss a perceptual-motor stage, academic difficulties can be avoided by learning the missed perceptual motor skills. Arnheim and Pestolesi (1978:17) clearly state that children with learning difficulties often have poor coordination and definite perceptual problems.

According to Vannier and Gallahue (1978:5-7) the benefits of physical activity for the child are not only limited to the physical. Development areas as a result of well planned physical activity incorporate the following: (1) neuromuscular skill development; (2) physical and motor fitness development; (3) perceptual-motor development; (4) self-concept development; (5) development of academic understanding, and (6) development of effective use of leisure time.

Vannier and Gallahue (1978:7-11); Thomas et al (1988:25-36), and Kirchner (1992:159-171), specifically point out that children need vigorous physical activity in order that their bodies grow in strength, size and tonus. Other benefits are a more healthy lifestyle and better mental health. Long-term effects of regular exercise include: reduced blood pressure; a more efficient and effective heart; weight control, and a possible longer life span.

The positive effects of exercise on growth cannot be ignored. In this regard Thomas et al (1988:25-36) state that regular exercise increases bone mineralisation, density, and width. Children exercising regularly have stronger bones that are more resistant to stress.

3.5.2 The place of physical education and sport

Exactly where does physical education and sport in all its forms fit into the educational programme of the child?

The first time the child encounters movement is as an infant. The mother helps develop rudimentary movement by aiding the child in his sitting, crawling and walking. Development of rudimentary movement abilities helps the child to form a basis for the more difficult movements that are to follow.

□ Crèche and daycare centres

The first actual physical activities in the educational curriculum are experienced by *a young toddler*. Due to parents who work fulltime, many toddlers are found in crèches and day care centres. The toddler is constantly trying to express his intellectual development through many types of movement activities. This is done by solving problems. Teachers in the daycare centres and crèches should provide for and stimulate the needs of the child. Activities must suit the development level of the child (Nixon & Jewett 1980:154).

□ The preschool child

This stage ranges between three and six years. The child develops the ability of concrete operational thinking. He is able to develop certain mental images. Perceptual development increases very rapidly. Many children encounter the first formal school environment when they are sent to a playschool or nursery school. Here they learn to interact and play with others. They learn differences between sex roles. They lead very active physical lives. A variety of physical activities should be provided during this time to contribute to the cognitive and attitudinal development (Nixon & Jewett 1980:155). Development of the both gross and fine motor skills should be included. Locomotor patterns, includes body awareness, and body image, balance and stability (Thomas et al 1988:81-83). By adding these activities the physical growth and development, emotional development, intellectual development of the child are stimulated.

□ **The primary school child**

According to Nixon and Jewett (1980:155-156) during this stage the child enters elementary school education at the age of six until 12 years old. Research regarding child growth and development has clearly demonstrated the fundamental importance of positive oriented movement activities (Nixon & Jewett 1980:155-156). A broad repertoire of carefully selected and directed movement activities provides young children with a solid and permanent base from which future types of learning can be developed. This further contributes to appropriate physical, emotional, social and intellectual growth, development and maturation.

Nixon and Jewett (1980:155-156); Thomas et al (1988:14-18), and Kirchner (1990:17-31), all echo that children during these years, show rapid growth and development. Muscle, bones, and other body tissues, become larger and stronger if the child is encouraged and allowed to participate daily, in appropriate physical activity. It is a time of social importance too. Boy or girl, they continuously attempt to locate a comfortable place in their social world. Properly supervised sport and physical activities during this stage contribute significantly to their social development. During this stage the child is also seeking a personal identity. Properly organised physical activity programmes contribute to experiences that result in desirable self-confidence, emotional security and control, the learning of acceptable social norms and interrelationships with adults and peers. Children also develop a positive self-concept if they experience physical activity in the correct perspective.

Kirchner (1990:35-42) clearly illustrates that the development of body image, spatial awareness, directionality, time perception are all fundamental processes that are developed through varied movement experiences. Thompson (1991:4.13) further emphasises that the ages from six to twelve are the most productive times when children learn sport skills. Skills taught and interests developed at this stage are usually retained. Children should not specialise in one sport. A broad base of a variety of activities at a young age ensures the total development of the child and successful sports achievements at an older age.

During this stage children show a desire to compete against each other. It is now the time that rules of games can be taught and understood (Arnheim & Pestolesi 1978:140-146 and

Thomas et al 1988:66-67). The correct implementation of competition is essential as overemphasis of winning can lead to a decline in physical and sport participation at a later stage in life. The competition situation, however teaches children sportsmanship and fair play. Thomas et al (1988:32) stresses that injuries also occur very easily if exercises are too strenuous. The child's skeletal system is not completely developed and very vulnerable to injury.

□ **The adolescent**

Nixon and Jewett (1980:157-158) see this period, as ranging from age 12 to 17. Significant changes in physical growth and maturation in both sexes appear during this stage. The adolescent strives to achieve independence from his parents in order to develop the feeling of maturity. Faw and Belkin (1989:442) observe that most adolescents, especially boys, have a vigorous interest in physical activities. However they benefit considerably from the encouragement of peers, competent teachers and their parents. Some adolescents however do withdraw from voluntary physical activities at this stage. This is due to a lack of successful background during the early childhood years. Boys feel the need to prove their masculinity and strength. Their status depends greatly upon their ability in sports and games.

The physical education and sport period should not be merely a time of free play. Teachers and educators should place emphasis on adequate skills development and intellectual content. It is the best time to carry over life time sports.

To summarise: Physical education and sport objectives should be consistent with the general education objectives. Thus contributing to the broader aim of education. Regular participation in sport offers the child benefits that cannot be ignored. These benefits are not only linked to the physical but to the intellectual, social and intellectual. Young people who are physically active: are more coordinated and physically competent, often develop leadership, teamwork and sound cooperative skills, work well and enjoy people's company, learn better lifelong leisure skills, study and concentrate better. If sport or physical education is excluded from the school curriculum, children miss out on a very important part of growing up.

3.6 CONCLUSION

With regard to this research it is important to analyse people in the light of a particular philosophy of life. This resulted in sport being viewed in the same light. Each philosophy of life has a different influence on the approach to education. It gives reason to the identification of the contents, possibilities and the importance of education. The world in which people live holds countless wonders for educators to contemplate and to try to understand. Humankind is the most remarkable creation in this world.

Regarding the essence of people, it is clear that they are complex. Any study of one aspect requires an analysis of their total framework. They cannot be isolated and have to be seen as individuals displaying intellectual, physical, social and emotional development. Education has to run in accordance to this totality and none of the aspects can be singled out as they are interrelated.

Physical education and school sport undoubtedly form an integral part of the educational programme. It is therefore influenced by the philosophy of education. The values of physical education and sport for the child can not be left out of the education programme. Physical education and sport as educational instruments keeps the child active and positively involved in school. Through participation the child gets to know his/her own limitations and possibilities. The correct incorporation of physical education and sport in the educational programme will contribute to the psychological, physiological, ethical and social development of the child.

In the light of the background provided in **Chapter Two** and **Three** it is important to consider the present stance of sport in SA, and the changes that have taken place in the sports world. The mentioned changes undoubtedly effect the place and provision of physical education and sport in the South African curriculum. These aspects and developments are discussed in **Chapter Four**.

CHAPTER 4

INFLUENCES WHICH SHAPE THE ROLE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT IN THE POST-APARTHEID ERA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provides sufficient evidence that physical education and sport form an integral part of the child's development. Determining the role of physical education and sport in an educational programme, requires a study into the background of that particular society. The role of a national government in the promotion and encouragement of sport, physical education and recreation programmes, determines the sport system of a society (Semotiuk 1981:23).

South Africans are avid sport lovers, whether as participants or as spectators. Baxter (1994a:13) regards sport in South Africa as a valuable cultural tradition. The structure of sport within this society is greatly determined by the needs and values of the members of society and cannot be isolated from it (Olivier 1985:269).

Sport in society is also greatly influenced by the political organisation, evolving economy and the values of society (Semotiuk 1981:23-25 and McPherson et al 1989:20). However, there is a reciprocity here since whatever takes place in sport has implications for the rest of society.

Allison (1993:4) characterises sport as *prohess* and as one of the most potent of human activities in its capacity to give meaning to life. It creates and interconnects senses of achievement and identity. In this regard sport, culture, politics and society are seen as interrelated. The cultural significance of sport, and the relationship between sport and politics is undeniably evident in the history of South African sport, and also forms part of the education system. This is only one aspect of society. Economic, social and demographic factors, likewise, have had an effect on the outcome of, provision of and participation in South African sport; thus these facets of society together form an integral part with sport.

This chapter investigates the *current situation* with regard to South African sport and the events surrounding its readmittance to international participation, as well as the place and role of physical education and sport in the post-apartheid era within the educational dispensation. Various external factors that play a role in the development of sport are looked into as well as the role of the Government in sport. It is also apposite that the implications of the developments in South African sport on physical education and school sport receive attention.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

As part of the continent of Africa, South Africa covers approximately 1 million square kilometres. The population totals approximately 45 million people and is one of the most heterogeneous in the world, and characterised by racial, ethnic and cultural diversity. South Africa has a very pleasant climate and is renowned for its rich fauna and flora, geographical diversity and natural beauty (Claassen 1995:450-451). This ideal climate, characterised by blazing hot summers and winters, considered spring-like by most Europeans, has been extremely conducive in the development of the best sports facilities known to humankind, as well as engendering the most enthusiastic participants. These ideal conditions therefore, justify the inclusion of physical education and school sport in the school curriculum.

Since 1993 the constitution has made provision for a national administration as well as for the nine provincial administrations (Claassen 1995:470-471). South Africa consists of nine provinces, namely: Western Cape, Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, Free State, North West, Kwazulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, Gauteng and Northern Provinces. The following factors play a role in physical education and sport in schools.

Education is presently in the hands of the Department of Education. The previous "self-governing" territories have also been included in the democratic dispensation. There is one national system of education which is organised and managed mainly on the basis of nine provincial sub-systems. South Africa shares many of the typical educational problems that beset the rest of the African continent (Claassen 1995:470-474).

In 1993 the total number of school-age children registered in schools were approximately 11 million. Due to racial inequalities and the rapid population growth, an estimated one and a half million youth of school-going age, were not yet accommodated in the formal school system by 1991. This would have meant a definite increase by 1993 (Claassen 1995:470-474). In 1995 there was a total of 11 764 919 million pupils enrolled in South African schools (Strauss; Van der Linde, Plekker & Strauss 1995:2). A total number of 3 000 additional schools and an additional 230 000 teachers would be required to provide for the educational needs of children until the year 2002 (Claassen 1995:451-453). Furthermore, the school population is predicted to rise to approximately 16 million, by the year 2005 (Strauss et al 1995:23).

□ **Implications for education**

In the light of the above it was inevitable that the total number of inhabitants, growth rate and lack of schools, would hold implications for the education system. The segregation of the past, and the previously mentioned factors, resulted in numerous disparities in the inclusion of physical education and school sport in the curriculum, for example: a lack of sports facilities; equipment; qualified coaches; principals showing no interest in physical education; segregation in the South African sport structure, and no opportunities for youths outside the formal educational system to participate in sport (for more detail on this see ensuing sections).

4.3 SPORT IN GENERAL: PAST AND PRESENT

A brief historical overview of South African sport provides an insight into the relationship between sport, politics and culture, and the influence thereof on sport in general and school sport in particular. In order to understand the present situation a historical overview about South African sport, is called for.

4.3.1 Sport until 1948

Sport in SA up and until 1948 reflected the policy of the ruling Government. This period is characterised by the establishment of the Afrikaner-nationalism and the '*apartheid policy*' (Heath 1987:60). Scholtz (1983:123) observes that separate facilities and participation for all races, became the official policy of the Government during this period.

4.3.2 Sport from 1948-1967

South Africa's internal policy namely that of apartheid was formally established in 1948 (Olivier 1985:257). Apartheid was more part of daily living than was actually imposed by law. The law of society, namely the Group Areas Act, naturally prevented multi-racial sports (Bose 1994:30).

Sport administrators and sportsmen saw segregation as the natural order in South Africa. It was only in 1956 that the first state legislation regarding sport appeared within the apartheid framework (pointed out by Roberts 1991:3 and Tshwete 1992:2). This meant that sport was practised in much the same way. In 1962 the South African Government announced that racially mixed teams were not allowed to compete, neither inside nor outside SA (Mason 1993:51).

4.3.3 Depoliticisation of Sport (1967-1993)

No contact was made between Whites and other population groups until the end of the sixties. Olivier (1985:257) and Sarakinsky (1995:160) point out that a gradual move was made in 1967 to a more flexible approach especially in sport. The international onslaught against SA's internal policy of apartheid resulted in SA's exclusion from international participation (Horrell 1968:23-24 and Bose 1994:76-77). Sport boycotts were intended to force internal change both in the sport policy of SA as well as the internal policy. Thereafter, years of sport isolation followed. The outside world stood firm and demanded the full and uncompromising introduction of multiracial sport, at club level (Cheffers et al 1988:33-34 and Sarakinsky 1995:162). These measures were applied to force the Government to

accelerate the necessary changes. SA was officially banned from international participation since 1972 (Mason 1993:51).

Obviously, sport was an ideal instrument by which the international community could show their disapproval of South Africa's domestic policy (Olivier 1985:259-260). From inside the country Black sports people who felt they had the right to be considered for national teams also orchestrated action against the domestic policy. It was a significant change in policy when in 1978, Springbok colours were awarded to a Black athlete for the first time. Since then, sportsmen and -women were allowed to compete at any level and in any sport. Mixed sport became an everyday event. However, there were still separate clubs for each race and they had to manage their own affairs (Sarakinsky 1995:163).

Undeniably, both socio-political and socio-economic developments of a country have had an adverse effect on sport in this country. Nevertheless, internal and external pressures were important factors which contributed to change in SA, not only in the area of sport, but also in South African society at large (COSAS 1990/1991:37). Sarakinsky (1995:164) concurs that the South African Government started to implement a series of political and socio-economical reform strategies from 1976.

From 1979, the Government left sport to the sporting bodies, town councils and local authorities (Tshwete 1992:3). Saaiman (1981:24) indicates that the reform in sport resulted in the "racially mixed" sport policy on club level. This was carried out by various cabinet ministers, namely Dr PGJ Koornhof, Mr FW de Klerk en Mr TNH Jansen.

Olivier (1985:260-269) argued that the 1982 *HSRC - Sport Research* recommended that the discriminatory legislation in sport was an unacceptable principle and that it should have been totally abolished. This was done later, nevertheless there was still a limitation. It was recommended that each group was to retain the right to differentiate on the basis of race, culture, religion, language, etc. Town councils and local authorities were allowed to make their own decisions regarding mixed sport (so Sarakinsky 1995:165 reminds us).

By the 1980's the damage was done and racial inequalities in the distribution of sports facilities were widespread (*HSRC - Sport Research* 1982(10):8-34). Despite the ongoing pressure from the outside world, isolation regarding international participation remained until the early 1990's (Roberts 1991:20-23). A number of leading sportsmen and -women emigrated to pursue sports careers as citizens of other countries. Zola Budd (athletics), Kevin Curren and Johan Kriek (tennis), Alan Lamb, Tony Greg, Barry Richards and Kepler Wessels (cricket) and Mark Plaatjies and Sydney Maree (long distance running). They are still considered ex-South Africans despite their decisions (Sarakinsky 1995:165).

According to Scholtz (cited in *Die Transvaler*, 15 Februarie 1993:4) during the later years of isolation, the sports arena was plagued by international boycotts, rebel tours, political infighting, racial discrimination, fragmented sports structures, disparity in the provision of facilities and the moratorium on sport (COSAS 1990/1991:42-44 and Van der Schyff 1993:11). Pre-conditions to the country's return to international competition were set, by the National Sports Congress (now the National Sports Council). These conditions were:

- For each sport discipline to merge all existing controlling bodies into one, on a non-racial basis;
- For each national federation to have a viable imbalance-reducing development programme, which is aimed at providing access to all the country's disadvantaged communities;
- For each national federation to enjoy the formal recognition of its appropriate international federation (Roberts 1991:15 and *White Paper* 1995:5).

Concurrent with the above events there was a call for unity in sport in SA in early 1990. All existing sports bodies had to *unite* to form one sport structure as well as the formation of single controlling bodies for the different sport types. The dismantling of a fragmented sport structure had to make way for a democratic sports system for a new South Africa (*Beeld*, 23 Julie 1990:2; *Natal Post*, 25 July 1990:2, and *City Press*, 5 August 1990:4).

Roberts (1992:21-24) points out that the National and Olympic Sports Congress [hence NOSC] gained recognition in the international world, as the body which had to negotiate participation. NOSC however, choose to keep the embargo on sports tours to South Africa. All sports bodies had to first unite to form one structure. International forces and commercial media placed considerable pressure on NOSC to drop the moratorium. In July 1991 there was a call for a selective moratorium. The sports codes that were more united than others were given the go-ahead. Others had to get their house in order.

4.3.4 The readmittance of South Africa into the international arena in 1990 and subsequent developments

Radical political, social and economic changes in SA provided a new identity, resulting in an increased international tolerance and acceptance (*Marketing Mix* 1992a:50). Sport was and is the role-player in the gradual breaking down of segregation and the promotion of non-racial sport in SA (Olivier 1985:270). The beginning of the 1990's was clearly marked by the *disappearance of isolation and sport boycotts, fragmented sport structures* based on race and total control by the state (*Die Transvaler*, 15 Februarie 1993:4).

A very significant political amendment in legislation was made by Parliament, in 1990, when the Group Areas Act was abolished. Sarakinsky (1995:166) maintains that only then, did domestic changes begin to take place. On 2 February 1990, President De Klerk announced the unbanning of the African National Congress (ANC), the Pan-Africanist Congress (PAC), and the South African Communist Party and a few day later on the 11 February Nelson Mandela was released from jail. These were momentous events that ended the apartheid era but only two years later brought about considerable changes in society as such (Guelke 1993:155-156; Bose 1994:2, and Sarakinsky 1995:166).

The official announcement of South Africa's return to international participation in sport was already made on 6 November 1991. The participation of South Africa in the Olympic Games was not an easy decision for the International Olympic Committee, but it effectively closed the chapter on apartheid in sport (Roberts 1991:26). Due to the readmittance, and concurrent with that readmittance, South African sport underwent significant changes.

Samuel (1992:7) reminds us that the developments in sport could not be separated from the development of social, economic and political policies. The former coordinating body Confederation of South African Sport (COSAS 1990/1991:37) maintains that three changes were instrumental in the transition that took place in SA: firstly, the *transition from authoritarian rule*; secondly the *transition from segregation and apartheid* (The abolishment of the Group Areas Act 1989); and thirdly the *introduction of strategies of higher economic growth*. It is against these *macro developments* that the sports fraternity had to develop their own alternative approaches, thus creating an acceptable sports provision structure for the majority of South Africans.

Despite the ongoing controversies regarding the process toward unity South Africa was readmitted into the international arena with their *inclusion in the Olympic Games* in 1992 (Roberts 1991:26 and *Tempo*, 21 February 1992:20). This was a momentous occasion and has since led to numerous developments in the sports arena. The readmittance was a sign of the changing political situation in the country (*Patriot*, 31 Julie 1992:4). For twenty years, sport in SA had been the most potent symbol of the international struggle against apartheid (Bose 1994:8).

Tom Bedford, one of the Springbok rugby's all-time greats regarded SA's return as a consequence of contact and reconciliation, a spirit which needed to be carried forward and into the broader society (Bedford 1993:142). The following developments have occurred since the return to international participation:

4.3.4.1 *Sports tours*

Sportsmen and -women all over South Africa now have the opportunity to see touring teams participate in South Africa. On the other hand, sportsmen and -women have the opportunity to participate internationally, outside the country (*Tempo*, 21 February 1992:20; *The Star*, 5 March 1992:12, and *Pretoria News*, 6 July 1995:23).

□ **Implications for education**

Readmittance has resulted in schools being able to undertake tours overseas, in order to experience international competition. Coaches and young athletes will have to be equipped to handle international stress and participation. Information sessions should include psychological and physical preparations. Coaches should be assisted in the methods of team management (*Rekord-Oos*, 18 Augustus 1995:24).

4.3.4.2 *International exposure*

Readmittance into international sport also meant an increase of exposure of South African sports people to world events. Local as well as international coverage of sports events has placed South Africa on the map again. South Africa no longer has to find entrance through the back door to participate. South African sports people are no longer the "bad boys" on the global playground (*Marketing Mix* 1992a:50). Local newspapers listed many South African sportsmen and -women previously excluded now ranking on the international ranking lists. This also means the inclusion into junior world rankings (*Tempo*, 21 February 1992:20 and *The Daily News*, 22 February 1992:1).

□ **Implications for education**

International exposure also means the inclusion of juniors into junior world rankings. The horizon is now far greater than during the days of isolation. Far more opportunities are provided for juniors to prove their abilities. This serves as an incentive for school children to view sport in a more serious light. The win-at-all-cost is thus accentuated far more at a younger age, sometimes impeding the development of the child.

4.3.4.3 *The staging of numerous world cup events*

Numerous world cup events were allocated to SA namely, the Rugby World Cup of 1995 (*Cape Times*, 20 January 1993:1); the World Veteran Athletic Championships (1996); the World Athletic Championships (1997); the forthcoming All Africa Games in 1999 (*Pretoria*

News, 15 June 1995:23). SA has even embarked on a bid to stage one of the biggest sports events ever, the Olympic Games of 2004 (already reported in *Die Burger*, 6 Maart 1993:1).

□ **Implications for education**

Staging world cup events could serve as a tremendous encouragement to the youth of South Africa, children could be involved in many ways before and during the organisation of the Games. The presentation of such an event could help in the promotion of fitness throughout the country. This will make the task of trying to motivate children to participate in physical education and sport far easier.

4.3.4.4 *Unity in sport*

Sport administration has seen the abolishment of previous fragmented and duplicated managerial bodies which have made way for new united managerial bodies (*White Paper* 1995:23). This was a key issue and prerequisite for readmittance. Furthermore, it resulted in the reconstruction of the structure of South African sport and school sport (USSASA 1994:4 and *White Paper* 1995:13).

The current minister of sport, Mr Steve Tshwete (*Tribute*, January 1993:82), regards the unity in sport as a positive influence on society at large. Sport brings together people who have been kept apart for decades by apartheid. It also has the capacity to reconcile a divided nation - it is a means of integrating our people.

□ **Implications for education**

Unity in sport, furthermore, resulted in the reconstruction of the structure of South African sport and school sport (USSASA 1994:4 and *White Paper* 1995:13). All children, of all races now have the opportunity to participate against each other. Those previously excluded from the participation pyramid are now also able to proceed through the different levels.

4.3.4.5 *A new national structure for sport*

Unity in sport resulted in the scraping of all previous structures. Overlapping was cancelled out. After months of mediation and negotiations, a structure for South African Sport was established (cf **Appendix 1**). This resulted in the recognition of the umbrella bodies, the National Sports Council (NSC) and the National Olympic Committee of South Africa (NOCSA) at national and regional levels (*White Paper* 1995:13). Other important bodies established are:

- *Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR)*: This was re-established on 1 July 1994, separate from the ministry of Education at national level. This is seen as formal acknowledgement by the Government, of sport's role in nation-building (*White Paper* 1995:8).
- *A National multi-sport body* for tertiary sport (Colleges, Technicons and Universities) was recognised, namely SASSU - The South African Student Sport Union (*White Paper* 1995:23).
- **Implications for education**

Unity in sport on national level resulted in the establishment of a national coordinating body for school sport, namely USSASA (United Schools Sport Association of South Africa) (USSASA 1994:1). The aims and functioning of USSASA within schools will be discussed in detail at a later stage in 4.6.3.

4.3.4.6 *Upgrading of facilities*

The upgrading of existing facilities and provision for new facilities was a recommendation of the *HSRC - Sport Research* (1982(1):328-335) as far back as 1982. However, due to lack of funds, no significant changes took place. Despite isolation, the major sports codes in SA boast of an excellent infrastructure of facilities. However, the need exists to upgrade existing

facilities and build new ones on local level, especially in the disadvantaged areas (Williams 1993:4).

Since readmittance, *various alterations* have been made to stadiums that were used and are to be used to stage international and national events. Noticeably many new facilities were added to the disadvantaged communities. These developments took place as a result of political pressure and negotiations before the readmittance to international participation (*Beeld*, 16 Julie 1993:1 and *White Paper* 1995:47-49).

□ **Implications for education**

The Gauteng Department of Education (GDE 1995:3) and the *White Paper* (1995:47-49), however, stress the need to provide more facilities. Recommendations are made for multipurpose facilities. USSASA (1994:2) pointed out the desperate need for facilities in schools in disadvantaged areas. This provision has to be attended to, as soon as possible. Proposals in the *White Paper* (1995:47-49) were that schools should complement each other for the maximum usage of available facilities. Provision has to be made for areas with large unemployment, as well as for disadvantaged areas in general.

4.3.4.7 *Upgrading qualifications of sports officials*

Upgrading of qualifications, and *bringing up to par with international standards* regarding coaching, officiating and administration, were keys issues even before readmittance. Athletics is one example where coaching qualifications have been restructured to comply with international standards (Noord-Transvaalse Vereniging van Atletiek Afrigters, Jaarverslag 1995:2).

□ **Implications for education**

It is important to stress that 80 percent of all coaches in SA, are school teachers. This implies that upgrading will affect school coaches as well. The pre-democratic era saw many teachers within the Black education system not having the same culture and passion for sport,

as their White colleagues. Black sports coaches and physical education teachers, had no basic training in their field of interest. Furthermore, there was an apathy amongst teachers, regarding their role in sport, as an extra-mural activity (USSASA 1994:2).

Measures and steps to rectify the situation, are in progress. On national level, the NSC aims to promote two areas, namely coaching accreditation, and sports administration. This is already evident in the *Protea Mmuso* Programme. The idea is to create an environment conducive to an efficient and effective sports administration within the NSC, and its regional sub-structures (*White Paper* 1995:43).

4.3.4.8 *Winning major events*

Although it may be reasoned that this only indirectly effects sport, it is, nevertheless an important factor within the national and educational sports scenario. One of the greatest events since South Africa's readmittance to the international sports arena, was SA's winning of the *World Cup Rugby Tournament*. Rugby united the country for four weeks during the duration of the World Cup. Even politicians expressed the full support for the Springboks (*Beeld*, 23 Junie 1995:1). It proved that SA was back in international participation.

The victory was described by Deputy President De Klerk (SABC, TV 1:25 June 1995) as a victory for the nation. Many supporters took to the streets to celebrate. Rugby, previously regarded as a White man's sport only (part of the apartheid system), was now supported by Black and White. "*Shosholozza*" was sung over and over (this is a tribal song of the Zulus, which means "push him", previously it would have been disclaimed by Whites). Chanting varied from: "One team, one nation"; "Amabokoboko"; "Viva the Springboks, Viva" (*Sunday Times*, 25 June 1995:2). This event set the ball rolling for South African sport. After twenty years of isolation, SA is now a country that has to be reckoned with. The uniting role that sport plays according to the *Pretoria News* (26 June 1995:1) undoubtedly serves as a motivation for all citizens of SA and the basis of a successful sports structure.

□ Implications for education

Readmittance has also meant that the youth has had opportunities to participate in major events. Various medals were won by South African juniors in their first inclusion in the South Pacific Games in Perth (SABC, TV 3:14 December 1996). This undoubtedly proves that South African school sport has been placed on the map and benefited from international exposure and participation.

4.3.4.9 *Increased opportunities, experience and motivation for participation*

The years of isolation provided little or no incentive to top sportsmen and -women. Venues and opponents varied little during athletes' sports careers (*Super Sport*, 10 August 1995 and personal observation). However, due to the readmittance of SA into the international arena the sportsmen and -women are faced with countless opportunities (*Marketing Mix* 1992a:51). The horizons for athletes has extended to the Olympics and World Class events, previously out of bounds for all South Africans.

The scenario, therefore, presents implications for the provision of physical education and school sport in formal education in South Africa. It does, however, also present implications for the formal education system. To date schools have only been offering a limited choice in sports events (e.g. athletics, rugby, cricket, soccer, netball and hockey). Due to the international exposure children see other sports codes which capture their interest. The lack of facilities, coaches and time make it impossible to provide all the different codes. Schools should however, look at means of incorporating a wide variety of sports activities. Physical education lessons can now be made interesting by incorporating the international sports events. This can be done either by means of various discussions such as assignments or video viewing. Also the attendance of events within the proximity can be arranged (personal observation).

4.4 THE ROLE OF EXTERNAL FACTORS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPORT

4.4.1 Financial aspects in sport

Probably one of the most problematic areas in the sports world today is, money which is seen as that aspect which can impair sport, but is nevertheless most needed in sport. Too mention only a few issues related to monetary aspects: remuneration offered to participants or asked by coaches; the cost of sports facilities and equipment; the sponsorships involved and required in sport, and the cost of television rights. Money is beginning to play an ever increasing role in sport in South Africa.

The *elite sportsmen and -women* require financial assistance to support them during their sports careers. Some sports can make adequate provision for their players (rugby, cricket, golf, tennis and motor racing). Yet young, up and coming stars, are faced with insufficient funding. Gillingham (1995b:28) underlines that South Africa's aspiring Olympians have to cope with severe financial stresses, as well as the pressure of competition at the highest level. There seem to be only a few exceptions - Carl Lewis, Boris Becker and Muhammad Ali.

Factors that concern *player remuneration* include: players' insurance; transport; equipment; coaching fees; gymnasium fees; medical expenses; travel and accommodation expenses; clothing; practising a sports career or a professional career (SABC, TV 1:1 August 1995).

Various means of financial support are available for top sportsmen and -women in SA. The *Sport Trust* launched by the NSC aims to advance and nurture sport in all sports codes and at all levels - from school and club activities to provincial and international competition (NSC 1995:25). Funds will be available with the possible establishment of a *National Lottery*. Twenty percent of the profits will be allocated to sports development (*Pretoria News*, 31 July 1995:3).

The National Olympic Committee of South Africa have provided some compensation - *Operation Excellence* - to potential athletes (in all sport disciplines) for the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta (*White Paper* 1995:91). *Operation Excellence* consists of three levels:

Nominations are made twice a year for cycles which run from April 1 to August 31, and September 1 to March 31. Categories are: (1) Medal hope: R30 000 (2) Potential semi-finalist: R10 000 a year (3) Likely participant: R5000 a year. This scheme was welcomed, yet because it is so widespread, it only offers a mere contribution to the athlete's weekly grocery bill (Gillingham 1995b:28).

Gillingham (1995b:28) remarks that the newly launched *job placement programme* had been welcomed by all. Athletes falling prey to injury can terminate a sports career very suddenly and would now have a career to fall back onto.

Sport relies on sport sponsorships from the state, private sector parents and individuals. The Government cannot stretch their R40,0 million budget to all 140 national sport federations. Therefore, certain sports have to do without State funding (*White Paper* 1995:40). The attention in state funding is to be moved to disadvantaged areas. Large amounts are required to cancel out the backlog which exists in the provision of facilities.

□ **Implications for education**

With the involvement of more money into sport, athletes can now consider pursuing a professional career in sport. The life span of an athlete is very short and therefore, the talented and potential athletes should be nurtured to be able to reach their potential. This has certain *implications for school sport*. The researcher sees no harm in helping the school athlete financially or by other means as long as the performances can justify the need. Too many athletes are seen to be potential Olympic champions or professional athletes from the age of 7 years. Between 7 years and 18 years are the years when the correct and stable foundation should be laid. Many agree sport is important and an athlete's talent is just the same as being talented in music, art, mathematical, computer or science. One must still consider the athlete's life after sport. Active participation only comprises a limited time span in the life of any sportsmen. South Africa is still a developing country and therefore, there are at present, only a few who manage to pursue a career in the same field after international or national participation (personal observation 1985-1995). Other implications regarding funding *physical education* and *school sport* are discussed under 4.6.4 of this chapter.

4.4.2 Development programmes

Roberts (1991:19) observes that the Human Resource Development (HRD) is regarded just as important in sport, as in any other sector of the country's economy. Development programmes were one of the pre-requisites for South Africa's return to the international sports arena (*White Paper* 1995:3). The re-entry into international participation created the awareness of a need for the abovementioned development programmes. Many sports now boast their own development programmes that are offered to all children (Roberts 1991:19 and *Beeld*, 15 Maart 1993:8). These programmes have become the chief priority of many sports bodies. Examples of listed development programmes, includes the Baker's Biscuits, Mini Cricket (South African United Cricket Board).

Steps to rectify the disparity, and address the need for development were taken on national level since 1993. The subsequent announcement was made of a programme "Sport for All", as well as the setting up of a National Policy Framework in 1995 - "*Getting the nation to play*". Players, officials, administrators, sponsors and spectators are all included in the national policy (*White Paper* 1995:15). There was a need to emphasise sport, which would stimulate the development of sport and "*Mobilising the nation to play*" (*White Paper* 1995:14). In support of the previous plan the National Sports Council of South Africa, launched a *national development programme*, namely *Protea Sport* for all the citizens of South Africa (*White Paper* 1995:41-42 and NSC 1995).

The development programme, *Protea Sport*, introduced by the NSC (1995:1), will concentrate on aspects such as:

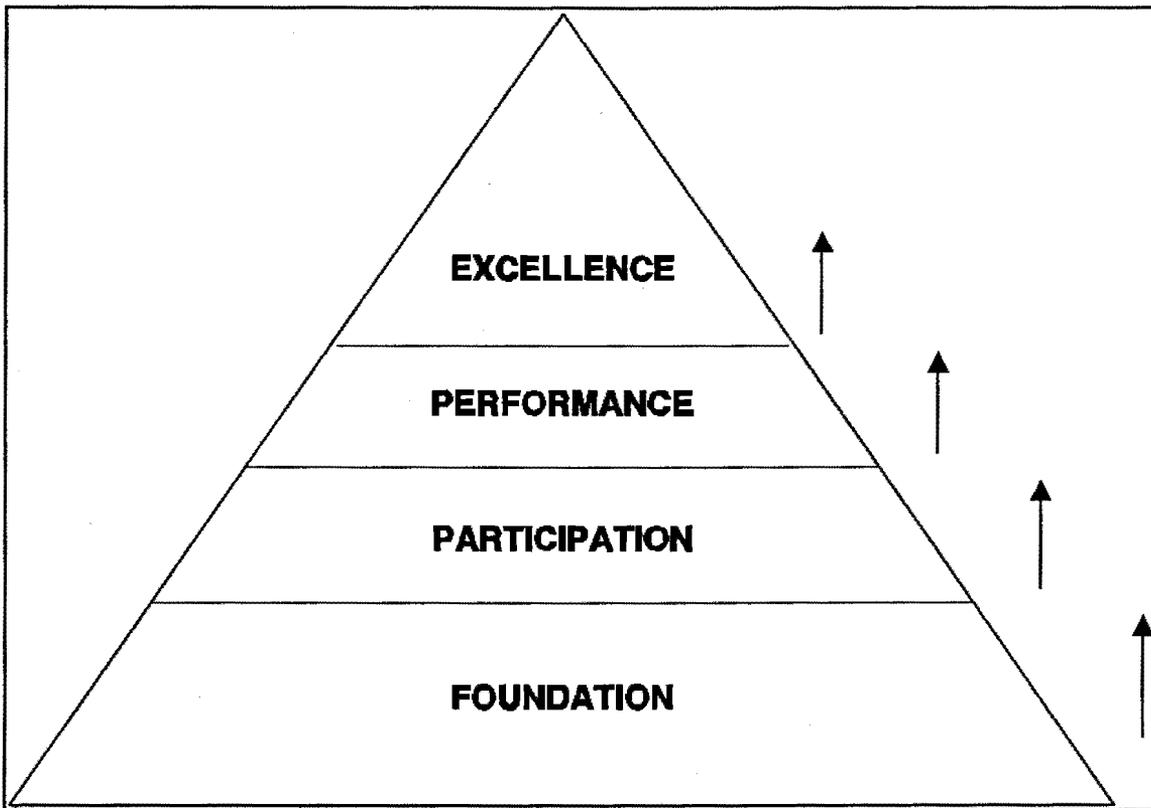
- The development of youth and adult sporting, administrative and officiating skills;
- Increasing participation and awareness of sport;
- Maximising the enjoyment of sport and recreation by members of a community;
- Ensuring the provision of opportunities for sports participation, performance and excellence (NSC 1995:1);

The *Protea Sport* programme as stipulated in the *White Paper* (1995:85), is organised according to three age groups and consists of the following categories:

- *Super Kids* Programme (3 to 6 years): This programme is directed at crèche level children and preschool children. It is a modified programme that focuses on encouraging children to play and the development of motor skills;
- *Sports Pioneers* Programme (6 to 15 years): Sports Pioneers focuses on modified sport regarding thirteen sports disciplines. Teachers involved in this programme will be trained in a minimum of four disciplines;
- *Isizwe Stars* Programme (12 to 21 years): This is an advanced coaching programme, involving seven different sports. The emphasis is on training new skills.

Young children are hereby given the opportunity to learn the basic skills of the chosen sport from which the majority of children in South Africa were excluded. Sport that needs to be developed from the cradle to the grave, is recognised by the Government. This development encompasses various facets such as excellence, performance, participation, the foundation of sport (cf FIG 4.1).

FIGURE 4.1

Sports Development Continuum

(White Paper 1995:15)

The previous political isolation, did not only impede the development of sport in South Africa (*White Paper 1995:3*), but also the natural development of sport in the entire subcontinent, which includes more than half a dozen sovereign states (*Williams 1993:1*). The *White Paper (1995:15)* therefore emphasises the need for transformation as envisaged in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The transformation in sport is necessitated by the matter of qualifying for international participation. In accordance with this the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE 1995:1-2) sees the national reconstruction project to be accepted by everyone in education and training. It is a challenge to create a system, which discovers and cultivates the talents of children in SA, without discrimination. The programmes are to be accessible and affordable for all South Africans, including those in the rural areas, both young and old.

□ **Implications for education**

The presentation of development programmes provide certain implications for the educational dispensation. To be able to create and develop a successful programme, requires the cooperation of the various sports bodies and the provincial educational departments. It has to form part of the physical education and sports programme of the school. Teachers and volunteers have to be trained to implement the programmes. School principals' support is vital for these programmes to be successful. Their enthusiasm and interest will help to carry it off. Other aspects which demand attention are: insufficient finances; the lack of equipment; unsatisfactory (and some times non-existent facilities); the lack of coaches; no specific allocated period for physical education and for sport, and the lack of a learning culture (USSASA 1994:2). These are only a number of the problems which beset the implementation of development programmes.

In conclusion: The introduction of the various development programmes focuses the attention on the growing need for developing skills in the sport and promoting physical education. If these impediments can be overcome all children (irrespective of their abilities) will be offered the opportunity to acquire certain basic sports skills. In these programmes cognisance also has to been taken of the different levels of competence of children and the specific needs at the different levels.

4.4.3 The impact of the mass media

4.4.3.1 General impact

All major international sports events occupy an ever-growing role in the mass media of today. Practically all newspapers worldwide allot space to sport. Some even have separate newspapers for sport. Daily television broadcasts, one of the strongest and most powerful media instruments, spreads sports reports to billions of viewers (*The Sunday Star*, 26 July 1992:21 and SABC, TV 1:17 June 1995). The mass media shapes and reflects the attitudes and values of a society (O'Rourke 1994:26). School sport forms part of society and the influence of sport on society is also accentuated in this section.

The influence of television has been so great that the starting times of major events have been delayed and schedules have been changed to accommodate matches played simultaneously (Preising 1985:17). Exclusive television rights to broadcast a major event such as the Olympic Games calculates to millions of dollars (for example, the American Broadcasting Corporation payed \$225 million for the 1984 Olympic Games).

Since South Africa's readmittance into the international arena there has been an increase in the amount of coverage allocated to sport. Newspapers have increased the amount of reports on sport to be able to compete with television. More national and international results are reported in newspapers, for example in *The Sunday Times*, *Rapport*, *Pretoria News* and *The Citizen*. Major news broadcasts have included sports reports at the beginning of the report (SABC TV 1:18 June 1995). Newspaper reports on sport previously on the back page, now often occupy the main headlines (*Pretoria News*, 19 June 1995:1).

□ **Implications for education**

This growing interest in sport has resulted in the establishment of a separate television sports programme, *Junior Sport*, which accommodates the ever increasing demand for junior sport. Recently, newspapers have started to provide separate sections exclusively for school sport results. These reports provide the necessary motivation and recognition for school participants (Van Rensburg 1995:*Interview*).

4.4.3.2 *Steroids and stimulants*

An aspect which has received considerable coverage in the press is the use of steroids and stimulants. This has become a serious matter that has to be dealt with at all levels of participation. The use of stimulants can be traced back as far as 300 BCE when Greek athletes used hallucinogenic mushrooms to enhance their performances. Today athletes across

the world revert to anabolic steroids³ and stimulants⁴ thereby trying to improve their performances (*The Sunday Star*, 26 July 1992:21).

National campaigns in the mass media (radio, television and newspapers), often make use of sports heroes to create awareness of dangers and combat the use of drugs. "*Springbok wing joins anti-drug drive*" - was a headline in a newspaper (*Daily Dispatch*, 14 June 1993:5). A locally made television was televised on 3 August 1995 (SABC, TV 1:3 August 1995).

The use of steroids and stimulants amongst school children has aroused the concern of educationist and coaches. In 1992 after the death of South African rugby player (presumably due to the use of stimulants), the South African Rugby and Football Union (SARFU) announced that rugby players would in future be tested for the use of stimulants and steroids (*Beeld*, 15 Februarie 1992:9). Organised testing in rugby, at school level, was subsequently announced. This was greeted with a positive reception by schools and parents, since it has become a growing problem. Testing for banned substances would make children realise how dangerous the practice is (*The Citizen*, 13 February 1992:1). Dr Hugo (cited in *Die Burger*, 13 Februarie 1992:3) maintains that testing would play an educational role in sport.

□ Implications for education

The youngest athlete to be banned in South African sports history was only fourteen years old (*Rapport*, 23 April 1995:4). Despite being banned, the athlete failed the first out of season mandatory test (*Pretoria News*, 11 October 1995:23). The constant pressure on juniors to win has resulted in school participants searching for other alternatives to enhance their

³ Anabolic steroids are synthetic derives of the male hormone testosterone. They work by boosting ribonucleic acid and protein production which in turn is converted into muscle (*The Sunday Star*, 26 July 1992:21 and Mason 1993:69).

⁴ Stimulants are used to invigorate the central nervous system, allowing the body to tolerate higher levels of pain-causing lactic acid, created during exercise (*The Sunday Star*, 26 July 1992:1 and Mason 1993:69).

performances. Numerous incentives such as the participation in World Junior Championships and money beckoning on the horizon, seem irresistible to a number of athletes. They revert to any method, legally or illegal in order to get to the top. World wide research has indicated that this particular problem cannot be solved by occasional testing of sportsmen and -women. The solution lies in regular testing, punishment for offenses, and the dissemination of correct information regarding the matter (Mason 1993:72 and Gillingham 1995a:Interview).

Due to the disparities in the past, a large proportion of the school-going population were not exposed to top level competitions. The result is that they might not have used drugs, and are therefore, ignorant as these matters. Steps have to be taken to include awareness programmes in physical education and school sport lessons. Children should be made aware that overstepping ethical rules will always attract media attention. This attention could be detrimental to the selfimage of a person.

4.4.3.3 *Heroism*

Another influence of the mass media on sport is that of *heroism*. The mass media plays an important role in the boasting of sports heroes, locally and internationally. Faces of heroes appear daily on television and in newspapers. The ideal sportsperson is portrayed in these reports. The way in which sport is presented on television and in the newspapers is very important in the development of sport. It also provides role models for children (O'Rourke 1994:26). The socialising influence of television is noticed when children imitate the actions of their sports heroes. Either kicking the same as Naas Botha, fielding like Johny Rhodes, bowling like Fanie de Villiers, or holding a javelin like Tom Petranoff (personal observation 1991-1995).

Media coverage of sports stars, has resulted in schools requesting their services and presence to help encourage their scholars to participate in sport. They are invited to present coaching clinics. The motivation levels of children are incited on account of this. Even though it is merely the methods of coaches that are used by sports stars, it is more effective to observe it from the latter (personal observation as a coach).

□ **Implications for education**

The increase in media coverage of sports events has also resulted in an increased interest amongst children. Many young children now get to know about sports heroes and events previously unknown to them. They show a keener interest in their own sports careers. Children have become regular sports viewers of sport televised on television. They collect pictures of their heroes and compile albums. Teachers and coaches can easily refer to sportspersons as examples when they coach (personal observation as a teacher of physical education).

In summary: Sport has grown to such an extent in SA, that it influences the media and vice versa, and functions in a vital reciprocal relationship with each other. Within each school itself children idealise older children. Children therefore need to be taught: how to handle the pressures and attention in top level competition; to communicate with the media; how to accommodate winning and losing; the correct behaviour on and off the field. Teachers and coaches too, have to be aware of their behaviour and language on and off the field. The mass media especially television, should be a constant reminder to sportsmen, -women, teachers, coaches and children, that one cannot escape the relentless eye of the camera.

4.5 THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT IN SPORT

It is obvious that political factors per se would tend to have a greater impact on the sport system, than a sport system would have in changing the political system (Semotiuk 1981:24). For this reason it is imperative to study the role of the South African Government in sport, within the post-apartheid era.

4.5.1 The new Government (1994)

The average sports lover has little or no time for political interference in sport. Sport has in the past and especially during the years of apartheid being used by politicians as a political ball game. The internal policy of the Government caused many disparities in the provisions and participation of sport (cf 4.3.1 & 4.3.2).

The appointment of a minister for sport for the first time at the beginning of 1993, was proof that the new policy was a definite move away from the stance of the previous Government (*Die Transvaler*, 23 Februarie 1993:8). The scene was set for negotiations regarding a new sport dispensation for all South Africans. More and more involvement was seen in the funding of major sports events (*Beeld*, 15 Maart 1992:1 and *The Citizen*, 25 July 1992:2).

The change in the South African Government after the elections in April 1994, introduced a new era for South African sport. Gone were the days of isolation, and there was an enthusiastic welcome to international participation and renewed government support was introduced. Structural changes signified the seriousness of government involvement in sport (*White Paper* 1995:3). Sport can be recognised as an export product of the country that contributes immensely to tourism and the economy. More than ever sports persons in SA require the support of the Government after the return to international participation (*Die Transvaler*, 23 Februarie 1993:8).

4.5.2 The present structure of sport in South Africa

Since South Africa's readmittance into the international arena interested parties have been actively involved in the restructuring of sport in SA. The reason for the restructuring of sport was to promote a service to all South Africans in order to realise a comprehensive, democratic, fair and equitable society (Hugo 1994:57).

The restructuring of sport in South Africa was clearly identified as one of the greatest challenges facing the sports fraternity. Until the beginning of 1994 the existing sport provision system was cited as inadequate, incomprehensive and contained major disparities (Roberts 1992:23-26 and Sarakinsky 1995:165). The provision of sport within certain departments, revealed overlapping and duplications of functions (Williams 1993:1-4 and Hugo 1994:48). It was agreed that there was an absence of a State national policy for sport (Roberts 1992:24 and Hugo 1994:48).

During 1993 the National Sports *Congress* (presently renamed as the National Sports *Council*) was recognised as the major role player in determining the future of sport in SA.

Consensus was reached that the NSC would draw up a comprehensive strategic plan that would determine how sport could be most effectively applied in the broad quest of nation building (Baxter 1994b:48).

4.5.2.1 *The major role players*

The present role players in South African sport are the Central Government; The Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR); the National Sports Council (NSC); the National Olympic Committee of South Africa (NOCSA), and the National Sports Controlling Bodies or Federations (NF's). The organisation of South African sport is included in the appendices (cf **Appendix 1**). To be able to understand the functioning of the structure of sport, the main role players are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

□ **The central Government**

A separate cabinet minister is entrusted with the sport portfolio, which is at present is Mr Steve Tshwete. The Government fulfils the supportive function in the present sport system (Hugo 1994:56).

□ **The Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR)**

The Department of Sport and Recreation serves as the voice for the Government (*White Paper* 1995:71). *Various objectives* have been set by this department for the period 1994/5 to 1998/99, namely:

- (1) To "lay the foundation" the foundation for mass participation in sport. This means the promotion of health by ensuring that each citizen engages in a minimum of one sports activity (*White Paper* 1995:71). The programme specifically designed for this aspect is known as "*Mobilising the nation to play*", which consists of sub-programmes.
- (2) The DSR is also committed to *funding the Sports Movement* meaningfully. This will enable all citizens to take part in sport.

□ **The National Olympic Committee of South Africa**

The National Olympic Committee of South Africa is basically responsible for the participation of the country in the Olympic Games (*White Paper* 1995:24).

□ **The National Sports Council (NSC)**

The NSC, according to Hugo (1994:56), is the only fully representative macro multi-sports structure in the country (cf **Appendix 2**). Its members are divided into various categories:

- (1) The NSC Regional Sports Congresses, which represent, within the various regions of South Africa, the interests of the NSC on a decentralised basis. Affiliated with them are the sub-regions representing the interests of area and local sports congresses.
- (2) All national controlling bodies of sport (NF's and recreation sport). Affiliated with them are provincial sports bodies representing the interest of clubs and individual members in the various regions.
- (3) Associate members could include school and tertiary sports associations, sports associations of the Forces, etc. Other organisations interested in associating with the NSC for example, sports and movement science organisations, sport-medical organisations, etc.

The broad basis of all sports practises are recognised by the NSC. This starts with individual sports persons that organise themselves into functional sports clubs according to the various codes of sport and recreation-sport. Clubs affiliate with the regional sports bodies which represent their freedoms and rights at the relevant national controlling body of sport. This structure enables democracy to evolve from below - from club to regional to national level. It finally culminates in the NSC as the supreme guardian of sport autonomy, freedom and democracy (Hugo 1994:57).

The functions of the NSC are those of a macro nature. These functions cannot be managed by ordinary members; are general in nature, and they encompass all codes of sport, agreed upon by the NSC. Hugo (1994:58) summarises these functions as having:

- (1) coordinating function that serves the common interest of its members;
- (2) representative function to represent: the interest of its Members with the Government, the public at large, as well as that of the international community;
- (3) lobbying/caucus function, in order to gain advantages for sport from central or regional government, the private sector, etc;
- (4) group support function, to provide resources and to render services of substantial nature to the total sports spectrum;
- (5) facilitating function in the event of disputes among its members;
- (6) ongoing monitoring directive or "watchdog" function, in order to enable it to intervene if the general interest of sport is not upheld.

The composition of the National Sports council consists of: the General Assembly and the National Executive Committee (NEC)

□ *General Assembly*

The highest authority of the NSC is the General Assembly. This assembly serves as the Sports Parliament of the country. The responsibilities of the assembly are:

- (1) the appointment of the executive authority of the NSC, namely the National Executive Committee (NEC);

- (2) the coordination and formulation of national policy, protocol, strategies and programmes for sport in general;
- (3) the enhancement of national cohesion and direction in sport provision;
- (4) the coordination and promotion of those matters of common interest to its members, and it also serves as a forum for sharing in the planning and activities of the NSC;
- (5) the assembly serves as a testing and sounding board for the NSC (Hugo 1994:57).

□ *The National Executive Committee (NEC)*

It forms the executive authority of the NSC and is fully accountable to the General Assembly. The NEC accepts the full responsibility for the general management and administration of the NSC. The NEC safeguards the autonomous and democratic character of the NSC in particular and that of sport in general. The NEC institutes standing commissions/committees as well as ad hoc committees, when needed, in order to effectively execute its duties and responsibilities. These include, for example, planning and monitoring, management, finance and the development commissions/committees (Hugo 1994:57-58).

4.5.3 The Government's policy with regard to sport

The newly elected Government's function (after 1994) was defined in the Sports Charter of 1994, as being only a supportive function (Baxter 1994b:9). Government support was required:

- (1) for state funding for a scientific support service for the country's top sportsmen and -women. This also implied an internationally accredited drug-testing centre;
- (2) to establish a national sports information service;
- (3) funding sport on a national level;

(4) coordination of sport (Baxter 1994b:9).

Since the election of the new Government, various positive improvements have occurred. To be able to reach the objective of "*Mobilising the nation to play*", the Government has stipulated various priorities (*White Paper* 1995:71-97). The priorities for 1995-1999 are:

□ **Priority One:**

To confirm roles and streamline responsibilities amongst the various stake holders in sport, in order to ensure that all efforts are coordinated to take advantage of economies of scale. Stake holders on the three main levels are:

On National level: The Department of Sport and Recreation; National Sports Council; National Olympic Committee of SA, and the National Federations.

On Provincial level: The structures of the National Sports Council and provincial sports codes.

On Local level: School and tertiary umbrella bodies, club and local authorities (*White Paper* 1995:77).

□ **Priority Two:**

To Provide funds, on an annual basis, for the creation/upgrading of basic multi-purpose, sports facilities in disadvantaged areas. A minimum of R1,0 million per annum is to be allocated to each province for the creation/upgrading of basic, multi-purpose facilities in the disadvantaged areas.

The Sports Trust is to contribute a maximum of 50 percent of its funds to creation/upgrading of basic, multi-purpose facilities in disadvantaged areas (*White Paper* 1995:79).

□ **Priority Three:**

To maintain the focus on the administration of sport and recreation, as well as the development of a volunteer corps, to help in the implementation of the various mass participation programmes identified for Phase 1 (*White Paper* 1995:80).

The abovementioned is to be achieved by:

(1) the launching of a National Volunteer Programme to "gain, train, maintain, and retain", volunteers in sport. Areas include:

- Club development - help in training administrators;
- The establishment of Administrators' Forums - for example : first aiders, secretaries, referees association, coaches association, etc;
- The drawing up of programmes to help administrators in the hosting of events.

(2) administrator exchange programmes;

(3) appointment of sport organisers and provincial sport and recreation staff.

□ **Priority Four:**

Enhancing health-consciousness by means of various programmes aimed at specific interest groups in society, along the lines of one-person-one sport, via mass participation drives (*White Paper* 1995:84). These programmes include:

- (1) Sport for young people - in the form of the *Protea Sport* programme;
- (2) Street Children Programme;
- (3) Sport for all;
- (4) Youth Sport;

- (5) Disabled Sport;
- (6) Women Sport;
- (7) Masters Sport;
- (8) Corporate Sport;
- (9) National Schools Games.

□ **Priority Five:**

Identifying latent talent from participants with talent as an integral component of the process of upward movement from the foundation and participation levels of the *Sports Development Continuum* (see FIG 4.1).

For this purpose, talent scouts will be used to identify potential participants. The media will also be utilised to notify the public as to the fixtures of the different provinces. The combination of both scientific and non-scientific methods of scouting for talent (*White Paper 1995:89*).

□ **Priority Six:**

Meaningful investment in the preparation of participants who are called upon to represent the country in major competition, by removing all obstacles in their way and to enable them to play the role model function that is so crucial in ensuring a continuous flow of participants from the foundation and participation levels to the performance and excellence levels of the *Sports Development Continuum* (cf FIG 4.1).

NOCSA's Operation Excellence has been introduced to help sportsmen and -women to overcome for example: financial, transportation needs, and the need for sponsors, etc that might occur (Gillingham 1995b:28).

The building of a National Sport and Leisure Academy (NSLA) for the elite sports activities is also envisaged. Resident multi-sport coaching and training camps are to be offered. This would mean that young sport stars can be accommodate from junior level.

□ **Priority Seven:**

Helping to cement the sports unification process, by instituting necessary affirmative action controls which will ensure that club, provincial and national representative teams reflect the parties involved in the process (*White Paper* 1995:94).

Conclusion: The abovementioned objectives of the state have only recently been set out. Whether these objectives are reached can only be determined at a later stage. Political agendas will have to be set aside and sports persons and the Government should work together as a combined team. With this objective the involvement of the Government will be of an advantage to everyone involved. Changes in the national structure of sport, on national level, eventually has to led to changes in physical education and school sport.

4.6 PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT: PAST AND PRESENT

The abovementioned mentioned policies and developments in South African sport, invariably had to have an effect on physical education and school sport (Sarakinsky 1995:172). For the purpose of this study it is necessary to verify the influence thereof on school sport and subsequently on physical education too.

4.6.1 Physical education and school sport from 1948 to 1984

According to the Du Toit (1980:530-531); Sarakinsky (1995:171-176), and *White Paper* (1995:17) physical education and school sport formed an integral part of the curriculum in many formally, *Whites only*, South African schools since the 1940's. In Black, Coloured and Asian schools, physical education and sport were severely neglected. In White schools, sport (in the form of physical education) had to fulfil the role of nation-building. Rugby was used for this purpose and its main role was that of promoting Afrikaner nationalism. It was closely related with other Afrikaner cultural expressions (Archer & Bouillon 1982:65 and Bose 1994:16). Physical education was made compulsory in White schools, but not in Black schools (Hendriks 1991:220-221). Various disparities existed concerning the provision of

facilities in White, Black, Coloured and Indian schools (*HSRC - Sport Research* 1982(10):19 and USSASA 1994:2).

The 1976 sport policy of the Government namely "autonomy to the clubs", resulted in mixed sport becoming an issue for the various school departments on provincial level. This policy was greeted with mixed feelings. In 1981 the Transvaal Education Department announced a dual policy for school sport (Transvaalse Onderwysdepartement, Omsendminuut 115 van 1981). Two leagues were to run simultaneously, one *for* mixed sport and the other *against* mixed sport. This policy also caused considerable tension between the English medium and Afrikaans medium schools. The various provinces had their own approach to the issue. The tension surrounding mixed sport participation, was at a peak from 1979 until 1982. The position, however, changed and tension was reduced considerably during 1983/4 (Heath 1987:68-69).

4.6.2 The situation regarding physical education and school sport from 1985 to the present: depoliticisation

In 1985, the Government brought about changes in their policy and allowed multi-racial sport, but declined from organising it (Sarakinsky 1995:172 and *Mondstuk* 1992:3). Boycotts, discrimination and petitions were the order of the day (*Beeld*, 17 Januarie 1992:8 and *Beeld*, 22 Februarie 1992:4). Only private schools and a few multicultural schools participated in mixed school sport. Vorster (1986:14) describes sport in general and school sport as a political "ball game" which resulted due to the turmoil that existed (cf *The Citizen*, 16 January 1992:9 and *The Sunday Times*, 21 February 1993:2).

Until the 1990's, school sport in South Africa emulated the policy of segregation (Olivier 1985:270 and Sarakinsky 1995:171-173). Schooling was segregated and entrenched by law. Children from different communities were forcefully prevented from integrating on either educational, sports, or social level. Different education departments existed for the different race groups (GDE 1995:2).

In White schools, school sport was predominantly played on a single coded basis. The Black schools on the other hand chose to play sport under umbrella structures (GDE 1995:2). Only since the racially segregated education was abolished in the 1990's, did participation in school sport become non-racial (Sarakinsky 1995:173).

On the 8th of January 1992, Parliament issued a statement with regard to the choice of participation and discrimination in sport in state schools. The minister stated clearly, that the state would not accept responsibility in decisions, regarding participation in sport and cultural activities that jeopardise the *non-discriminatory policy in sport*. In non-state schools the decision of participation was left to the principal, governing body and parents (Heyns 1992:15 and *Mondstuk* 1992:3).

The *need for unity* in national sport was a process undertaken on senior level, and served as an example of what was to follow in school sport, which was previously mentioned as being organised in the respective Departments. An alternative approach was needed, namely: (1) one umbrella body to organise school sport; (2) proper contact with the majority of schools in the rural areas and townships of SA; (3) economic viability of organising sport from school to national level on a multi-coded basis; (4) one school sport body to liaise with the Government, the NSC, NOCSA and the International School Sports Federation; (5) facilitation of disbursement of funds from Government, sponsors and international donors to individual sports disciplines, and (6) gaining recognition from the International School Sports Federation (GDE 1995:4-5).

Regarding the *participation levels* the scenario was much the same for school sport as for adult sport. Top athletes were restricted to four levels of participation (inter house, inter schools, provincial/club and national level). This was at both junior and senior level (GDE 1995:15). On the other hand, as a result of segregation and apartheid many sportsmen (especially Blacks, Coloureds and Indians) were excluded from the main stream of sport (Williams 1993:2). This was all due to the fragmentation of the education system of SA.

Mohlala bl 20 David Mphahlele

The implementation of the Government's non-discriminatory policies in sport, resulted in the opening of tournaments for all races. One such tournament held exclusively for White school

children was the Craven Rugby Week. This is now open to all races (*Beeld*, 13 Julie 1995:1).

Due to the establishment of one education system for all South Africans since the beginning of 1995, *segregation in school sport* has fallen by the way-side. Children of all races now have the opportunity to take part at all levels.

The newly elected Government has resorted to the policy of democracy. All schools are under the jurisdiction of the Departments of Education in the respective provinces. They are compelled to organise and control their sports activities according to the new school sport policy (GDE 1995:3). The democratisation of school sport now sees the broadening of opportunities for all children irrespective of race. Participation is now open to all and the reconstruction of competitions has taken place.

Unfortunately, as history shows, discriminatory laws in education caused segregation in White and Blacks schools. White schools had compulsory physical education and sport. This researcher would like to stress that the paucity of literature on this topic, renders it impossible to sketch the exact situation of physical education and school sport in schools during this period.

Physical education was offered in most previously all White schools in South Africa. The first encounter with physical education was at preschool level (3-6 years). In the pre-primary school level Grade One to Standard One physical education was normally provided by the class teacher. Children were sometimes exposed to sport in the form of modified games. In Standards Two to Five, children were taught physical education according to the syllabi of the Department of Education (Transvaal Education Department 1987a-d. Classes for boys and girls were separate (personal observation).

The inclusion of sport in schools was determined by the various provincial education departments and differed from department to department, different school offered different kinds of sports for example, soccer, rugby, cricket, tennis, athletics, hockey, netball (GDE 1995:3). The availability of coaches and facilities determined the choice of sports codes

offered at schools. Secondary school sports competitions, were taken far more seriously than at primary school level. Schools also differed in their commitment regarding competition. The White Afrikaans medium schools were far more organised and committed to sport than their White English speaking counterparts (personal observation).

There was however, a possibility, that physical education was to be deleted from the curriculum of White schools (GDE 1995:2-30 and *White Paper* 1995:17). A survey conducted during 1992 in White secondary schools only, revealed important findings regarding physical education: It stressed the importance of physical education, especially in the senior secondary phase; and emphasis was placed on the *differentiated provision* of physical education in the senior secondary phase and the amount of time spent on physical education. Statistics drawn from research revealed that 88,4 percent boys and 88,4 percent girls agreed that physical education should remain in the curriculum. Results proved, that time wise, the South African curriculum made the least provision for physical education compared to the rest of the world. The recommendation was made in the research project that physical education should remain a subject in the senior secondary phase. The situation for other races was of course different (Coetzee 1992:34).

In Black schools the facilities and equipment was glaring non-existent. Many principals of Black schools declined to enforce physical education, and therefore sport and physical education was left to diminish. (Sarakinsky 1995:171 and *White Paper* 1995:17).

(USSASA Presentation, 2001)

An investigation conducted by USSASA (1994:2) revealed various weaknesses regarding the situation of school sport in Black schools before 1994. These weaknesses can be summarised as follows:

- The majority of schools and townships did not have proper facilities for the playing and training of sport;
- *Educators* Teachers in Black schools did not share the same passion for organised sport as the White schools;

- The last bit of organised sport in townships and sport was crippled by a legacy of class boycotts and insurrections;
- School sport revealed a history of no, or very little, support from commercial giants;
- Equipment was sparsely distributed and only the former "establishment" schools (White schools) had an adequate supply of funds for the basic sports equipment;
- An apathy existed amongst the teaching fraternity to play a meaningful role in sport as extra-mural activity;
- Many South African schools were situated in rural areas and players had to travel long distances to play on standard sports fields;
- School administrators, coaches, officials were willing, but did not have basic training in the requirements of sports provision for school children;
- An apathy existed with regards to the basic discipline in sport, for example: punctuality, insober habits, a disposition of win-at-all-cost, a lack of incentives, unhealthy reward systems, etc.

The position of physical education and school sport in the White schools was not as problematic, nevertheless, there were a few problem areas, such as: the decline in the *number of male teachers*, which brought about problems in the provision of sport in the curriculum. Many schools did not have an adequate number of male teachers to coach the boys. Some schools have to, therefore, revert to *female coaches* to coach rugby and cricket (SABC, TV 1:29 June 1995). Mbhala 11/21 Recording 10

Schools also relied on the parents to help with the coaching. The advantage of this was that *parent involvement* was encouraged. However, this arrangement caused a lack of discipline; when two or more parents shared the responsibility of coaching a group it caused a difficulty when the respective parents had to reprimand one another's children (personal observation).

In White schools, teachers' unwillingness to help with coaching, due to their academical work load, also created a problem for school sport. The work load was due to the cutback in the number of teachers at the schools. The previous ratio of 1 per 30 is envisaged to increase to 1 per 40, during the next five years as from 1996. Coaches' lack of knowledge and interest in the sport, also impaired children's participation (personal observation).

All the abovementioned factors caused an imbalance in the provision of physical education and sport in schools. Due to this poor state of affairs, the need exists to remedy the situation. The DSR, the MEC responsible for sport and the MEC responsible of Education were given the task to reintroduce physical education and school sport (*White Paper 1995:17-20*). Attention also has to be paid to aspects relating to school sport and physical education. Tasks include:

- reintroducing Physical Education as a recognised school subject;
- assigning to suitably qualified teachers the responsibility of organising sport within each school in the provinces;
- allowing a minimum of 80 minutes per week, during school time, for the purpose of sports tuition and playing;
- providing incentives for teachers to take involvement in sports training seriously for example, such as factors to be considered when promotion's are decided;
- making sport compulsory for all school children;
- organising inter-school competitions both at local as well as provincial levels;
- ensuring that a sports fund exists, at each school, for the purpose of funding school sports activities and requirements;

- ensuring that the DSR provides input to the content of the Physical Education Syllabus.

The abovementioned tasks had only been assigned at the beginning of 1995. The actual outcome of the various changes in policy and curriculum developments, can only be determined at a later stage.

4.6.3 The current structure and organisation of post-apartheid physical education and school sport

4.6.3.1 The main coordinating body

The situation of South African school sport has, however, changed and school sport is currently practised under a new *united school sport structure* in each province, and also on a national level. A national multisport school structure, namely the *United Schools Sports Association of South Africa* (USSASA) was launched on 26 November 1994 to control and promote sport in schools (GDE 1995:4, USSASA 1994:1 and *White Paper* 1995:23).

The mission of USSASA is to establish a multi-coded school sport structure which will organise sport for all schools in South Africa. This organisation has expressed its intention to ensure that sport takes its rightful place and is developed in rural schools, and in townships and that those pupils at the top of the pyramid are given the opportunity to display and enhance their talents (USSASA 1994:1).

The objectives of USSASA (1994:1) are to:

- introduce sport to every school in South Africa, however remote and inaccessible it might be;
- develop a code of sport in all schools;
- broaden the expertise in administration, coaching, umpiring and officiating;

- coordinate and control all *schools sports activities* at *national, provincial, regional, zonal, local and school levels*;
- implement and control a broad school sport policy;
- lobby support of the new Government via the Minister of Sports and Recreation and the Minister of Education;
- affiliate to the school sports federations which control school sport in Africa and the World;
- affiliate with the NSC and NOCSA.

4.6.3.2 *The provision and organisation of physical education and school sport*

The provision of school sport under the newly established body USSASA, makes the necessary provision for various structures at the following levels: national, provincial, regional, local and school levels. Since the school level is of particular relevance this will be discussed fairly extensively below.

□ **The proposed structure for school sport at school level**

The broad basis of school sports practices begins with the individual pupil and teachers who organise themselves into the various sports codes. The sports codes should have teachers organising the particular code of sport. The sports organiser should be regarded as the main coordinator who organises sport under the guidance of the principal. Schools affiliate to the *zonal or local* structures which represent the rights and freedoms of the relevant national sports code controlling body. This structure reveals democracy that evolves from below, from schools to regional bodies, to national code bodies and finally culminates in USSASA (cf **Appendix 3**)(USSASA 1994:5).

It is the school that should provide the most important area of participation, development and competition. The principal's enthusiasm, guidance and authority determines the success of a school's sports programme. The magnitude of sport calls for the involvement of teachers of a particular school. Due to the fact that not all teachers share the same enthusiasm in sport, teachers are encouraged to seek assistance from other competent persons and parents. Teachers are encouraged to get involved in fund raising, be delegates to meetings, assist with first aid, etc. The newest development is to *train pupils* to become umpires, coaches, athletics officials, referees, etc. The playing of all codes of sport at school is encouraged. This may however be problematic due to the number of pupils in schools, size of staff, availability of facilities and equipment, etc. A school has the prerogative to decide which sport codes to provide. Inter house sport competitions should be encouraged in order to: increase participation in terms of frequency and numbers of players; to expose pupils to other codes of sport, and to serve as an alternative for isolated schools (in rural areas) where transport is expensive or non-existent (USSASA 1994:5).

□ **The proposed structure at local and zonal level for school sport**

Schools affiliate and participate in the local sports competitions within the districts. They also affiliate with the zonal sports association and participate in the all zonal sports competitions. In turn these codes of sport are affiliated with the regional sports association (cf **Appendix 4**) (USSASA 1994:6). The zonal structure should include the following officials:

- (1) a zonal executive committee which consists of a chairman, vice chairperson, secretary, match and registration secretary, a treasurer and a trustee;
- (2) a development committee consisting of four members;
- (3) a selection panel of five members;
- (4) managers and coaches for zonal teams;
- (5) a referee's panel to appoint referee's for midweek games.

□ **The proposed regional structure for school sport**

The regional structure for primary and secondary schools should have separate executives with one committee which affiliates to USSASA. All zonal and sports structures, as well as the regional codes structures (as suggested) to affiliate to the regional body (cf **Appendix 4**) (USSASA 1994:8).

□ **The proposed national structure for school sport**

According to the draft policy the national structure encompasses the various regions: Border/Kei; Eastern Cape; South Cape; Western Province; Boland; Southern Transvaal; Eastern Transvaal; Northern Transvaal; Southern Natal and Northern Free State, et cetera. These school sports associations are affiliated to USSASA which is in turn affiliated to NOCSA and NSC. USSASA also intends to seek membership with the International School Sport Federation (cf **Appendix 5**) (USSASA 1994:5).

□ **The proposed structure for physical education**

Very little information exists regarding the situation of physical education, other than that already presented. In 1991 it was proposed that physical education be included in the school curriculum, of the democratic era (Committee Heads of Education Departments 1991:26).

The proposed curriculum framework includes movement activities (physical education) in early childhood development (Committee Heads of Education Departments 1991:25 and Department of Education 1996:12). It has been proposed that teachers should encourage activities that allow children to develop large and small muscles, and those which encourage coordination and balance. Children have to be given the opportunity to express themselves in lessons known as "movement activities".

Physical education is seen as an important subject in the school curriculum, since it has a vital role to play in the reconstruction and development of a healthy well-balanced society (USSASA 1994:38-39 and *White Paper* 1995:9). Recommendations were made on govern-

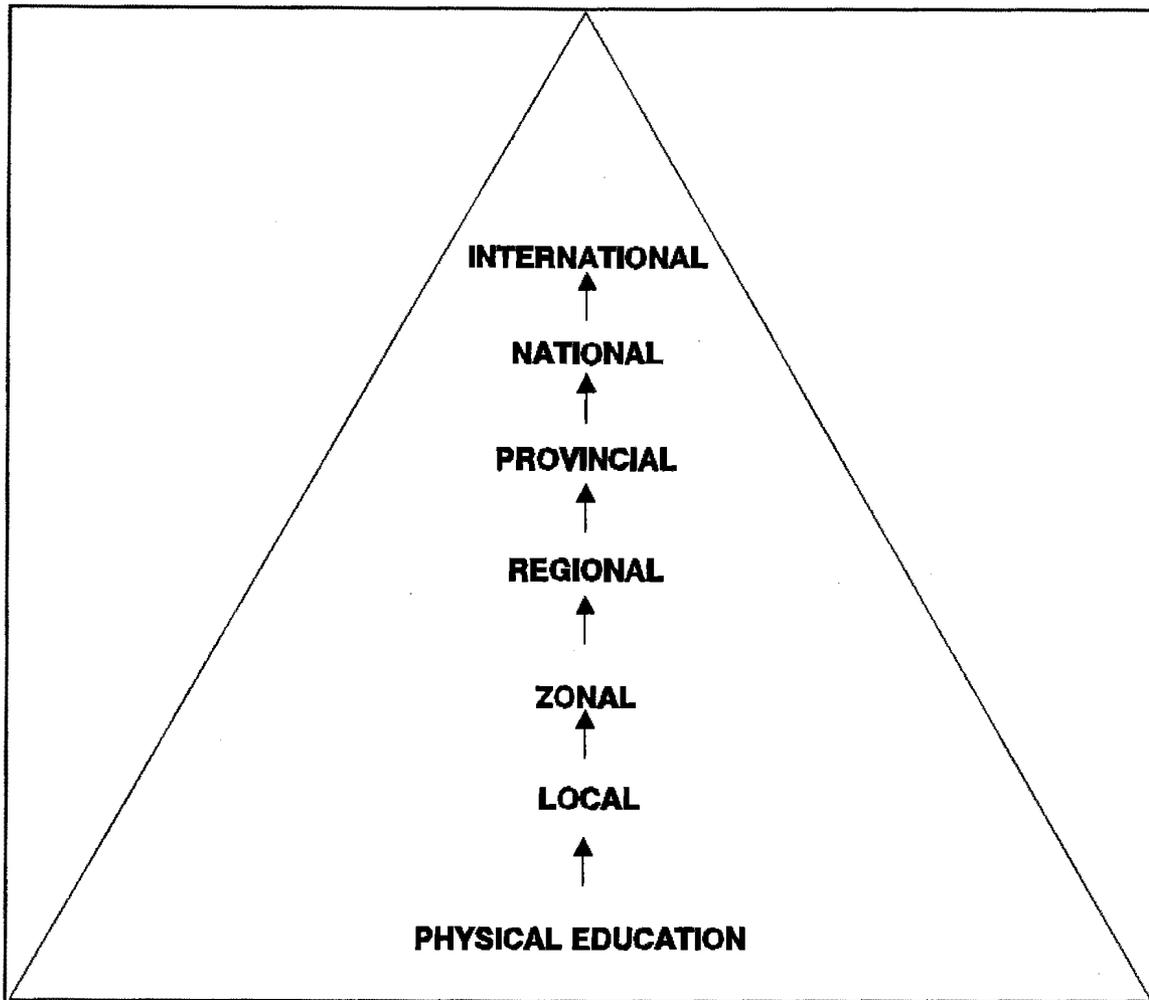
ment level that physical education be made a compulsory subject in all schools in SA. Physical education should be seen as a tool whereby sport can be introduced to children. By laying a sound foundation and turning physical activity into pleasant experiences, children will be able to acquire a full range of basic movement skills (USSASA 1994:38 and *White Paper* 1995:10).

To date, there is no new national school curriculum and syllabus for physical education for schools in South Africa. The Learning Area Committee (1996:115-127) has, however, included health and human movement as one of the seven focuses of life orientation, which forms part of the new curriculum. The focus regarding *health* and *human movement* will be on: a healthy body; mind and spirit; personal well-being; healthy lifestyle; motor skills; physical activity; safety and fitness (cf **Appendix 6**). The Government has instructed that the new curriculum be phased in over a period of four years as from 1998. This process is as follows:

- 1998: Grades - One, Five, and Nine;
- 1999: Grades - Two, Six, and Ten;
- 2000: Grades - Three, Seven, and Eleven;
- 2001: Grades - Four, Eight, and Twelve.

The following figure (FIG 4.2) summarises participation in physical education and school sport in South Africa:

FIGURE 4.2
Participation Pyramid



(Adapted from USSASA 1994:1-37)

4.6.4 Physical education and school sport funding

The funding of *physical education and school sport facilities and equipment*, is only one of the myriad expenditures of the total school fund budget (Kruger 1993:103-104). These days more and more attention is being paid to school funding. Many parents do not have the means to pay for schooling, while others have extensive funds. The result is, that the importance of sport in the school curriculum and the availability of school funds could determine; the place of physical education and sport in the curriculum; the quality of the physical education and sports programmes, and whether children should *pay extra for sport*

or not. Funds supplied by the state only provide for the salaries of teachers and a few additional expenditures. Schools have to rely on donations and fund raising to increase their capital (personal observation).

Additional funds are required to rectify the backlog in the current provision of facilities to previous disadvantaged areas. If acquired, it could facilitate in canceling out the disparities of the past regarding provision of facilities and opportunities. In the past this responsibility was left to the private sector, donations from big business and parents to supply facilities in the White areas. The charging of exorbitant fees, made them inaccessible to the majority of people (Roberts 1992:26).

The annual report of COSAS (1990/1991:28) expressed the great need for facilities in primary and secondary schools. Providing in facilities in the different geographical regions from 1990 until 2000 is calculated at 17 199 thousand. This is a considerable amount that has to be supplied to relieve the backlog.

It is only just that equal opportunities and facilities have to be made available to all. The renewed attention being paid to Blacks schools, is more than justified. Yet, it is not realised that neither did children from White English speaking schools have the same opportunities as their counterparts in the Afrikaans speaking schools (personal observation). However, one should realise that all South African sports people were disadvantaged due to the lack of international participation.

The provision of facilities implies an enormous amount of funds. There are, however, a number of measures that may help in this such as: the sharing of underutilised facilities, and involving the community. Various schools have also looked into the possibility of setting up clubs at their school. In this way funds can be generated both from membership fees from school children, as well as from members of the community (*Beeld*, 13 Januarie 1993:4).

Irrespective of the source of additional funds (whether sponsors or trust funds), the provision of *sports equipment* will have to be carried by the school itself in collaboration with the local sports federation. The GDE (1995:23) has made many proposals, but these have remained

theory. South Africa is a Third World country. Many are jobless and only the affluent have funds to cater for sports needs.

A recommendation of the NSC (*White Paper* 1995:58) is that coaches at school level *should be paid and receive promotion* for their coaching tasks. Many parents encounter considerable expenses while helping their children in their sports careers. It happens that individual persons are often taken in by bogus coaches, pretending to be "professional coaches". Thus these parents end up paying for poor quality coaching (*Metro*, 4 August 1995:47). There are schools that can afford to pay their own coaches and others have solicited the services of outside coaches. This is determined by the availability of funds at the school or by possible sponsors and parents' contributions (personal observation). To date, no educational law exists that specifies that coaches have to be paid. All extra expenses encountered by the school other than specified, will have to be carried by the school itself.

4.7 CONCLUSION

During the next decade, sport in South Africa will be faced with various challenges regarding the implementation of the new national structure for sport and school sport. International impact on South African sport also has to be taken into consideration. In this regard, the *White Paper* (1995:12) stipulates that the approach to sport has to be based on South African values and beliefs, South African geography, South African communities, South African history and heritage. Nevertheless, the national sports structure will also have to be responsive to the global impact on South African sport.

The implication of the developments, undoubtedly impacted on all sections and spheres of South African sport, since South Africa's readmittance to the international arena. A study of the present state of physical education and school sport within the South African curriculum finds that the implementation thereof, is currently in a transitional phase, as yet no new national policies exist for the implementation thereof in the curriculum. In order to determine whether there are valuable lessons to be learnt from any other country in this regard which could facilitate the South African situation, attention is given to the state of physical education and sport in Australia context in the **Chapter Five**.

CHAPTER 5

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT IN THE AUSTRALIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM AND THE RELEVANCE THEREOF FOR SOUTH AFRICA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter investigated the role and place of physical education and sport within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa. Detail was given regarding the structure of sport in general, physical education and school sport in particular.

In many countries across the world, the importance of sport and physical activity proves to be equally important. There are, however, countries where school participation is hampered for some or other reason. Sport and physical education in Brazil is in the hands of private initiative as well as the random availability of school facilities (Ferreira 1984:11). In India and Honduras the important place of sport rests totally on the theoretical implications since sport facilities are lacking (Johnson 1980:307). In Norway, sport participation does take place, yet it is often hampered by the long and cold winters that are experienced. The distances between towns also cause a problem (Volla 1980:481).

There are, however, certain aspects of other systems that can be of relevance for the implementation of physical education and school sport in South Africa. Due to the complexity of sport practices around the world it is impossible to analyse each and every country. For this reason this researcher has chosen one country only namely, Australia, to provide a broader scope and insight regarding the place of physical education and sport in the curriculum. The reason why Australia was chosen is that the South African and Australian sport cultures are very similar and the presence of new initiatives within their education and sport system could be of relevance to South Africa. Factors that can be considered to be of relevance:

- the reintroduction of compulsory physical education and sport within state schools;
- the organisation of physical education, school sport and youth sport;
- government involvement in physical education and sport;

- an effective support service for physical education and sport.

The lessons learnt from the Australian situation can provide the researcher with a means to evaluate South African physical education and school sport and provide possible solutions to problems encountered in South Africa.

5.2 SPORT IN THE AUSTRALIAN CONTEXT

Sport is as much part of the Australian culture as gum trees and kangaroos and goes without saying that Australians are passionate about their sport. Sport is considered an essential experience for young and old in Australia (Robertson 1984:6 and Evans 1990:5). Evans (1990:7) acknowledges that sport reflects both the dominant social values and serves as a transmitter of popular culture.

Reference to the colonial days in Australia, explains the roots of their sports heritage. The sporting origins are related to the tradition of games that were part of the English public schools system (Johnson 1980:5 and Evans 1990:6).

5.2.1 Demographic factors

The vast island continent of Australia covers approximately 7,5 million square kilometres. The population totals 17,2 million people. Eighty percent of the population live in urban centres generally situated in coastal areas. A multicultural diversity is found as twenty percent of the inhabitants are born outside the country (Oldenhove 1995a:1).

Australia is a federation of eight states and territories and it has Federal, State and Local governments. The eight states include; New South Wales (NSW), Victoria (VIC), Queensland (QLD), South Australia (SA), Western Australia (WA), Tasmania (TAS), Northern Territory (NT) and Australian Capital Territory (ACT). Education is the responsibility of state and territorial authorities, and provision is made for a state, Catholic, and independent school system (Oldenhove 1995a:1 and Evans 1990:Interview). In 1995 the total of 6-12 year olds

attending 8 500 primary schools was 1,76 million. There are 2 200 high schools and a total of 1,28 million children attended these schools (Oldenhove 1995a:1).

5.2.1.1 Relevance for the South African situation

South Africa is in a similar position with regards to its sports culture. There is no reason to elaborate further on the origin of South African sport since **Chapter Two** has already given full detail thereof (cf 2.2.2). The passionate love for sport is just as characteristic of South Africa (cf 4.1).

The exclusion of South Africa from international participation had, however, resulted in the negligence of certain areas of physical education and sport. The different cultural groups were not given an equal opportunity to develop and express their support and interest in physical education and sport (cf 4.6).

The enthusiasm that has existed in sport since South Africa's return to international participation does, however, prove that opportunities can be created and a workable structure can be established. There is no reason why South Africa should stand back for any of the world's leading sports countries, with regards to management and the organisation of sport.

A demographical analysis of Australia shows that there are certain differences that have to be accounted for in South Africa. South Africa is 6,5 million square kilometres smaller than Australia, while their total number of inhabitants exceeds that of Australia by approximately 27,8 million people (cf 4.2). The implications thereof is that South Africa has to provide sports opportunities for far more people than Australia. This means that substantially more resources such as money, coaches, equipment and facilities have to be provided for, than in Australia. Being a country that is not as economically prosperous, as Australia, South Africa will have to come up with a way of meeting their own needs. The strain on all the resources is a major concern for all education and sports planners.

Both countries experience problems with regard to the provision of physical education and sport in the rural areas. Australia's use of the radio and television as a method of distance

education, could be a solution to South Africa's problem. The complexity of the provision of physical education and sport is therefore much the same.

5.3 THE ORGANISATION OF YOUTH SPORT IN AUSTRALIA

Youth sport in Australia, refers to sport offered by the community. In Australia it is in the hands of the school-community club system. Access to sporting opportunities in small and remote communities is limited, compared to their city counterparts (Evans 1990:15). Australia offers numerous diverse sports options as there are about 140 recognised national sports. Almost all sports are encouraged at an early age.

Government at national, state and local levels, all make a significant contribution to sport. The Australian Sport Commission provides support for the achievement of excellence in sport and for the development of broad base participation (Evans 1995:Interview; Lamb 1995:Interview, and Oldenhove 1995a:2). More detail regarding support services will be discussed at a later stage.

Children are involved in physical activity from a very early age, playing backyard games, physical education and school sport. Programmes with local sports clubs are also provided. Many children have the combination of all the mentioned opportunities, but the majority have to rely on schools to provide the first point of discovery for a myriad of sport, recreation and leisure opportunities (Evans 1990:16 and Oldenhove 1995a:1).

In Australia, all children should be able to reach their potential in sport, in whatever field they choose. The reasons being that their youth has the opportunity to be involved in the Sydney 2000 Olympics and it is a fundamental national responsibility to provide a healthy start to life (Evans 1995:Interview and Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

5.3.1 Possibilities for the South African situation

South African children just like Australian children are actively involved in physical education and sport from a very early age. This encounter is made at school level. However,

as previously indicated, not all races in South Africa have had the same exposure in the past (cf 4.3 & 4.6). The rural areas are also limited in their opportunities. The recommendations in the *White Paper* (1995:79) stress the need to pay more attention to the development of sport in rural areas.

The contribution of the Government at national level has been discussed in **Chapter Four**. Whether the priorities as stipulated in the *White Paper* 1995:77-96) will be met can only be determined at a much later stage. Due to the recent division of the provinces and the decentralisation of power, it is also impossible to determine the exact contribution of the Government's at provincial level at this stage (cf 4.2). Sport at local level will have to be closely linked to the delivery system of the school and the community in order to cancel out the disparities of the past.

Youth sport in South Africa differs, in the sense in that it is mostly provided by the schools. Very little has, however, been available for children that are not part of the formal educational structure (*White Paper* 1995:22). It is only recently that a recommendation has been made in the *White Paper* (1995:87) for greater provision of sport by the community and better working relationships with clubs.

There are over 120 registered sporting organisations in South Africa which provide a diversity of sports events in society. The staging of the Olympic Games would be of great relevance to South African sport, if we are given the opportunity. It could once again serve as a factor in uniting the divided nation (cf 4.3). The tremendous amount of opportunities, for example job opportunities, advertising, educational opportunities, and so forth would be of value to each individual and to the country as a whole (cf 2.4.7).

5.4 THE ORGANISATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT IN AUSTRALIA

School sport, in this sense, is referred to as the sport in which children participate in for the school only, thus only representing the school.

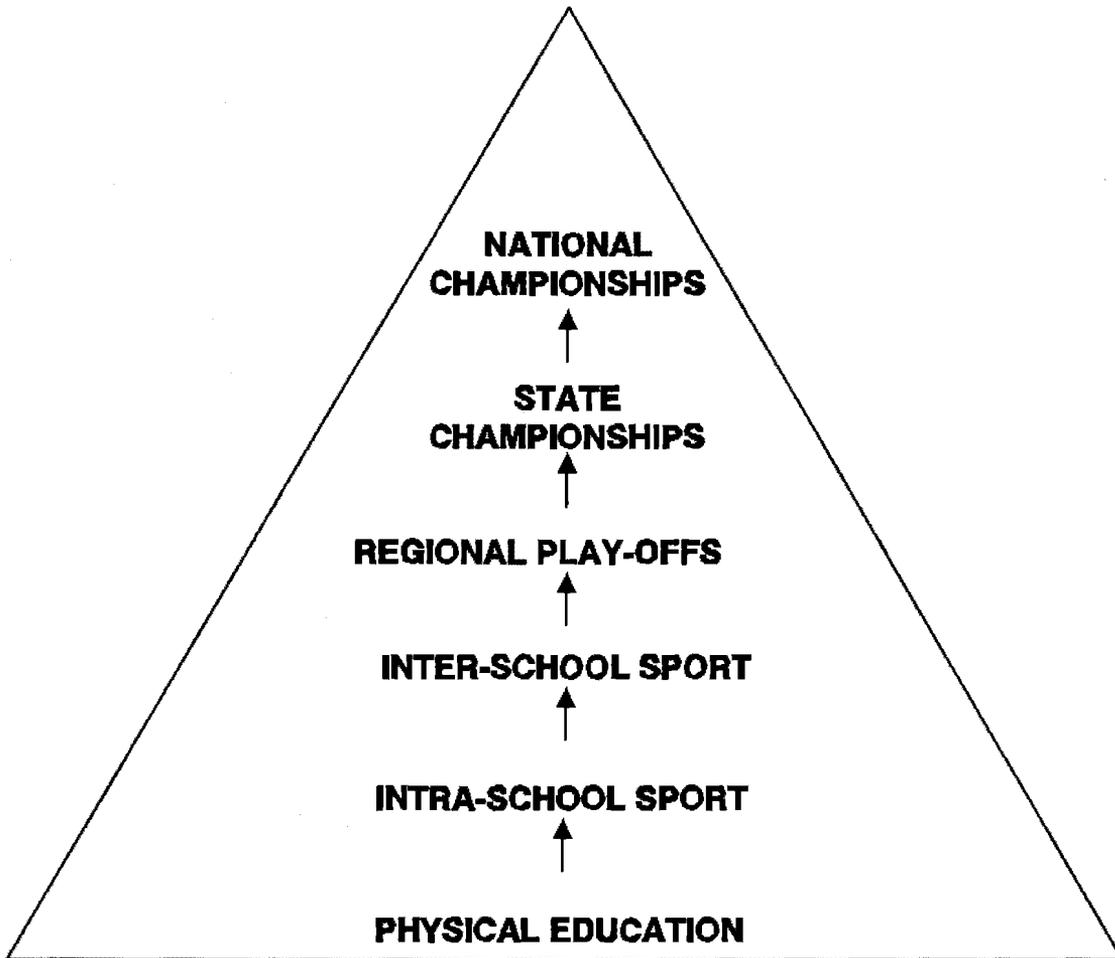
The sports programmes which serve as an extension to the physical education programmes, are provided in primary (age 5-12) and secondary (age 12-18) schools. The choice of participation in extra curricular programmes is optional. Often young children choose to play for a school team in either the same or a different sport that they participate in with the community clubs (Evans 1995:Interview). There are those who choose to participate only for the school or only for the club. Teachers are involved in coaching capacities or umpiring. This is done voluntarily and they do not receive any monetary or time compensation from their employer (Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

The Australian Schools Sports Council (ASSC) and their affiliates of Primary and Secondary School Sports Associations are responsible for the organisation of formal competitive school sport. The organisation of these competitions is at regional, state and interstate level for both primary and secondary schools. A major international event is held biannually involving Pacific rim countries in athletics, swimming and gymnastics. The event is known as the Pacific School Games (Australian School Sports Council 1995:55; Kalend 1995:Interview, and Oldenhove 1995a:3).

The Australian school system consists of three main providers of schooling, namely the Independent schools, Catholic schools and State schools. *Independent schools* which represent twenty six percent of all schools, have a strong commitment and obligation to provide all their students with a comprehensive and sometimes compulsory physical and sport education programme (Oldenhove 1995a:3 and Pau 1995:Interview). The *Catholic school system* provides sport and physical education on the same basis as the *State schools* (Coarsley 1995:Interview and Lamb 1995:Interview).

Evans (1995:Interview) points out that participation levels (cf FIG 5.1) regarding physical education and sport is very similar to other countries. In the state schools there are various levels that a child proceeds through. Participation in physical and sport education complement each other. Participation in physical education leads the child from basic skills to competitive sport.

FIGURE 5.1
Participation Pyramid



(Obtained from the Victorian School Sport Association 1995).

In *physical education* (Pre-primary to Grade 3) various skills are taught such as dance, gymnastics, aquatics, bat and ball skills, and athletics. The choice of activities increase as children move through the grades. At times skills are put into a game context, but the emphasis still remains on skill mastery. Physical education can not be ignored as it forms the basis of sport education (Evans 1990:17).

Intra-school sport offers the middle- and upper-grade children the opportunity to employ the skills learnt in physical education in a game context. Evans (1990:17) concurs that physical education and intra-school sport offers the opportunity to play

minor games and modified major games. A competitive environment where children can play with and against other children of similar ability is provided in intra-school sport.

Inter-school sport offers children the opportunity to play and/or compete against other schools. School teams are often selected on a very competitive basis, with only the best performers earning a place in the school team. Individuals and teams that win at inter-school level can then compete in the regional championships. Highly successful athletes then proceed to state and thereafter to national level (Evans 1990:17-18; Brown(b) 1995:Interview, and Evans 1995:Interview).

Participation in sport takes place according to the various age groups which starts at under 6 (U6) until under 21 (U21). The age groups vary according to the needs of the sport. Possible age groups are U6, U8, U10, U12, U14, U15, U16, U17, U18 and U21 (Brown(b) 1995:Interview; Evans 1995:Interview, and Victorian School Sport Association 1995:29).

5.4.1 Possibilities for South African education

In the South African education system there are only two main providers of schooling, namely, the private schools and state schools (South African Schools Act 84 of 1996). The delivery system for physical education and school sport in South Africa closely resembles that of Australia. The only difference being that the South African system is still in a relatively developing stage in most Black schools in the townships where physical education and sport were sometimes non-existent (cf Chapter 4).

Referring to the participation in school sport in Australia reveals that South Africa follows a similar structure. The implementation of the structure in South African school is only in developing stages at present. The coordination and successful management thereof is an aspect that will need considerable attention. Guidance and

help will have to be offered to schools that have not had the same exposure to such a structure.

5.5 PARTICIPATION IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL SPORT IN AUSTRALIA

5.5.1 School Sport: An inquiry into the state of physical education and school sport in Australia

During the eighties physical education and school sport in Australia was however in great jeopardy. Both the primary and secondary schools neglected the physical education and sport programme. However, the delivery of the curriculum varied from primary to secondary school (Senate Standing Committee 1992:75-77 and Directorate of Sport Education 1993:29).

Subsequently, in 1992, concern was expressed concerning the apparent neglect of the health and physical fitness of students. In 1993, the Minister of Education approved the establishment of a committee to do intense research regarding the state of sport and physical education in the compulsory curriculum. This led to the release of the Moneghetti Report at the end of 1992 (Directorate of Education 1993:1).

Regarding participation, research showed that over 50 percent of 10-15 year olds had high blood pressure, that the number of 10-17 years old participating in sport had declined, that 60 percent of boys and 75 percent of girls did not participate in organised sport (Senate Standing Committee 1992:55 & 89 and Memorandum 23 November 1993:2).

In many *primary* schools physical education classes, students end up playing games. The development of skills fell by the wayside (Directorate of Education 1993:30 and Evans 1995:Interview). These children were found to be leaving primary school without the necessary basic skills. Reasons for deterioration was the ageing of the teaching profession and the loss of specialist teachers of physical education, especially

in the smaller primary schools. Physical education specialist had to choose between career advancement and continuing to teach physical education. The large number of untrained staff taking physical education had made lessons become mere game or aerobic sessions. Most students had the opportunity to be involved in sport at intra- and interschool level. Pupils in years P-3 (Primary to Standard One) did not take part in sport but were involved in minor games. Sport was formally timetabled for years 4-6 (Standards Two to Four). It comprised modified sports that was often supported by the *Aussie Sport* programme (Directorate of Education 1993:31 and Oldenhove 1995b:Interview). The lack of skill development during the primary school years meant that students were unable to perform successfully in school sport and which would subsequently result in a lack of interest in sport in later years.

There were, however, schools that offered excellent programmes. Some schools had undertaken programmes, such as Health in primary schools. Those programmes were aimed at promoting healthy and sustainable lifestyles that would continue into adult life. Programmes encompassed all aspects of the schools' physical education programme and also incorporated regular exercise and related studies in biology and nutrition (Directorate of Education 1993:32).

In *secondary schools* the picture was somewhat different. In 1989, most secondary schools offered *physical education* as a compulsory subject in years 7 - 10. Evidence received by the committee showed that by 1994 physical education was facing a significant threat in the school curriculum. Many secondary colleges were offering physical education as an elective subject in years 9 and 10. Some even considered to make physical education elective from years 7 and 8. Findings had shown that girls in particular tended to drop out of physical education and sport in adolescence (Directorate of Education 1993:34).

Sport in secondary schools was seldom timetabled. The only opportunity for participation had been games in physical education classes, lunchtime activities and participation in interschool sport. If provision was not made for interschool sport and lunchtime activities, further opportunities to engage in sport were non-existent.

Students were missing out on bridging the transition from school sport to participation in community sport programmes (Evans 1995:Interview).

As in the case of primary schools, there were, however, secondary schools that provided excellent programmes in physical education and sport at years 7 - 10. Additional physical education and sport units were offered to students. Fitness testing was conducted on every student and programmes were designed to improve fitness. There were a number of well-established links with community organisations. In a number of schools, the needs of girls were being addressed in the curriculum. Secondary school students in years 10 were also involved in the *Sportsfun* programme in primary schools (cf 5.7.2).

Major discrepancies in the presentation of physical education and sport can thus be summarised as:

5.5.1.1 Time allocation for physical education

A summary of the *amount of time spent on physical education* (cf FIG 5.2 and FIG 5.3) in the whole of Australia was calculated and the results spoke for themselves. Physical education was seldom provided for in some schools and in others it was non-existent.

FIGURE 5.2*Participation in state primary school physical education*

NSW - New South Wales	Hours not specified
QLD - Queensland	2 X 30 minute lessons per week
VIC - Victoria	Ad hoc: often less than 1 hour per week
SA - South Australia	No data available about physical education participation in primary schools
WA - Western Australia	No data available about the degree of involvement of primary school children in physical education, although the Department of Education suggests it is between 30 and 180 minutes per week
TAS - Tasmania	Daily physical education and 1 lesson per week with a specialist teacher
NT - Northern Territory	PE conducted infrequently, although some schools provide daily fitness activities
ACT - Australian Capital Territory	Schools determine their own curriculum

(Senate Standing Committee 1992:75)

FIGURE 5.3*Participation in state secondary school physical education*

NSW - New South Wales	100 Hours total in Years 7 - 12
QLD - Queensland	New Policy. 3 periods/week in Years 7 - 12
VIC - Victoria	Hours not specified
SA - South Australia	Hours not specified
WA - Western Australia	140 mins of PE in Year 7
TAS - Tasmania	100 or 150 hour p a over Years 9 - 12
NT - Northern Territory	Between 45 mins and 1 hours of PE per day
ACT - Australian Capital Territory	Not specified

(Senate Standing Committee 1992:77).

5.5.1.2 Factors that contributed to the lack of physical education and sport in Australia

The overcrowded curriculum caused some subjects and physical education in particular, to become electives or even disappear in some schools. Other factors pointed out by the Senate Standing Committee (1992:73 & 83) and Oldenhove (1995a:3) that contributed to the lack of sport and physical education in schools were:

- increased devolution of decision-making to schools;
- lack of coherent sport and physical education policies by state education authorities;
- reduction in the number of physical education specialists;

- limited pre-service and in-service preparation and support for generalist and physical education specialists and sport teachers;
- reduction of the support budgets for competitive school sport;
- lack of facilities, role models, skills, interest and boring or inappropriate programmes;
- distance and isolation;
- attitudes held by the principal and school administrators;
- involvement in community sport viewed as replacement for physical education;
- pressure to undertake "academic" or "career-oriented" subjects
- other pressures of homework and study;
- concepts of masculinity and femininity;
- cultural background;
- predisposition of parents.

The factors that influenced physical education were found to have an influence on sport participation as well. There were, however, additional factors that added to absence in sport participation, namely the teachers lack of knowledge regarding sporting rules, dislike of violence in sport, perceptions of the risk of injury and cost. The percentage of sport participation in the various age groups gave an indication of the state of school sport participation (Senate Standing Committee 1992:83-84).

5.5.1.3 Implementation of physical education and school sport policies

Results regarding the *implementation of the policies* and programmes designed for primary and secondary physical education and sport also revealed various inconsistencies (cf **Appendix 7 & 8**). The lack of adequate resources also posed a problem for the correct implementation of physical education and sport.

Executive Memorandum No 764, was compiled to indicate the recommendations for the practice of sport and physical education. Schools had to reallocate their priorities within the timetable to facilitate the phased reintroduction of physical education and

sport (Memorandum 23 November 1993:3; *News Education* 1993:1 and Directorate of School Education 1993:40-41).

5.5.2 Recommendations regarding the reintroduction of physical education and sports education

The Directorate of Education (1993:40) made various recommendations regarding the reintroduction of physical education and sport education. Recommendation were as follows:

Time Allocation for Physical and Sport Education

- Years P - 2/3: 20-30 minutes physical education per day
- Years 3 - 6: three hours per week, with at least 50 percent allocated to timetabled physical education
- Years 7 - 10: a minimum of 100 minutes of physical education and a minimum of 100 minutes of timetabled sport

(P = pre-primary ; Years = school year)

(Directorate of Education 1993:40)

Phased introduction of Physical and Sport Education:

Physical Education

- By 1995 all schools had to timetable physical education and sport education p-10
- Years p - 3 PE core by 1994
- Years 4 - 6 PE core by 1995
- Years 7 - 9 PE core by 1994
- Year 10 PE core by 1995

Sport

- By 1996 all schools had to timetable sport 4 - 10
- Years 3/4 - 8 Sport core by 1995
- Years 9 - 10 Sport core by 1996

(Directorate of Education 1993:44-41)

The overall **recommendations** were aimed at the improvement of the delivery and quality of physical education, these include:

- the development of physical education and junior sports policies for schools and for the states to provide better support for the teachers responsible for physical education;
- concerns about the National Curriculum Statement and Profiles on Health;
- commonwealth sports funding and support for research into physical education and sport;
- the need to develop physical education and sports policies that address needs of children with disabilities, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children, children, especially girls, from non-english speaking background and girls;

- the need to identify and monitor specific learning outcomes from Physical Education programmes;
- the training and professional development needs of teachers and community members involved in the delivery of physical and sport education in schools;
- the need for departments, local government, schools and sports organisations to develop complementary policies and co-operatively provide and maintain facilities for youth sport (Directorate of Education 1993:25).

5.5.3 Implications for Australia

The introduction of increased physical education and sport in primary and secondary in Australian schools has subsequently resulted in the shortage of trained teachers/staff to present physical education and sport sessions. The Government cannot fund a physical and sport education specialist in every school. They have, however, provided money for in-service training of tutors to train classroom staff. The main idea is to increase children's participation in school sport. Tutors are offering *refresher courses* to train sports teachers in primary schools, and courses in coaching skills for secondary school teachers without a physical education background (Pau 1995:Interview).

A total of twenty *exemplary schools* have been established in the state of Victoria that will serve as a model school for other schools that have not had an ongoing physical and sport education programme. They offer help and assistance to other schools with the setting up of physical and sport education programmes. The exemplary schools are to be the focus of the delivery of professional development programmes. For a school to be able to be recognised as exemplary schools they had to adhere to certain requirements. Requirements included an excellent programme in place, the schools commitment to further development of programmes, the physical and demographic profile of the school had to be such that it adequately reflected the circumstances in a wide range of schools, diversity of the programme had to hold options for other

schools and the location had be suitable (*News Education* 1993:1 and Kennedy 1995:Interview).

5.5.4 Possibilities for the South African education system

The relevance of the inquiry into the state of physical education and sport in Australian can not be ignored in this research. The need for the inquiry proves that the physical education and sport is still regarded to be an important component of the curriculum. In this particular research the above mentioned forms the key issue of the research problem.

The findings of USSASA (1994:2) regarding the reintroduction of physical education and sport within South African schools as the most important measure to restore the poor state of children's physical fitness. The results were similar to the recommendations made by the Directorate of Education in Australia (cf 5.5.2).

Aspects that correlate are:

- developing of applicable sports policies;
- better support for teachers;
- funding of sport and funding for research;
- teacher upgrading and training;
- the need to readdress physical education and sport for the disabled, underprivileged and girls;
- recognition of the national Health policy.

Following the example of exemplary schools would be of a great advantage to the South African situation. The only problem that could be foreseen is that most previously all-White schools are quite a distance from the schools in disadvantaged areas. The costs involved in such an implementation could amount to thousands, and the number of volunteers in sport would not be sufficient to help in schools. Teacher training and in-service training will have to be improved.

5.6 CLUB SPORT

Australia has 35 000 sport clubs. These clubs cover the 140 different types of sports offered. All age groups are catered for starting at the age of five years. Children move through the different age groups from modified sport until adult sport. Clubs are therefore community based catering for the youth and senior players. Many families are involved in clubs which encourage the long term benefits of sport (Evans 1995:Interview and Oldenhove 1995a:3).

5.6.1 Relevance for the South African situation

The club system as used in Australia can be of relevance to the South African situation. The cooperation and working relationship between clubs, schools and the community proves that if implemented South Africa can achieve the same results. The system used in Australia helps adolescents bridge the gap between school and community participation. The aim of a closer integration between schools and clubs, and the handing over of the role and place of the school as the primary providers of sport. Numerous opportunities could be provided to encourage children to participate in sport. Teachers could also benefit in their coaching were they to come into contact with professional coaches. This is one area that needs considerable attention in South Africa.

Duplicating participation at club level in Australia has caused many athletes to focus on too much winning (cf 5.3). In this regard South Africa is possibly in a favourable position in that few children participate for a club and the school simultaneously. However, clubs could provide for opportunities not provided for in the schools, as not always the case in South Africa.

5.7 SUPPORT SERVICES FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT

5.7.1 The Australian Sports Commission

The Australian Sports Commission [hence ASC] was only established in 1989 by the Australian Sports Commission Act 1989. It subsequently operates under the same act. The ASC is the body of the Commonwealth Government that is responsible for funding and developing sport (Australian Sports Commission Report 1994:3-4).

This particular Commission as reported by the Australian Sports Commission Report (1994:3-4) is a sub-program of the Sport and Recreation Programme of the Environment, Sport and Territories Portfolio. The ASC reports to the Federal Minister for Environment, Sport and Territories. A wide range of programmes are supported that are designed to develop sporting excellence and increase participation in sport by all Australians.

The organisational and evaluative design of the ASC is based on a hierarchy of outcomes which are independent on one another (cf **Appendix 9**). The top level represents the over-arching goals which are articulate as the mission statement. The next level specifies two objectives which articulated the desired outcomes for the mission to be achieved. The other levels represent specific outcomes that must be attained for the achievement of the higher order outcomes (Australian Sports Commission Report 1994:5-7).

The Australian Sports Commission's mission is to enrich the lives of all Australians through sport. To achieve this they are focusing on two main objectives and nine strategies, the objectives are: (1) increased participation in sport and sports activities by Australians, and (2) striving for excellence in sports performance by Australians. The major strategies of the Australian Sports Commission Report (1994:5-6) for 1994 - 1997 are briefly:

- utilising the Sydney 2000 Olympics as a catalyst to encourage and take advantage of a wide range of sport and sport-related opportunities for participation and enjoyment;
- fostering and encouraging education and training in all elements of sport;
- developing and implementing policies, programmes and practices aimed at the improvement of access and equity in all aspects of sport;
- encouraging the provision of integrated, coordinated and quality support programmes for athletes and sporting organisations particularly in the build-up to the Sydney 2000 Olympics and Paralympics;
- promoting ethics and safety in sport;
- maximising the availability of resources for the development of Australian sport, especially through opportunities generated by the 2000 Olympics;
- utilising the focus provided by the Sydney 2000 Olympics, by emphasising the profile and increasing the awareness of the benefits of sport and the ASC's programme;
- participating in international activities for the benefit of Australian sport and the staging of the Sydney 2000 Olympics;
- assisting in staging the Sydney 2000 Olympics and the Paralympics and to ensure that these events make a long-term and broad contribution to Australian sport.

5.7.2 The *Aussie Sport* Programme

5.7.2.1 *General remarks on Aussie Sports Programmes*

The *Aussie Sport* Programme launched in 1986 and was initiated by the Australian Sports Commission in conjunction with state departments of sport and education. It is a national sporting initiative that is committed to the development of young people through sport. They provide the younger generation with the best possible sporting experience (Australian Sports Commission 1993:1-3 and Oldenhove 1995a:13).

All clubs, school and parties involved in junior sport have access to *Aussie Sport* units which operate in every state and territory of Australia. There is a unit of qualified staff which provides constant resources, technical support, help and advice. The Australian Sports Commission actively promotes and markets *Aussie Sport* to the entire Australian community ensuring maximum public awareness. They foster relationships between groups - schools and clubs, community groups and sports associations, professional sports associations and local clubs in the community. *Aussie Sport* produces and distributes a wide range of resources and information throughout the country.

5.7.2.2 *Brief discussion of aims of the Aussie Sports Programme*

The aims of *Aussie Sport* is developing skills, promoting fun and enjoyment, encouraging participation and fair play across the board. This programme relies strongly on community support and involvement (Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

The broader aims of the programme are:

- supporting quality teaching and coaching;
- promoting and developing quality sport for young people;
- making sport more accessible, easier to play and enjoyable;
- developing essential sports skills in young people;

- fostering greater community involvement in junior sport (Australian Sports Commission 1993:3).

Provision has been made by the Australian Sports Commission for Aussie Sport in various areas. Firstly, *Aussie Sport* was designed to contribute and compliment *physical education and sport* in schools. Emphasis is placed on the needs of the children and the needs of the teachers. The majority of the programmes can be adapted to suit the primary school child. Sport It! and Ready Set Go! are specifically designed for the *primary school* teachers. In *secondary schools*; *Sport Search*, *Active Girls Campaign*, *Sportsfun and Caps* contribute to the needs of the secondary child and teacher (Brown(a) 1995:Interview).

At club level the programmes concentrate on community support and involvement. Personnel work with local groups to ensure a coordinated approach to junior sport in their area. Clubs that are registered as *Aussie Sport Clubs* receive all the necessary support regarding the leadership programmes and coaching development. There is a very close working relationship with national and state sporting associations and the Australian Coaching Council. They work together regarding the training of coaches and club officials. Aussie Sport Programmes also offer services between schools and clubs, to encourage a close co-operation, exchanging of facilities and resources. This enables qualified coaches to assist schools right through to more specialised strategies. By doing this enables clubs to bridge the gap between school and outside sporting clubs.

In tertiary institutions, *Aussie Sport* provides in-service training, curriculum development resources, external training options for staff and assist in training undergraduate students. This task is fulfilled with the help of key education and sporting authorities.

5.7.2.3 *Respective Aussie Sport Programmes*

The programmes all focus on the sporting needs of young people at *different stages of their physical and social development*. Some programmes have been modified to

suit the needs of the individual groups. To cater for the needs of young people various programmes as mentioned previously have been made available throughout Australia:

□ *Sport Start*

The aim of this programme is to help parents and anyone working with young children (3 - 6 years) to increase the child's confidence and interest in sport through very informal play activities. It is fun for both parents and children. It adds to the development and awareness of the world around the child. Resources for Sportstart include a book of ideas for simple games and activities (Australian Sports Commission 1993:5 and Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

□ *Sport It!*

This programme is a 15 week programme designed for primary school children. The basic motor skills used in sport, namely kicking, striking, locomotion, tracking, throwing and ball control are included in this programme. Children are organised into groups to learn these fundamental skills which they would use for the rest of their lives.

This programme also provides the teacher with a comprehensive range of materials which are suitable for any existing physical education or sports timetable. There are various incentives available such as charts and certificates which help teachers motivate children, keep them interested and reward them for their efforts (Australian Sports Commission 1993:5-6 and Brown (a) 1995:Interview).

□ *Kellogg's Ready Set Go*

This programme is aimed at bringing adult sport "down to size", to suit the needs for children. The sport is modified at schools or in the clubs. Playing conditions, equipment and rules are changed to suit the children. Over 40 national sporting organisations have modified their sport. Packages are available to the schools which

include, the rules and equipment (Australian Sports Commission 1993:6; Evans 1995:Interview and Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

□ *Active Girls Campaign*

Despite the fact that sport is available to everyone, research still proves that barriers exist and prevent girls from participating in, and enjoying, a wide range of sport. For this reason Aussie Sport in conjunction with the Australian Sports Commission's Women and Sport Unit created a strategy exclusively for this group. A public relations and media campaign was designed to heighten girls and the public's awareness of the various benefits of sport to girls. Strategies have been implemented to increase female participation in all sporting organisations (Australian Sports Commission 1993:6, Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

□ *Sport Search*

The Australian Sports Commission has designed a computer programme that help youths select a sport that is suitable for them. It assists the upper primary and secondary children to make informed sporting decisions by using this programme. This activity involves simple tests of their physical characteristics and interests. A whole list of ideas on which sport suits the child and what they are like and how to get involved are supplied. Children are offered the opportunity to look beyond the school gate and help on contacting outside sporting groups (Australian Sports Commission 1993:7 and Brown(a) 1995:Interview).

□ *Sportsfun*

Sportsfun is a programme designed to get older pupils (std 9 & 10 and tertiary students) involved and interested in a variety of activities in sport administration or management. Getting involved in sport training and coaching builds confidence, increases leadership skills and helps develop communication skills. The focus is involving older students in teaching, guiding and helping the primary school children

not already in junior sport (Australian Sports Commission 1993:8 and Brown(a) 1995:Interview).

□ *Caps*

This particular programme is a sports-based leadership development programme for 14 - 20 year olds. Persons choose to be involved in a range of sports activities which include coaching, umpiring, administration, involvement in *Sportsfun*, team or event management and sport health activities, as well as participating in the chosen sport. A mentor or coordinator works with them learning and attaining credits for their activities as part of a school subject or curriculum (Brown(a) 1995:Interview and Oldenhove 1995b:Interview).

5.7.2.4 *The value of the Aussie Sports Programme*

The value of the programme has proven to be very successful in Australia. The 1989 research findings indicated that all participants viewed the programme positively. Teachers and children regarded the variety of sports available as the main factor for increased participation and builder of self confidence (Clough & Traill 1989:63-67).

Robertson (1992:10-16) who conducted the 1992 research points out that *Aussie Sport* made an important contribution to the teaching of physical education and sport to children. It was essential for this programme to continue as it would help to assist schools and sports organisations in providing children with sound sport education for the future.

Furthermore, the goals that need to be sought in children's sport are; more enjoyment and satisfaction from sport participation; longer involvement and better sporting performances; a greater number of children continuing involvement in adolescence and adulthood, and more teachers and coaches appreciated their contribution to the development of the child (Roberston 1992:16).

The Australian Sports Commission forms the corner stone of development in sport. It a unique opportunity for all the interested parties to collaborate in their efforts to support the child in his physical education and sports career. It is an indispensable resource to physical education, school sport, club, coaches, teachers, officials, parents and administrators.

One of the finest characteristics of *Aussie Sport* is the fact that it is wholeheartedly supported by the Government, Education Departments and sports associations and all those connected to them. This working relationship ensures: (1) support regarding finances, quality teaching and coaching; (2) availability of resources, staff and development programmes, and (3) access to national sport strategies, incentives and award schemes. The total benefit of *Aussie Sport* has been measured in terms of the benefits for the child's physical education and sport opportunities. Without a doubt *Aussie Sport* has made an enormous contribution to the total development of physical education and sport in Australia.

5.7.3 Possibilities for the South African situation

South Africa can learn a great deal from the Australian experience. The type of programmes used, are applicable to the South African situation in this regard obviously with the necessary adjustments to suit the current development of sport in South Africa.

The current development programme of the National Sports Council, *Protea Sport*, in collaboration with the Australian Sports Commission proves the relevance of a working relationship that which has recently been established and the necessity of this particular analysis of the Australian situation.

Both countries have found it necessary to encourage mass participation. The focus of *Protea Sport* for South Africa should be adjusted to meet the needs of all citizens and not only the disadvantaged areas (cf *White Paper* 1995:79). Due to the abolishment

of certain internal regulations (cf Chapter 4) and the restructuring of education, areas and schools are no longer as segregated as in the past.

The inclusion of the development programmes as part of the physical education and school sport programme is one of the most valuable attainable assets from Australia. The school is the place where the basis is laid for creating life long participation (cf 3.5). Better cooperation and communication with regards to the implementation of a national development programme needs to be sought in order to be successful. The National Sports Council and the education authorities on all levels seriously need to work on incorporating the development programme into the current syllabus of education.

5.8 CONCLUSION

Key issues that emanate from this study, are found to be relevant for both South African and Australia, are:

- the need to research the state of physical education and sport was found necessary in both countries;
- the relevant parties called for the reinstating of physical education and sport as compulsory components of the curriculum;
- the need for ongoing development;
- the vital role of the Government and Education authorities in sport.

Chapter Six contains the final conclusions and recommendations with regards to the entire study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, CHALLENGES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This investigation was undertaken to determine the place of physical education and sport within the school curriculum of the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa. Providing in the needs of society needs to be reflected in the curriculum, in order to produce a quality physical education and sports programme. Each society attends to its curriculum differently. Therefore knowledge concerning factors that have an influence on the development of physical education and sport is of paramount importance.

Sports participation provides the channel not only for the physical progress of a person, but also for psychological, sociological and educational development. For these obvious reasons then it is imperative that an efficient sports system will be functional in South Africa.

Demographic, social, economic, religious, and political factors influence the outcome of provision of sport. The Government's interference for political reasons in sport can also be detrimental to the sports system of a particular country.

6.2 SURVEY OF THE INVESTIGATION

Chapter Two of the research firstly determined the origin of physical education and sport for all societies and secondly the *main values* of sport for a society. The educational value of sport is undeniable. Sport as part of the daily school curriculum can be traced back to the times of Ancient Greece. Sport contains a *physiological* benefit for society in that it offers opportunities to improve the general well-being of the individual. *Physical growth* and *motor skill* development is also stimulated.

The *social value* of sport is inherent because people are social beings and they depend on contact with other people.

Sports participation strengthens friendship bonds and develops character because of interaction with others. *Psychologically* individuals benefit from sport in that it facilitates the stabilisation of their emotional life. It regenerates the restoration of distorted thinking, since it facilitates the acquire of a balanced self image. *The ethical value* of sport is a *sine qua non*; participation in sport can facilitate the inculcation of value such as fairness and justice. The most valuable aspect is sportsmanship. The potential economic and political benefits for society is quite obvious and could for instance create jobs, revenue, or even be used as a vital propaganda tool.

The value of sport *for the child* as indicated in **Chapter Three**, makes it inevitable to exclude sport from the curriculum. The child should be an integrated being and should therefore, be educated in his/her totality, this includes, inter alia, his/her physical, socio-emotional and intellectual development. The various facets of human development are interrelated. As is indicated physical developments have a reciprocal effect on the socio-emotional, as well as on the intellectual development of the child.

Changes, issues and trends regarding sport as indicated in **Chapter One** were resumed in more detail in **Chapter Four**. The current situation regarding physical education and school sport practices in South Africa reflects national changes in South African sport but also reflects changes from the international sports arena. These changes also have implications for the incorporation of physical education and sport within the school curriculum.

Within the next decade South Africa will face the challenges on account of the implementation of the new structure for sport and school sport. It will only be possible to determine the overall impact of these developments on the matter of the participation pattern in sport at a later stage. The implementation of the new sports

structure will also influence the vital place of physical education and school sport in the curriculum.

To be able to corroborate the findings regarding physical education and school sport in South Africa, an analysis of sport, and in particular school sport, in Australia was undertaken in **Chapter Five**. South African and Australian societies share the same love of sport. The inquiry into the state of physical education and sport in Australian schools, substantiates that its place in the curriculum, is also of importance in other parts of the world. Other research findings have made it possible to evaluate the South African physical education and school sport situation, and put it into perspective.

6.3 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

The research findings have identified and highlighted challenges and opportunities, that face the relevant role players in sport as well as in education, with regards to the various developments in post-apartheid sport of South Africa. The challenges and opportunities can be distinguished as follows:

□ The role and place of sport in society

One of the greatest challenges facing South Africa is undoubtedly to regain its rightful place in the international arena. Since readmittance in 1993, South Africa has succeeded in proving its strengths and dedication on the playing fields, by winning numerous major events (4.3.4.8). In order to be successful in international sport requires a well designed and efficient sport system. The various structures and role players have been put into place but they are now faced with the daunting task of creating the best opportunities for administrators, officials, players and spectators. The potential benefits which sport generates for society should be exploited in the development of sport throughout South Africa.

The new structure for sport which was created out of desperation by the underprivileged will have to be accepted by the privileged. To date this has not been an easy task since many decisions during unity formation were seen as politically motivated (4.3.2 & 4.3.3). The transformation process will still require tolerance from all the role players in South African sport. The emphasis should, however, be placed more on the achievement of success in the international arena together with the enjoyment created from participation.

The emphasis should be placed on the important role of sport in society, by placing the Government's policy of "*Mobilising the nation to play*" even higher on the agenda. Whether the recommendations stipulated in the *White Paper* (cf priorities 4.5.3) can be met is an enormous challenge set out by the Government. Succeeding in these priorities would imply a healthier nation, reduced medical costs, economic growth, psychological benefits, social and political benefits for all citizens.

Furthermore the role players are faced with the task of eradicating past injustices which resulted in the preclusion and marginalisation of the majority of South Africans. Opportunities and avenues have to be created for all citizens to uplift and develop sport in South Africa. The vastness of latent talent creates a viable opportunity for sport coaches to develop potential and to increase the depth in teams to the utmost. The proposed sport structure has been put into place and the challenge now lies in the implementation thereof.

□ **The place of physical education and sport in the curriculum**

The strategy of the South African Government to reorganise the structure of sport resulted in the restructuring of physical education and school sport in the curriculum. This resulted in the establishment of a new structure for school sport and the call for compulsory physical education and school sport (cf Chapter 4).

Reinstating physical education and school sport in South African schools was necessary to help eradicate the imbalances of the past. Physical education and sport

is no longer seen as the exclusive privilege of the chosen few. By making physical education compulsory children would be able to acquire a broad basis of movement skills. The primary school plays a vital role in the formation of healthy physical education and sport practices (cf 3.5.2).

At school level this reintroduction means that opportunities have to be provided for upgrading and training of physical education teachers and sport coaches. These courses are a necessity that can not be overlooked. This will of course require considerable financial support that is not available at the present time. The role players will have to look at a well designed volunteer programme and increased parent involvement, as is the case in Australia (cf Chapter 5).

It is necessary to stress the urgency of the implementation of a national physical education policy that is designed within the framework of the national curriculum. This will enable children to acquire a full range of basic movement skills. Furthermore, there is a wellspring of talent undeveloped in the majority of the children of South Africa. Steps should be taken to make physical education classes as enjoyable and as exciting as possible for these pupils. This researcher suggests that more emphasis be placed on a *broader selection of activities* in the physical education lessons. The greater the exposure to variety, the greater the opportunity to accommodate as many children as possible. By training secondary school children as officials, referees and first aid helpers, a keener interest could be created in the physical education lessons (cf 5.7.2).

The new school sport structure in South Africa has made it possible to provide equal access to all races in the country (cf 4.6.4). A well formulated policy is required for the correct functioning of physical education and school sport. It further reinforces the ethos, values and aims of physical education and sport in the school curriculum. Without a constructive policy at this level, sport will, no doubt, not come to its right. Restructuring school sport also provides opportunities for children of all cultures to socialise through sport, and acquire knowledge of the different cultures.

Lessons from very well organised "White schools" sports system must, however, not be discarded as it is pointless to reinvent the wheel. Experiences from the past should be incorporated and used in the new school sport system. Schools are faced with the task of acquiring sufficient volunteers, equipment and facilities. Providing incentives for teaching staff for their services in sport, should help to alleviate the problem of unwillingness, the lack of interest, and shortage of teachers who could be involved in coaching.

□ **Development of sport**

Since the unification of sport in South Africa, *development* has been the main commitment of sporting bodies. The launch of a national development programme *Protea Sport* was the consequence of the working relationship between the NSC and the Australian Sports Commission. The implementation of the current development programme will not go without hitches. It will take time before it is established in the community. Far more can be learnt from the Australian experience and the challenges now rests in possibly designing similar programmes to suit the South African situation and context (cf Chapter 5).

The emphasis on the development programme in the rural areas and for the underprivileged people is fitting, yet development can only be successful if it is included in all schools and teachers are compelled to commit themselves to play an active role in extra-mural activities. At primary school level modified sport should be made compulsory to help assist and encourage all children with different abilities to take part in physical education and sport. The assistance of parent involvement and community volunteers should be properly utilised by schools. They could be of assistance in administration, coaching, refereeing, umpiring, organising, financing, maintenance of grounds/fields/courts.

One of the national measures which could be implemented to generate the necessary funds for sports development, is the institution of a state lottery for sport. These funds could also be utilised to create additional facilities and supply equipment.

□ **Government involvement in sport**

This investigation reveals that the Government played a foremost and leading role in determining the ideology of South African sport (cf 1.2.2). The post-apartheid Government has an enormous task on its hands to eradicate the past injustices caused by apartheid. All citizens have to be included in the system of sports provision. The Government has a supporting role to play in this provision (cf 4.5.3). The government's involvement in sport will also largely determine the focus of the sports system of a country.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS EMANATING FROM THE STUDY

In the light of the research findings the following recommendations are made:

- (1) That compulsory physical education and school sport be reintroduced, and phased in, over a period of four years into the curriculum of South African schools**

Probably the most important development since the readmittance of South African into international participation was the urgent request to reinstate physical education and school sport. This is seen as a major priority of the Department of Education, the Department of Sport and Recreation, NSC and other role players (cf 1.2.3 and Chapter 4). To achieve the abovementioned, the following needs to be achieved:

- Taking the history of South African sport and the involvement of the Government in sport into consideration, the policy regarding the reintroduction of physical education and sport involves certain implications. A whole new *culture of physical activity and sports participation* has to be developed and propagated in schools. Principals and teachers have to take the *responsibility and ownership* of this policy implementation. Its ultimate success will depend on the commitment and support of the various role players in physical education and school sport.

- This researcher would like to stress that the implementation of such a policy does not require a complete change of the entire situation. It is of utmost importance that the initiatives of the past have also contributed to the reintroduction of physical education and school sport. In this regard, the *newly formed structures for sport and school sport provide a firm basis* for the incorporation of physical education and school sport. It is essential that cooperation be sought at local, zonal, regional, provincial and national levels (cf Chapter 4). The implementation of the policy will require ongoing consultation within the various provinces. Working parties need to be established in the suggested regions to coordinate the reintroduction and phasing in of physical education and school sport within the post-apartheid educational dispensation of South Africa.

- It is suggested that the phasing in of the new syllabus for physical education coincides with implementation of the new syllabi from 1998-2001, as is stipulated by the Government (cf 4.6.3.2). The phasing in should be as follows:
 - 1998: Grades - One, Five, and Nine
 - 1999: Grades - Two, Six, and Ten
 - 2000: Grades - Three, Seven, and Eleven
 - 2001: Grades - Four, Eight, and Twelve

Regarding *school sport*:

- By 2001 all schools should have included sport in Grades Three to Twelve
- Grades Three to Seven by 2000
- Grades Eight to Twelve by 2001

(2) That South African national policies for physical education and school sport be rewritten and distributed as a matter of priority

The necessity of a national policy in both physical education and school sport for SA should not be overlooked for the following reasons:

- Such a policy would recognise and provide in the strong educational and community demand for a clear set of *principles and guidelines* which emphasise the importance of physical education and sport in the curriculum.
- This policy could encourage a *coordinated and cooperative delivery system* for physical education and school sport in the post-apartheid educational dispensation.
- The Government has to support and facilitate sport nationally. This policy will therefore, provide a *major foundation for sport* in South Africa.
- The purpose of this policy, would be to ensure the *provision of opportunities* to develop and enrich the lives of all young South Africans through physical education and sport.
- The policy would provide a *framework and guideline* for those responsible for the development and organisation of physical education and school sport.

The aims of this policy could be translated into distinct objectives, namely to provide:

- the best opportunities in physical education and school sport for children to enable the achievement of lifelong participation in sport (cf 3.4.1).
- adequate resources and facilities for the incorporation of physical education and school sport (cf Chapter 4).

- an environment that is enjoyable; a wide variety of physical activities; opportunities for the development of physical fitness, skills and good behaviour; support and encouragement (cf 3.4).
- equal opportunities for all children of all races in South Africa in order to erase past disparities (cf Chapter 4).

It is essential that policy makers should take cognisance of the following elements when developing this policy. The suggested aspects are: the rights and responsibilities of children; appropriate sports (choice and modified sport); competition structures; the role of teachers and coaches (teacher training and qualifications); school and community links; involvement of other interested parties (Government, parents, officials, administrators, the media, and the private sector); and safety guidelines (equipment and facilities, drugs in sport, stress, medical conditions).

(3) That the Minister of Education and the Minister of Sport and Recreation, jointly support a promotion strategy for physical education and sport in South African schools

- It is of utmost importance to publicise the successes schools have had in the provision of physical education and school sport. It can be highlighted in an ongoing way through events such as an Education Week; a Junior Sports Week, and Youth Day. The Department of Sport and Recreation, together with a physical education and school sport team should be the responsible for developing this strategy.
- In addition, the Department of Sport and Recreation should work with the Directorate of Education and Department of Health, to jointly undertake a *promotion campaign* for physical education and school sport in the *electronic and print media*. A well-planned campaign can effectively compliment the physical education and school sports programme by supplementing existing programmes. These programmes, however, should not be used as a replacement

for the physical education and school sports programmes. They will continue to supplement physical education and school sport and be a valuable asset for physical education teachers and sport coaches. It is suggested that major companies within the private sector, be approached to become sponsors for such a promotion strategy.

- It is suggested that the responsible parties explore and consider *involving high-profile sports heroes* to stress the benefits of lifelong fitness (cf 4.4.3).
 - Another means of promoting physical education and school sport, is the incorporation of *Protea Sport* programmes developed by the National Sports Council. These programmes should be made available to all schools in South Africa. By doing this, the aim of "*Getting the nation to play*" will be achievable. This is important as the South African society as a whole has undergone dramatic changes since the abolishment of the Group Areas Act and the unification of the previous segregated education system (cf 1.2.1 & 4.3.4). It will help in the promotion of physical education and sport as important components in a healthy lifestyle and improve their inclusion in the post-apartheid educational dispensation.
- (4) That each school or educational institution develop a policy and plan for the delivery of quality physical education and school sport programme in South African schools on local level**
- It is imperative to ensure that *a mandatory physical education programme* is being delivered in all primary schools, which ensures the delivery of fundamental motor skills. Fitness testing should be conducted on a regular basis with the aim of improvement. Award systems should be designed to act as motivation for children.
 - *Parents and interested community members should be supported and encouraged* to assist with the physical education and school sport programme

where possible. For this reason proper parent involvement programmes have to be developed. The principal and staff must work together to improve the fitness of the children. In the light of the needs and interests of children, and with the aim to improved provision, of the choice of sports codes should be reviewed each year. The international trends have a definite influence on the choices children make in deciding their areas of participation.

- The physical education and school sports policies must be in accordance with the national physical education and school sports policies. It goes without saying that policy makers need to *include the value of physical education and sport for the child* as discussed in this investigation. One, therefore, only needs to highlight these values briefly: promotion of immediate and long-term benefits; higher levels of fitness; better health; opportunities for competition; promotion of nationalism; formation of positive attitudes towards oneself; opportunities for socialising; involvement of the total human being; moulds character and develops morals; sport serves as an educational tool (cf 3.4). The multifarious value of sport also needs to be taken into consideration during the policy-making proses; that is, educational, social, economic, psychological, physiological, ethical and political values (cf 2.4).

(5) That structured and comprehensive programmes for implementation in both primary and secondary schools of South Africa regarding compulsory physical education and school sport be written.

- A diversity of aspects need to be taken into consideration when planning a comprehensive and structured programme for the above mentioned areas. A logical progression of experiences, which will assist all young children to develop fitness, motor skills, knowledge and positive attitudes through physical education and sport should be provided. Structuring a programme in accordance with the development of the child is imperative. The overall development of the child should be the prerequisite for the proper delivery of physical education during early childhood education and the primary school phase. **Chapter Three**

(cf 3.2.2) elaborates extensively on this aspect. Programmes must suit the physical development of the child (cf 3.2.2.1 & 3.2.2.2).

- *Primary school* physical education, and school sport should comply with the child's basic requirements. Emphasis needs to be placed on the various foci of human movement as identified by the Learning Area Committee (cf 4.6.4.2 and **Appendix 6**); Accordingly the importance being: a healthy body, mind and spirit; personal well-being; a healthy lifestyle; motor skills; physical activity; safety, and fitness. School sport in the primary phase should be modified to suit the needs of the child. The incorporation of the play is of utmost importance. This includes: incorporating individual play; playing alongside each other and playing in groups. Games and competitions should be introduced at a beginners level.

- The *secondary school* physical education programme should include, for example; skill development; development of fitness; leadership opportunities, and career opportunities. A sport programme should include opportunities for specific skill development; competition sport; leadership opportunities; career opportunities; talent squads, and sport camps. Teachers and coaches need to take cognisance of: the overall development of the adolescent (cf 3.2.2.1 & 3.2.2.2); individual differences, abilities and interests. The possibility of opportunities for adolescents to qualify as coaches, umpires/referees, officials and first-aid helpers will provide an incentive for the senior secondary school child. This project has proved to be very successful in Australia (cf 5.7.2).

- (6) That it is a priority that South African principals and teaching staff be encouraged to cultivate a lifestyle of fitness and well-being**

- Principals and teachers who experience and value the benefits of a healthy lifestyle and fitness in life, provide good role models for pupils. Not only do they perform better in their profession, but they offer enthusiastic support for physical education and sport in the curriculum (cf 4.6.4.2).

- Teachers who are fit along with fit pupils will contribute to a whole-school approach of fitness. The health of less active teachers needs to be addressed. The Department of Education and the Department of Sport and Recreation should look into a pilot programme for this purpose. Special rates should be negotiated with local gymnasiums and recreation clubs, to assist them in their efforts. Outside sponsors can be approached to help sponsor a gymnasium on the school premises. This will enable the teaching staff and pupils to be actively involved in physical activity.

(7) That teacher training and in-service training in South Africa receives top priority

- It must be explicitly stated that school teachers in South Africa form a very important part in the provision system of sport. Sport in Black schools, as a result of apartheid, suffered an impediment, due to the apathy of teachers and principals regarding the overall educational process. The lack of qualified staff has to be dealt with (cf 4.6).
- Quality physical education and school sport is dependent on *quality trained teachers* and coaches. They should have the necessary qualifications or training to provide excellent learning experiences for children. Both education and community organisations are responsible for such training. Educational organisations entail teacher training institutions, educational authorities and sporting associations. Community organisations include sport clubs, state and national sporting bodies, the Department Sport and Recreation, and local government organisations responsible for such training.
- It is vital, that well-written, easily accessible, and user friendly resources be made available to teachers and coaches. Educational planners, officers of the Department of Sport and Recreation, and the various role players in the sports code need to develop high-quality material, possibly with the support of sponsors from outside companies.

- In-service training courses should be encouraged to provide professional development in order to maintain and develop skills of each professional group. Level One coaching courses should be set as the minimum standard for coaches coaching children's sport. Opportunities to further qualification opportunities in Level Two and Level Three should be offered.

- Institutions should be identified to provide the highest quality physical education and sport training for initial teacher training and refresher courses for teachers. In this regard, distance education courses should be designed to help equip teachers with the basic knowledge of physical education and sports coaching; especially in the light of the large majority of the Black teachers in rural areas who are enthusiastic and willing to teach physical education and undertake coaching (cf 4.6.3). The course content should include a theoretical content as well as practical requirements (an accredited course in a specific sport). The theoretical content of courses must include, for example teaching children's basic skills, group organisation, lesson planning, child development, safety aspects, codes of behaviour, etc.

- Taking South Africa's opportunity of international participation into consideration, the courses have to equip teachers and coaches with the necessary knowledge in undertaking an overseas tour or participating in an international meeting (cf 4.3.4.2 & 4.3.4.3). This will include the team manager's role, the duties of a team chaperon, the role of the coach. Teachers also need to acquire knowledge regarding characteristics of Modern era sport (cf 2.2.1.5). The reason being, sport in general is far more specialised; the pressure to win is more intense; competition structures are often complex, and sportsmen are lured into using drugs to enhance their performances. Teachers must be helped to cope with the mentioned situations.

- The theoretical content can be provided by identified distance educational institutions. The presentation of practical requirements, however does pose a problem. Group discussions and practical sessions by lecturers of institutions

could be considered. It is suggested that the various national/provincial coaching bodies and experienced qualified teachers in collaboration with the institutions offer these practical sessions.

- A national accreditation scheme for teachers and coaches should not be ignored. Providing incentives for teachers and coaches will serve as a motivation for those involved. Educational planners and the Department of Sport and Recreation should look at financial incentives or the relevant promotion to acknowledge their involvement. Once again sponsors should be approached for this project. These recommendations could alleviate the current unwillingness to coach and shortage experienced in staff (cf 1.2.3 & 4.6.3). Additionally, incentives need to be provided for teachers involved in extra-curricula activities. It is recommended that principals negotiate with the school governing body to provide monetary compensation for teachers and coaches involved.

(8) That attention be given to the provision of financial resources and facilities in the South African educational dispensation

- The scrapping of Government tax reductions for sponsors of physical education and sport need to be recalled as a matter of priority (cf 2.4.7). Financial support should be sought to provide adequate facilities and equipment for disadvantaged schools where physical education and sport was virtually non-existent. This can be achieved by establishing an active and constructive sponsorship programme. This will result in erasing the backlog in the provision of facilities and equipment during the apartheid era (cf 1.2.3; 4.3.4.6 & 4.6.3).
- Companies within the private sector should be approached to sponsor schools with, for example, soccer balls, netballs, cricket sets, tennis balls, etc. The possibilities of providing a kit for each sport (resources, modified equipment, rule books, etc), would erase the lack of equipment and resources. The initiative of *Aussie Sport* in this regard has to be considered (cf 5.7.2).

- It is suggested that teachers and coaches be encouraged to make their own equipment where possible. By involving the parents and members of the community, valuable ideas can be obtained to make the most essential equipment. The following can serve as examples: Wooden or steel poles can be used to construct soccer goals, rugby posts, netball posts. Rolled up and taped newspaper can serve as a ball. Coat hangers bent in the shape of a bat, covered with a stocking can serve as a bat or racket to hit papers balls. Even a bat cut out of wood, will serve its purpose. Principals, teachers, coaches and pupils should be supplied with a general manual regarding the use and care of facilities and equipment.

 - Schools should liaise as to the sharing the available sport facilities. The local community clubs need to be contacted to encourage the dual use of facilities not occupied during the mornings. A timetable can be drawn up to accommodate the various schools.
- (9) That better links between schools and communities be developed in South African communities**
- The education department needs to look at strengthening its links with the various sports bodies. Schools would benefit if they cooperate with clubs in their area. Closer links will provide a smooth transition between schools and community sports competitions. No school has unlimited resources. By working together, they can reduce duplication and make the best use of the resources available, whether it be facilities, qualified personnel or equipment.

 - Sports associations in the same geographic area can also provide a wealth of information and assistance to help teachers with a particular sport. They could for example:

- be invited to schools to provide information sessions on identified subjects (for example, drugs in sport, how to liaise with the media, weight-training, skill development, etc);
- provide information on coaching courses and clinics being conducted for a particular sport;
- discuss career opportunities with older children;
- provide advice on the appropriate modifications to a sport for a particular age group;
- provide printed resources to assist teachers teach a particular sport;
- help in the institution of high profile players/athletes to speak at school presentations and gala evenings. Both male and female, young and old, and sports people from different ethnic groups should be invited;
- provide coaches and so provide in this need often found in schools. Clubs are able to help with the presentation of courses and clinics in order to help teachers acquire the knowledge and skills needed for teaching skills and sports coaching.

Teachers cannot be expected to have expertise in the teaching of every available sport. Even the most skilled teachers can enhance their programmes, by providing appropriate contact with community sport.

6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this research on *physical education* and *school sport*, suggest the following areas of priority in the search of further knowledge:

- how to evaluate the impact of the *Protea Sport* programme in order to assess the successfulness and the acceptance thereof;
- how to ascertain the willingness and commitment of teachers with regards to coaching in the country. This would help to determine the various courses that have to be designed for in-service and initial teacher training;
- how to determine the possibility of examinations and certification of promotions for teachers. Suggestions regarding an acceptable model need to be investigated;
- how to assess the impact of parent involvement in sport and devise a training programme for parents. Principals need to determine how to overcome the shortage of coaches and helpers for sports programmes at each individual school. The need also exists to design programmes that will educate parents regarding the finer detail of coaching, for example, how to teach skills, correct warming up exercises, etc;
- how to evaluate effectiveness of training and to determine how to make use of senior secondary school pupils as coaches, officials, umpires and referees in sport. Interested pupils could help to relieve in the shortage of coaches at the primary schools;
- how to incorporate sports administration, sports coaching and physical education courses, at distance education institutions in SA. The availability of these suggested courses needs immediate attention so as to negate the shortage of coaches;
- as how to involve the media in order to establish more effective links with the community. Schools will benefit tremendously if they were to seek more media coverage and thus improve their relationship with their communities. Physical education teachers and sports organisers need to take an initiative in this regard.

6.6 PRÉCIS OF CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study corroborate the following conclusions:

- (1) Sport forms an essential part of the daily life of society.
- (2) The comprehensive development of children is of undeniable importance.
- (3) It needs to be accepted that *Physical education* and *school sport* should play an integral part of the development of the child.
- (4) Adequate financial resources is a sine qua non in the provision of sport.
- (5) The complexity of the sports system, demands a professional and highly efficient structure.
- (6) Government involvement (not interference) should play an ever important role in determining the provision of sport within the curriculum.
- (7) Ongoing development, is of utmost importance for the provision of an effective sports system.
- (8) School principals and school teachers are key persons in the successful implementation of any educational programme regarding sport.
- (9) The local community should play a vital role in the implementation of an educational programme which adequately incorporates aspects of physical education and sport.

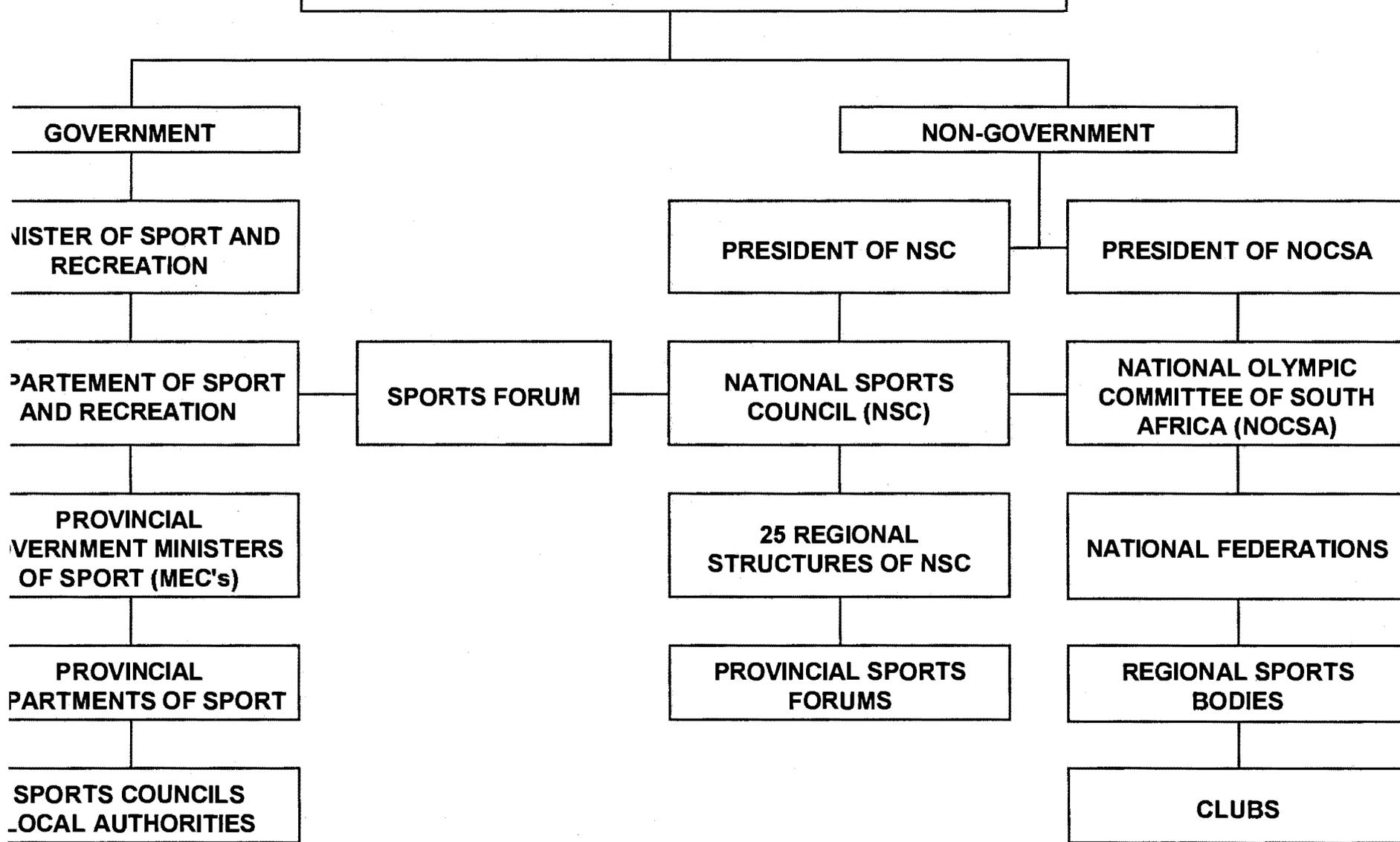
The attainment of a healthy and physically vigorous youth in society, is dependent foremost on an adequate *physical education* and *school sports programme*. This will provide all children with the opportunity to take part at all levels of competition.

Oschman (1986:7) and Osness (1992:356) emphasise the need for well-organised sport and physical education at school level, which will ensure the development of sport, throughout the life span of a person.

The justification for such a necessary provision can never be overrated, because physical education and school sport are integral to sport and can not be excluded from the curriculum. Physical education and sport therefore, should be seen as an aspect of the educational function of the school. Both physical education and school sports programmes need to be responsive to the needs and demands of the society in which it exists. These needs should be aimed at the optimum physical, intellectual, emotional and social development for a well-balanced personality.

APPENDICES

ORGANISATION OF SPORT SOUTH AFRICA

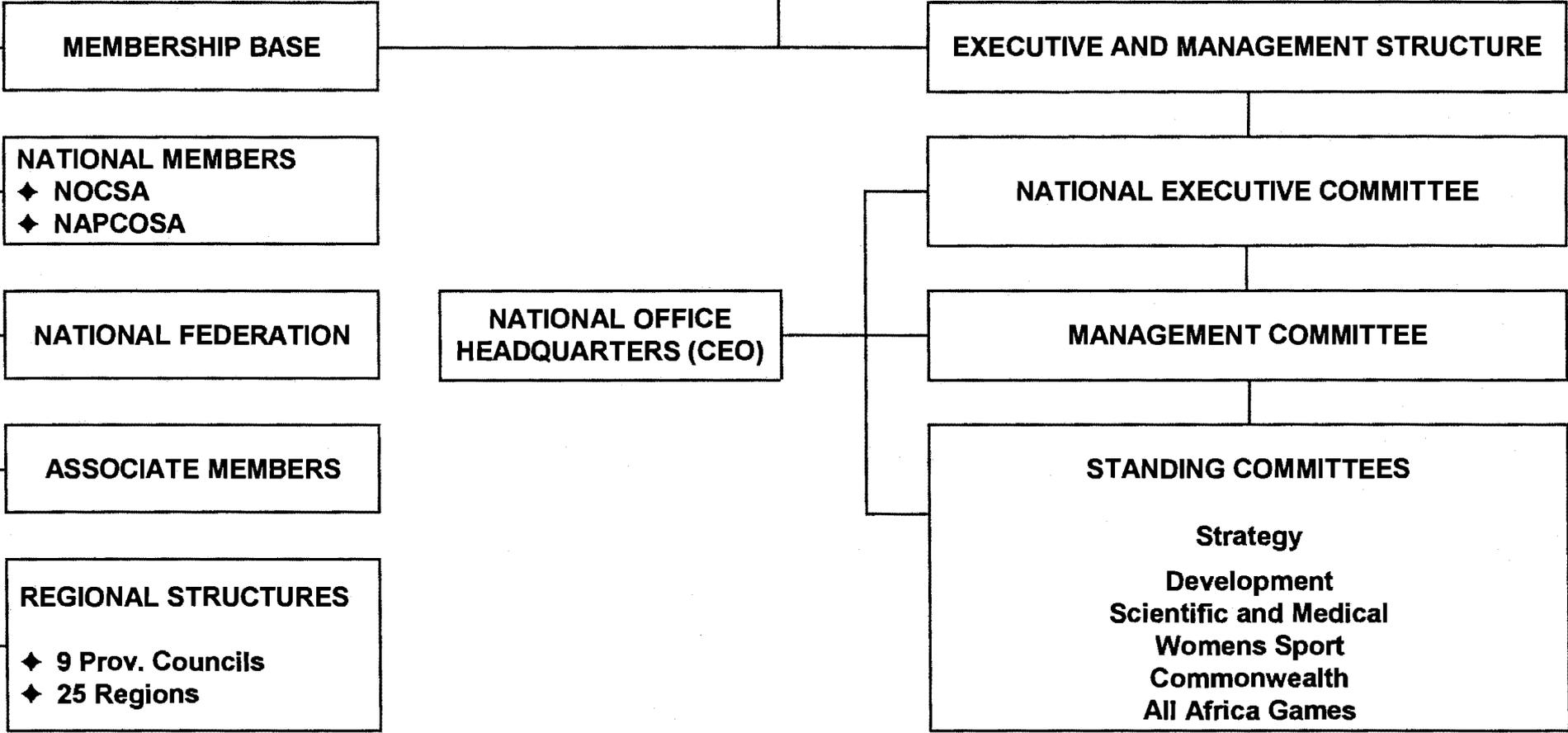


Adapted from Sport SA Warehouse 1996:9

NATIONAL SPORTS COUNCIL OF SOUTH AFRICA

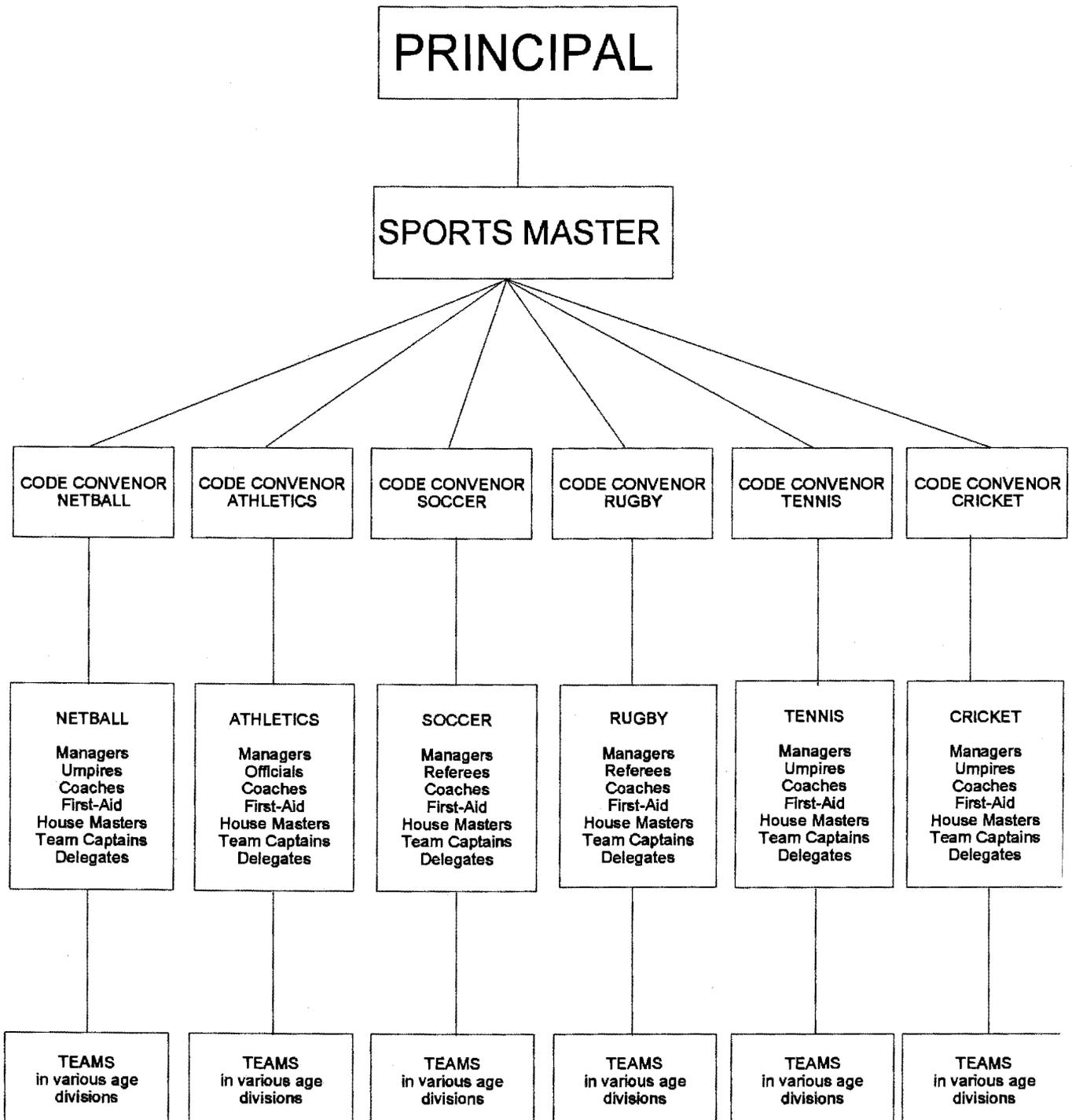
GENERAL ASSEMBLY

COUNCIL

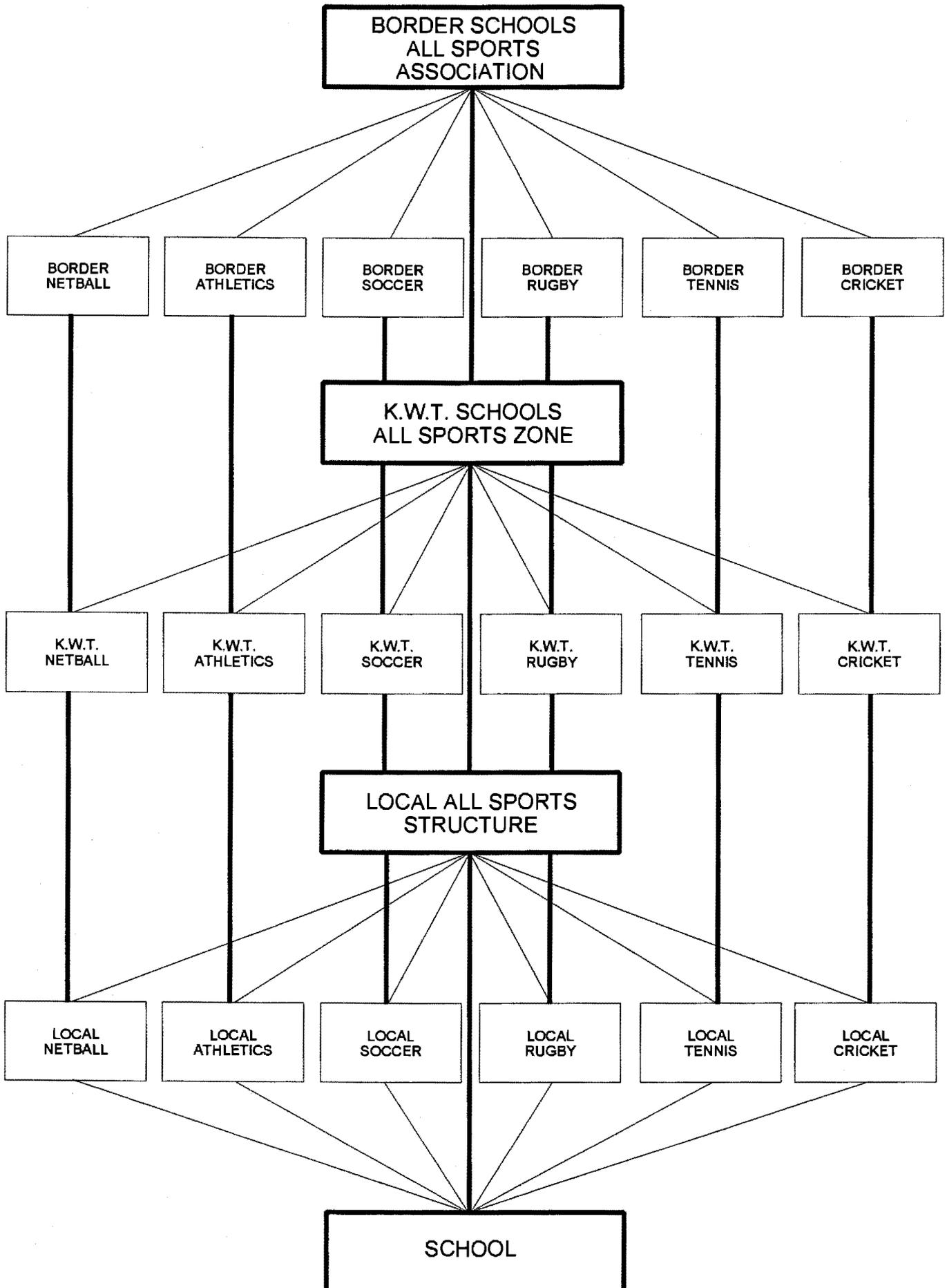


Adapted from NSC 1996

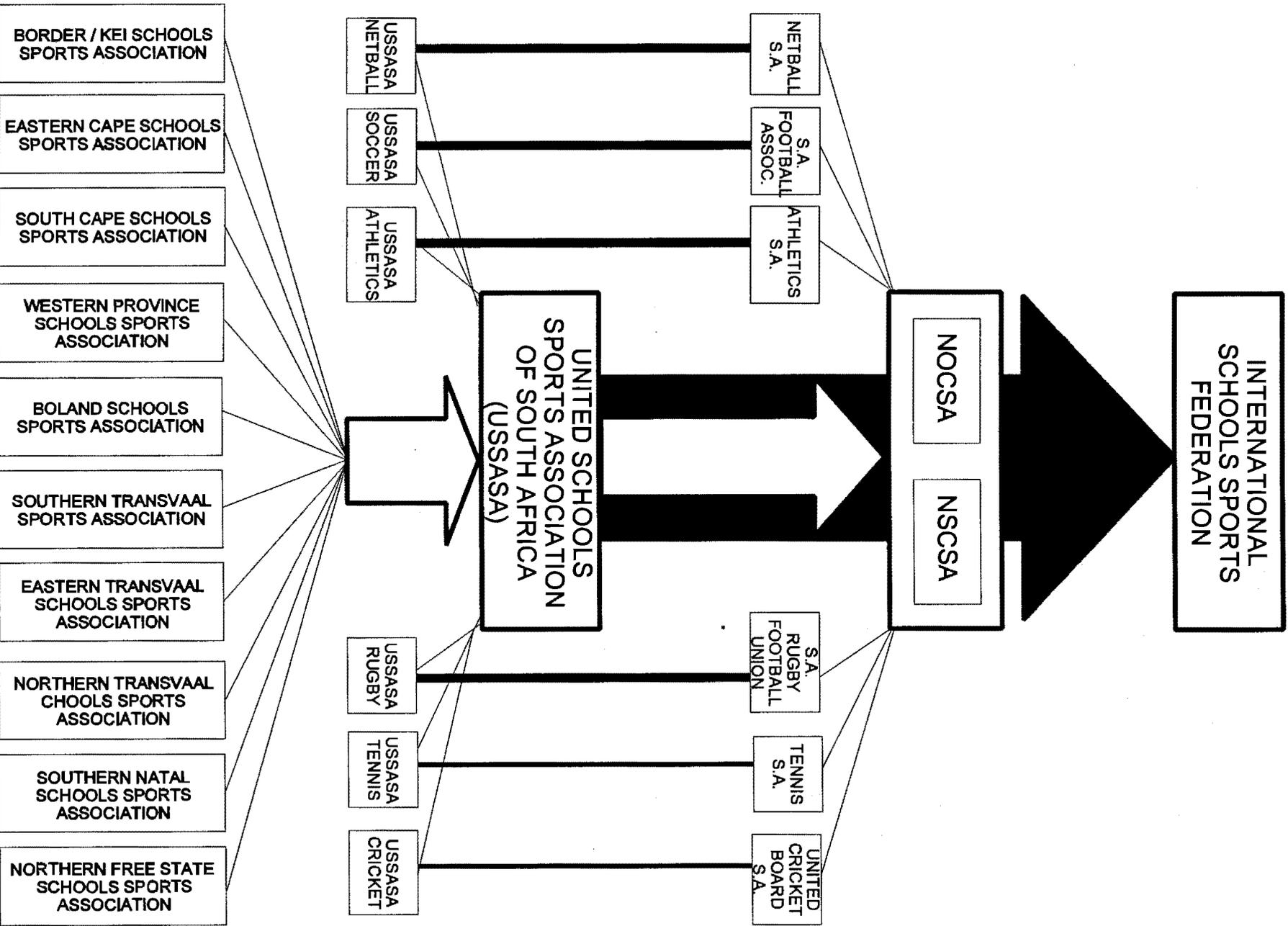
STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SPORT AT SCHOOL LEVEL



REGIONAL, LOCAL AND ZONAL STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SPORT



NATIONAL STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SPORT



FOCUSES OF LIFE ORIENTATION

LIFE SKILLS	ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS	SPIRITUAL DEVELOPMENT	PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT	HEALTH AND HUMAN MOVEMENT	SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT & TRANSFORMATION	WORLD OF WORK
ing, thinking	Wonder of life	Tenets	Realistic goals	Healthy body, mind and spirit	Richness of society	Informed decision-making
sion-making blem-solving	Natural heritage	Spiritual needs	Abilities/ limitations, talents and potentials	Personal well-being	Human and civil rights, democracy	Self-knowledge
ning	Universe	Religious diversity	Opportunities	Healthy lifestyle	Ubuntu, human dignity	Evaluate information
ecting, analysing municating information	Challenges	Belief system	Unique individuals	Motor skills	Policies and laws	Challenges in real life situations
rtifying	(a) Cultural	Faith	Identity, self-concept	Physical activity	Ideological & political systems	Enhance potential, talents
idence, positive self- cept	(b) Environmental	Almighty	Quality of life, personal safety	Safety	Safety (community)	Identify opportunities
ossible, appropriate duct			Healthy relations	Fitness	Families, groups and communities	Skilling
			Personal development and growth			Work ethics

pted from Learning Area Committee 1996:124

MARY: PHYSICAL EDUCATION POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY STATE SCHOOLS

LOCATION	CURRICULUM CONTENT	MANDATION	HOURS SPECIFIED	PRIMARY PE SPECIALIST	DEPARTMENTAL SUPPORT
monwealth ^a	PE under Health	Yes as part of Hobart Declaration	No	N/A	N/A
^b	Personal Development, Health and PE	Yes Yrs 7-12	100 hrs in Yrs 7-12	No	1 curriculum support person
	PE under Personal Development	No	3 x 30 mins Yrs K-7	156 full-time and 76 part-time	PE Branch abolished 1992
^d	Health and PE Policy for P-10 developed but not released	PE is a core subject	3 periods/week in Yrs 7-12	1149 in primary and special schools	PE Branch abolished in 1992
	PE under Health and Personal Development	Yes	No	No	Support staff reduced from 25 to 2
	PE under Health	Primary level only	Yr 1 - 90 mins PE & sport. Yr 7-140 mins PE, Yr 8-10 80 hrs/year	Itinerant - responsible for several schools	PE Branch abolished
^g	PE under Health	Core curriculum K-12. Mandated Yrs 9-12	100 or 150 hrs over Yrs 9-12	85 % of primary schools have access to a PE specialist	Reorganisation. Sport rosters now devised by Sport & Recreation
	PE under Health	Yes	A contradictory policy. 45 min-1 Hr/day for PE, and 1 Hr 40 mins Health and PE/week	No	PE support staff reduced to 2
	PE under Health for K-10	Yes but no consistency about what years it is mandated for	No	No	3 officers in Sports Administration Unit

ce a Submission No 216, Hobart Declaration on Schooling
 b Submission No 55, p 18, Submission No 109, p 2, Evidence, pp 573, 581, Advice from NSW Department of School Education 15/12/92
 c Submission No 58, p 4, Submission No 60, p 1, Submission No 55, p 19, Submission No 207, p 10
 d Submission No 12, p 2, Submission No 96, p 6, Evidence, pp 125, 127, 138, 139, 144
 e Evidence, pp 363, 372, 376, 383, 385, Submission No 57, p 3, Submission No 112, p 3
 f Evidence, pp 521 - 523, Submission No 57, p 3, Submission No 112, p 3, Submission No 94, p 21, Submission No 186, p 3
 g Evidence, p 234, 239, Submission No 59, pp 1, 3
 h Submission No 55, p 18, Submission No 103, pp 3 - 4
 i Submission No 190, pp 2, 9, Submission No 45, p 6

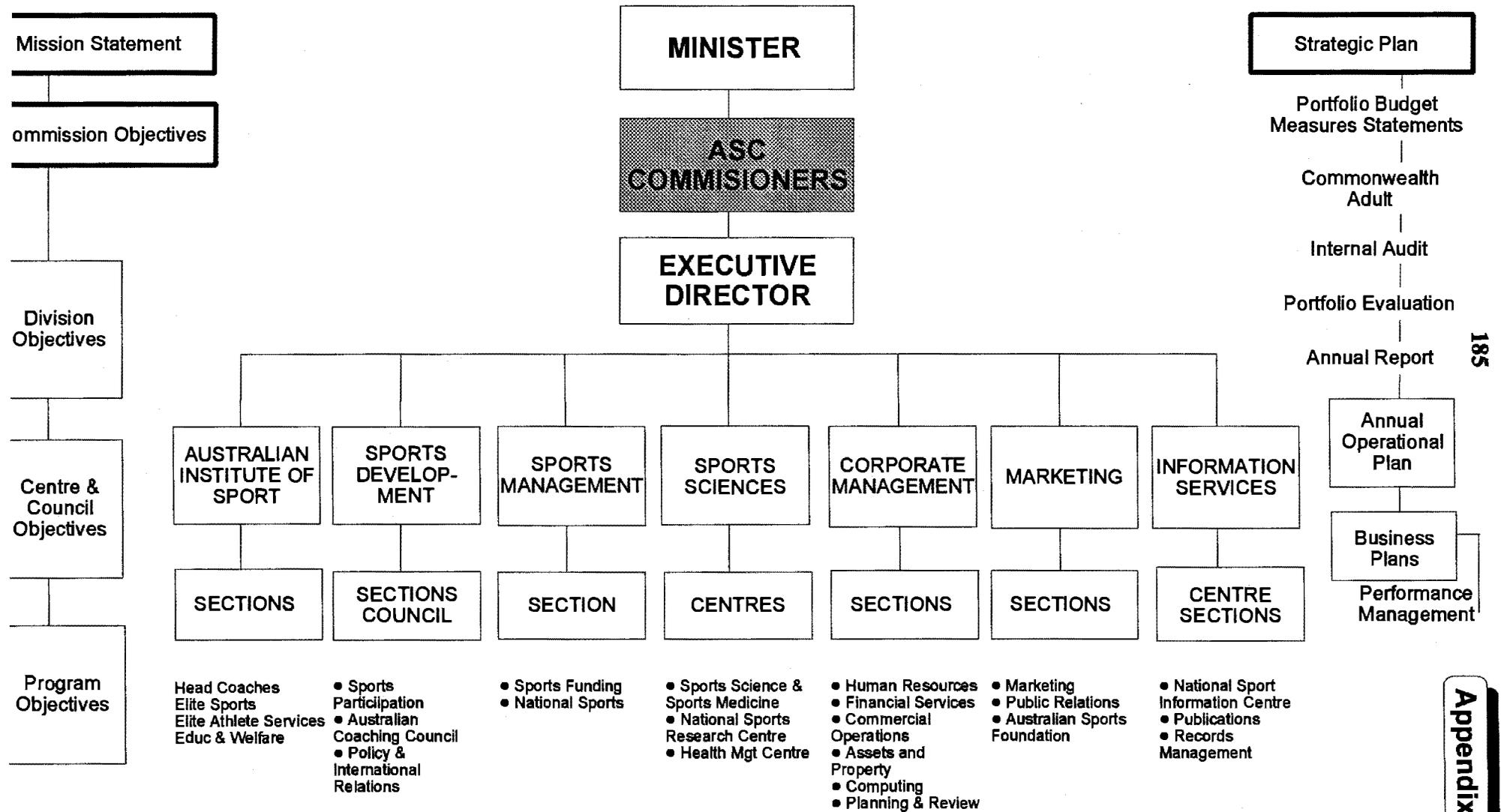
SUMMARY: SPORT POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY STATE SCHOOLS

STATE OR TERRITORY	POLICY	COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT	SPORT IN SCHOOL TIME	SINGLE SEX CLASSES/ COMPETITION	CODES OF BEHAVIOUR	ACCREDITATION	PRIMARY SCHOOL SPORT ENCOURAGED	INTERSCHOOL / INTERSTATE SPORT
NSW ^a	Mandatory Yrs 7-12	Yes	300 hrs over Yrs 7-12	Not stated	Yes	Encouraged	Yes	Yes from Year 6
VIC ^b	Sport under Personal Development	Yes	2 hrs per week	Not stated	No	None	Yes, but under review	Yes, but under review
QLD ^c	Policy to be released 1.1.93	Yes	Yes	Parallel competitions	Yes	Encouraged	Yes	Yes
SA ^d	Junior Sports Policy	Yes	Yes	Single sex competition - mixed classes	Yes	Encouraged	Yes, but no competitive sport	Interstate at Secondary Level
WA ^e	Sport under PE & Health	Yes	Yes	Not stated	Not stated	Encouraged	Yes, but no interstate	Secondary only but few funds
TAS ^f	Sport a community responsibility	Yes	Not usually	Not stated	Yes	Required for all teachers & community members involved	Not in school time	No
NT ^g	No sport policy	Yes	Usually	Not stated	Yes	Encouraged	Yes	Yes, but costs borne by parents
ACT ^h	Sport as part of PE	Yes	Yes, but mostly outside	Not stated	Yes	Teachers encouraged	Yes	Yes, but under review

- Source a Submission No 109, pp 2, 3, 9, 18, 21, Evidence, pp 576, 577, 585, 595, 596
 b Submission No 21, p 2, Evidence, p 679, Submission No 192, p 6, Letter to Committee 7.12.92
 c Evidence, pp 133, 137, 138, Submission No 56, p 4, Submission No 189, p 15, 24, 25
 d Evidence, pp 368, 369, 382, 393, Submission No 48, p 1
 e Submission No 112, pp 4 - 11, Evidence, p 485, 487, Submission No 94, p 4, Submission No 186, pp 3 -4
 f Submission No 59, pp 1, 3, Evidence, pp 238, 253
 g Submission No 217, p 8, Information provided through Curriculum Assessment Division, NT Department of Education
 h Submission No 190, pp 2 - 3, 6, 7, 9, Evidence, p 865

Adapted from Senate Standing Committee:26

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE: THE AUSTRALIAN SPORTS COMMISSION



Adapted from: *The Australian Sports Commission Report 1994:7*

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