Years of Silent Control:  
the Influence of the Commonwealth in State Physical Education  
in Victoria and New South Wales

by

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ABSTRACT

The thesis examines the influences of governments on the physical training within the education systems of Victoria and New South Wales. The study traces the policy formulation and implementation of Physical Education policy within the school system from the beginning of public education in 1848 to 1969.

Physical training had a very important role to play within the total curriculum. It was to prepare the children for military service; to encourage patriotism and citizenship. For over one hundred years colonial and federal governments in Australia have consciously directed the physical training curriculum for military ends. In fact the policies implemented before the Second World War had their roots in the 1910 Junior Cadet Scheme, adopted at the time by both states. With the onset of WWII, the Commonwealth launched its first national fitness campaign, implemented and monitored by the National Fitness Council of Australia and its state sub-branches. A gradual shift in emphasis from military activity to health occurred. The administration and finance of the national fitness scheme controlled the development of Physical Education and community recreation for the period until 1969. Intervention occurred in three areas of responsibility: teacher training, Physical Education curriculum development and delivery, and community recreation projects. At Federation, states had insisted on their right to retain sole responsibility for the education of the children. Yet, Victorian and New South Wales’s education authorities accepted the federal government as a silent partner in the curriculum area of Physical Education. Since the inception of the Commonwealth of Australia,
Physical Training, or Physical Education as it was later renamed, has been identified as the only curriculum area in the primary education of state school children where the Commonwealth has overtly dictated the policy direction to serve its own goals. The interpretation of the National Fitness Act (1941) and the implementation of the policy were left to the discretion of each state. Consequently, appointments to key personnel positions and assistance in training and facility development moved New South Wales and Victoria in different directions. Although state philosophies and directions could be identified in the state curricula and National Fitness Council activities, the research identified the motives underlying the federal governments’ determination to impose their values upon states. The findings confirmed that physical activity for primary school children in government schools and the training of teachers was well directed and not planned in an ad hoc fashion. As we would expect today, the policies affecting Physical Education in primary schools between 1848 and 1969 were intentionally formulated and discussed at policy formation level, and implementation strategies developed and put into practice.
This thesis is dedicated to Anja and Rebekah
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

With the settlement of white Australia, children were part of the new community and shared the tough life of adults when they made the colony of New South Wales their new home. The access to education for the children may have played a minor role for the general population of minors for the first fifty years of white settlement. The rich free settlers were always able to buy tutors for the children or they sent their offspring back to Britain to gain the valued education. For the majority of children, though, education was ad hoc. There was no policy on what students were to achieve, no unified programmes, or even firm guidelines on how much education was judged as being the minimum. The compulsory school age only became law with the passage of the Education Acts through the various colonial parliaments.

Children's sport in schools in Australia dates back to the mid-nineteenth century and as far as the early years of 'national' education. Its cradle is in the education system under the guidance of the National Board and, later on, the individual colonial Education Acts. At the centre of this thesis is an investigation of the policy development of physical activity for children in state elementary schools between the years 1848 to 1969. The age group for children is within the boundaries of the statutory school age, the primary school years, from the time the girl or boy entered the first year class to the compulsory school leaving age of 14. To contain the thesis within a manageable dialogue, the discussion thus will be curtailed to the elementary
years. This is in line with the definition used within the literature, as older children would be referred to as 'youth'. Commonly youngsters between 15 and 19 or 15 and 24 years of age are classified as 'youth' (Barrett 1979, Tanner 1980, Irving et al. 1995), hence this study falls well within the definition of other authors who refer to 6 to 14 year old pupils as 'children'.

Under pressure from free settlers to grant equity to all children, and as late as 1848, New South Wales agreed to form two Boards of Education, to formally control the education of children. The National Board was appointed to oversee elementary government schools and the Denominational Board to guide the denominational schools. When Victoria was instituted as a separate colony in 1851, the Victorian colonial government accepted the existence of the National Board and placed its government schools under its jurisdiction.¹ The number of public schools increased at a steady rate. George W. Rusden, employed by the Board to promote the establishment of National schools,² travelled throughout Victoria and New South Wales to explain and 'market' the new public schooling to the settlers. His success was convincing: the support for the government initiative created a shift away from the denominational schools. By 1867 the Council of Education reported 288 public schools and 317 denominational schools in the colony, with a shifted balance of 684 public schools and 160 denominational schools twelve years later, in 1879. The National Board had strengthened its place and provided a 'national' curriculum while

the churches at state level controlled the minority of denominational schools. Physical training formed part of the nationally agreed curriculum from 1848 onwards. The subject, from its inception in the state supported curriculum, stood side-by-side with reading, writing, arithmetic and grammar. Physical activity in elementary public schools was accepted without opposition as part of the secular education system.

It is hypothesised in this study that pressures at various times had been asserted on education authorities at 'national' level and expressed in parliament, resulting in policy formation and numerous policy implementation amendments at state levels. New South Wales and Victoria have been chosen to form the basis for a comparative study into elementary Physical Education within the Australian setting. The two states have a number of characteristics in common. Firstly, New South Wales and Victoria have been rivals for dominant national importance since Federation. They have the highest population of all-Australian states and territories. They are geographically located within the densely populated region of the Eastern states. Both have been front runners in Physical Training/Physical Education programmes and these programmes originated from the same 'National Board' at the same time.

In New South Wales and Victoria, physical training was firmly implanted in the school curriculum by the end of 1930. Although the development took place concurrently, the 1930s and 1940s saw the states pursuing their own paths in

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education and sport development. Victoria set the trend in two distinct directions: one, the appointment of an Organiser of Physical Education in a Physical Education Branch,\(^5\) and two, the establishment of a specialist teacher training institution including the formation of the Faculty of Physical Education at Melbourne University. Dr Fritz Duras was attracted from overseas to lend his expertise to build up the training facilities. Prior to that time, only short courses, but not specialist teacher courses for physical training, or physical culture as it was frequently called, were available for secondary or primary school teachers. Women who wanted to be trained in dance, swimming and gymnastics had to go overseas. Males learnt military drill in the army and carried their expertise into the classroom and to children at a very impressionable age.

Until 1948 physical training in Victoria was under the auspices of the Minister for Public Instruction. From 1938, the year the first cohort of Physical Education students was admitted into the Diploma course, many elaborate plans were put forward and changes put into practice. For example, extensive building programmes to expand teacher training facilities were initiated, the subsequent opening of the new premises of the Physical Education Branch in Carlton, an inner suburb of Melbourne, and the publishing of the first textbook for teachers of physical training\(^6\) supported the new tertiary curriculum area. In the Primary education sector, the intended

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\(^5\) L.J. Blake (ed) *Vision and Realisation*, vol. 1, Education Department, Melbourne, 1973, p. 993. In November 1911, J.H. Betheras, Inspector of Schools, became the first administrator of the Physical Education Branch. In the following year, Gertrud Anderson was appointed to assist as 'Instructress, Physical Training, Department of Public Instruction'. In the *Victorian Education Gazette, 1912*, her duties were summed up in 3 points: 1) to organise and supervise the physical training of state school women teachers, 2) to instruct women students at the Teachers' Training College and women teachers at the high schools, and 3) to perform such other duties in connection with physical training of women teachers as might be allotted by the Director of Education, p. 427.

\(^6\) Ibid, p. 997.
importance of physical training (as it was still called at the time), was underlined with an increase in funding. In the 1935-36 Report by the Minister of Public Instruction to the Victorian Parliament, £1,776 /09/4 of the total Primary budget of £1,841,690 /10/0 (0.0096%) was allocated for physical training. In 1940-41 this section of the budget was raised to £10,178 /19/8 out of the £1,971,293 /16/4 total budget, increasing the spending for physical training to 0.1%. As will be explained later, the increase reflected the policy direction of the governments at the time.

In New South Wales, the development of sport and physical training also changed direction in the second half of the 1930s. Some national milestones can also be traced to New South Wales. One policy centred innovation had occurred in the early 1920s, moving the preference for the professional background of supervisory education staff from foreign trained, to a preference for pursuing the training of Australian personnel. Until the 1930s, the colonies, or later on the states, had followed directions in physical training and conditions given by staff who had been born, raised and trained overseas. Specialised labour was recruited primarily from Great Britain. Young Australians had no chance to become qualified in Physical Education in their own country. Overseas training institutions could be accessed, but only for pre-teacher training. The Education Department/Department for Public Instruction did not foster additional training or award scholarships to further professional development. The shift happened in 1920 when Ella Gormley, one of the first women to be included in the training regime of the Junior Cadet Training and the first female instructor for Physical Culture, requested specialist training overseas. Study time and a stipend were granted to her with the result that Miss Gormley completed her MA in the United States and sought further training in
Dance in Britain. The Director of Education at the time, Peter Board's\(^7\) progressive thinking and awareness of overseas changes would become instrumental in the forthcoming years. It was beyond this research project to investigate to what extent Ella Gormley's visitations to the US and Britain had an impact on the two states of Victoria and New South Wales. It is well documented though that Ella Gormley subsequently organised a national workshop for women to update and train the participants in practices she had acquired overseas. Part of the two-week training course, which was financed by the Armed Forces, was one week of military drill. In a personal account, written by Rosslyn Mcleod,\(^8\) the enthusiasm for the new physical culture session cannot be overlooked. The success Ella M.Gormley reaped from the women from all the states was overwhelming. Unfortunately the request for a second workshop had to be cancelled. Miss Gormley resigned in May 1922 to get married.\(^9\) Yet her training, her enthusiasm and the outward look had been planted. It may have been the desire by the education departments to create new courses and a different direction in the subject in Victoria and New South Wales when education authorities searched overseas for leadership in Physical Education. New South Wales started the trend in establishing a position for Director for Physical Education. Gordon Young became the first and last Director of Physical Education in the state in 1938. He took charge of children and youth's sport within and outside the Education Department. Gordon Young was hired from Canada because he was known to be a man of vision

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\(^7\) Peter Board was the Director of Education at the time (1905-1922). He was directly answerable to the Minister of Public Instruction.

\(^8\) Rosslyn Mcleod had been attending the national training session conducted by Miss Gormley. Her personal note is handwritten and undated. NSW Archives, Box 20/12856, Physical Education 1918-1923, Ref. 4.5.20*32831.

\(^9\) At this time women were required to resign from teaching when they got married. NSW State Archives, Box 20/12856, Physical Education 1918-1923. Ref. 25.5.21*56026.
and he brought the highest qualifications to the job. He was expected to lead the way for Physical Education in New South Wales' schools.\textsuperscript{10} It may be assumed that New South Wales wanted to follow the Victorian example when it included Physical Education in its primary and secondary curricula, and added Physical Education to its teacher training programme in 1939 at the Sydney Teachers' College.

Victoria and New South Wales lived in an interesting relationship. In the time period under investigation there are three occasions when Acts of parliament gave both colonies or states identical starting points. Firstly, in 1848 when the National Board of Education was established.\textsuperscript{11} The Board's point of reference was to oversee all public schools. Guidelines established by the Board were relevant to all schools in the colony. Consequently, Victoria, upon its separation from New South Wales in 1851, accepted the equivalent conditions of the public National School Board for the physical training of the children under its care. The second common denominator can be identified in 1911 when the junior cadet system was implemented. The introduction of the junior cadet training also included the official establishment of the School Medical Services in the states. Immediately upon Federation, no changes to the physical training of all children in schools had been agreed upon. Deliberation and concurrence between the Commonwealth and the state Education Departments about the direction and philosophy of boys' and girls' physical activities at school level took at least seven years from the proclamation of the Commonwealth of Australia. The passing of the Defence Act 1903 prepared the debate as the conditions

\textsuperscript{10} Young, Physical Education in Australia, op. cit., p. 23.

\textsuperscript{11} Victoria was known as Port Phillip District at the time. Officially the new colony of Victoria was authorised from 1st July 1851.
within the Act made everybody in the country liable for military service. There was to be a cadet system on a 'voluntary' basis for schoolboys and an equally voluntary militia service for young men. Strong support for compulsory military service for boys between 14 and 17 years of age could be frequently heard. But a growing resistance to a scheme of compulsory military training in schools emerged and a disagreement over finances could not be solved for years.

As the Commonwealth was keenly aware of its constitutional limitations on the state's prerogative on education, the Defence Department representatives, Commonwealth Health and Education Department representatives at state levels struggled for years to come to an agreement on how, and to what extent, to include the proposed junior cadet system into the government schools. The first national education policy in physical training was realised when the 1909 Defence Act was passed with the consent of all political parties and a universal scheme, unknown in colonial Australia, put in place for all states. Section 125 decreed that all male habitants in Australia (excluding exceptional groups) shall be liable to be trained. All boys between 12 and 14 years would have to be registered by the school as Junior Cadets. Section 127 in the 1911 and 1912 Amendments to the Act further clarified annual hourly training requirements of 90 hours. The first detailed national curriculum requirements were in place.

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The 1903-10 Commonwealth initiative incorporated two interlinked modules: the military training and the monitoring of the health status of children. Health per se became a major concern. While the Commonwealth took control of the military activities in schools, the education departments became responsible for the medical supervision of its pupils. As a direct consequence to the new interest, the Education Department of Victoria set up a school medical service, the second of its kind in Australia, when it appointed three medical officers in November 1909.\footnote{Dr. H. Sutton, Dr. M. Booth, and Dr. J. Greig. See: ‘School Medical Services’, in The Medical Journal of Australia, 1921, April 30, pp. 359-364.} The Education Department of New South Wales since 1907 had already carried out regular medical check-ups and anthropometric measures of height and weight of those school children in Sydney and Newcastle who appeared to be mentally or physically defective. The department would extend its scheme to a number of other towns in the state in 1911 and build up the service to its full school medical service capacity to all children in the state a few years later in 1913.\footnote{A.R. Crane and W.G. Walker, Peter Board, Melbourne, p. 275.} Once all states were united under the Junior Cadet Scheme in 1911, military personnel put the guidelines for the physical activity classes for all male students into action. The curricula development in Physical Training from then on was left to the interpretation of individual states.

The third common denominator forming the pillar of joint starting conditions for all colonies or states between 1848 and 1969 is the passing of the National Fitness Act 1941. According to Spaull this Act was a direct result of the war.\footnote{Spaull, ‘Australian Education in the Second World War, op.cit., p. 69.} Under the conditions of the Act the states became united under the auspices of the
Commonwealth Health Department and thus had to follow the same rules and regulations. The national policy aimed at the promotion of fitness of all Australians, and for the purpose of this discussion, especially the fitness and health of children at school. The Commonwealth initiative requested adherence to set conditions. In reply state authorities gained funds for facilities, equipment and programmes for schools and to community groups. The third benefit addressed the shortage of professionally trained staff in the area of Physical Education and community recreation. Amalgamated Commonwealth and state monies funded the first Australian tertiary programmes and recreation leadership courses.

At all other times, the two most populated states behaved like sparring partners. As in any other relationship, the notion of 'give and take' has been highly valued and interpreted as being beneficial to both education systems. The notion to do better than the other state, or at least not fall behind, helped each education system to remain tuned to trends. Yet, some critics (Crawford 1981, Jones 1991) would have argued that the two states of Victoria and New South Wales were too eagerly watching each other and narrowed their perspective accordingly. The inward affiliation confined the openness to new thoughts and philosophies as well as practices. Throughout this thesis it is observed that the competitive pattern continued and thus details will be highlighted whenever deemed necessary.

It has been previously mentioned that states had been granted independence in education upon Federation. Yet, as highlighted there were some instances in the past where the federal government gave clear directions to the states in regards to the physical training of children. Clear directions are commonly referred to as policies.
Thus the colonial National Board of Education's guidelines to New South Wales and Victoria can be called the first national policy in Physical Training. The second such policy is the introduction of the Universal Training Scheme and the third identified is the passing of the National Fitness Act 1941. These three national educational policies remained the only universal educational policies specifically directed towards the physical training of children in the period under investigation until 1969. This view is contrary to Andrew Spaul's opinion when he judges the Education Act 1945 as the first legislation ever passed by the Commonwealth parliament to provide direction in Australian education. Spaul's attention is fixed on the postwar educational role the Commonwealth had adopted.\(^\text{17}\) The emphasis is placed on educational role, as all three elementary/primary school physical activity policies were formulated under different auspices. The National Education Board reached an agreement to remain at the status quo when Victoria was split from New South Wales to become its independent colony in 1851. The policy of Universal Training happened under the care of the Defence Department, while the third policy was placed under the supervision and guidance of the Commonwealth Department of Health. Education had not been a portfolio in the Federation of states. John Dedman was the first politician who brought education into the federal political arena. His name is synonymous with major thrusts in Commonwealth education policies during the 1940s. The introduction of the Education Act 1945, which established the Commonwealth Education Office, is one achievement. It can be noted though that the Commonwealth over the years had created a number of federal educational policies. The Pre-School Education Act, the Institute of Science and Industry (later

called Council for Scientific and Industrial Research) which was involved with the technical schools and universities, and particularly the role of the Commonwealth in higher education, ought to be mentioned at this point. As the National Fitness Act 1941 is inclusive of the establishment of Physical Education as a discipline at university level, the establishment and importance of the Universities Commission will not be discussed.

Although the majority of policies had been established for Physical Education prior to the mid-1940s, the Walker Committee ought to be mentioned as another initiating force on the discipline. The Committee, named after its chairman, Dr. E.R. Walker, Deputy Director-General, representing the Department of War Organisation of Industry, was constituted 'to consider the general problem of the co-ordination of the various activities of the Commonwealth within the educational field'.18 Prime Minister Curtin in 1943 had followed the advice from Dedman to accommodate the call from a variety of interest groups to rationalize the Commonwealth's position in relation to education. A high-calibre group of researchers, academics and bureaucrats from wide-ranging fields of expertise were chosen for the task. The highest officer in the Commonwealth department, Dr. J.H. Cumpston, the Director-General, represented the area of Health. The ensuing report reflects on the policy initiatives closely related to the defence power and embedded in the National Fitness Act. All recommendations were reported as already successfully implemented. The new Walker Committee recommendations for future Commonwealth responsibilities in

relation to education included the proposal to continue and expand the support in public education in physical fitness and nutrition.¹⁹

The research time frame for the thesis has been carefully chosen. In both states the National Fitness Act 1941 resulted in the formation of the individual state Fitness Councils. Fitness Councils and Education Departments liaised extensively with one another. Grants from the National Council were distributed to the Education Departments and were financing projects of national interest. Stipulation of distribution of monies was frequently interpreted by education authorities as interference. Friction between state departments and National Fitness Councils affected programmes included to benefit children. When funding of fitness grants ceased in 1969, new curricula in Physical Education were introduced in some states. The year 1969 led into new directions and new policies. The period between 1945 and 1969 is seen as a buffer-period, a preparation time in which momentum was gathered for major changes in Physical Education in Victoria and New South Wales in the 1970s. The post-war period attracted a re-thinking of social values and economic drives. Australia's major influx of migrants in the 1950s and 1960s added a variety of new expectations and sporting activities, enhanced by the staging of the first Olympic Games on Australian soil. Australians had never been exposed to such a sporting bonanza. Physical Education became an immediate beneficiary of the newly acquired sporting wealth.

1.1 Research into the History of Physical Education

Physical Training, or as later called Physical Education, is the focus of this thesis. It is the only subject within the school curriculum that is frequently ignored as part of the intellectual education of the child. The motor domain has only been recently identified as one of the seven intelligences.\textsuperscript{20} Historically, physical activity had been separated from 'classroom subjects' and had to fight for its existence since it had been introduced into the primary school time-table.

The literature on education in Australia generally reflects this attitude. Only relatively few authors acknowledged Physical Education. In most incidences, the discussion about the subject was shallow and lacked detail. The Australian Council for Educational Research,\textsuperscript{21} for example, gave a thorough overview of education and changes within the time-frame of 1955 to 1962. However, physical activity at school level, whether primary or secondary, was omitted from their critique.

Cleverley and Lawry's publication\textsuperscript{22} focused on restraints, challenges, dissatisfactions and changes in education between 1901 and 1969. Various contributors elaborated on the new spirit in education spreading through Europe and America and arriving at the Australian shores ready to be implemented in the 1930s. The writers highlighted the fact, which is shared in this research, that the politicians,

\textsuperscript{22} J. Cleverley, and J. Lawry (eds), \textit{Australian Education in the Twentieth Century}, Camberwell, Vic., 1973.
not educationists, steered the internal and external philosophical forces education was experiencing. Politicians took it upon themselves to influence education. This research will support Lawry’s notion of strong political interest in education since Federation. At the same time this research will expand and provide evidence of programmes that identify federal politicians as policy makers who either resisted innovations or initiated programmes. The programmes themselves would alter the very core of the subject discipline and provide a political federal alliance with the states of Victoria and New South Wales. John Lawry provided the first analysis. He insinuated that the non-interference was due to the politicians’ fear of change.\textsuperscript{23} Lawry searched to find reasons for the lack of progression in educational thinking, as critical theory analysis demands from the researcher to establish a cause and effect relationship. In this thesis the application of the critical theory approach is also crucial. The tracing of historical progression in primary Physical Education in the two states of New South Wales and Victoria, until 1969, provides the background for the inquiry into the motives for decision making and the forces which impinged upon the deciding factors for changing and directing the policies.\textsuperscript{24}

Cleverley and Lawry placed a major emphasis on all educational levels and particularly on the major areas of learning and general conditions teachers had to work under during the almost seventy years span. Within this framework they included Physical Education as a minor discipline. Part of the more in depth accounts was a brief detailed description of physical training taught in primary schools around

\textsuperscript{23} Ibid, p. 7.

\textsuperscript{24} J.J. Coakley, \textit{Sport in Society. Issues and Controversies}. 4\textsuperscript{th} edition, St. Louis, 1990, pp. 31-36.
the country. Turney\textsuperscript{25} added to the discussion and even compiled a table in which he compared time allocation for individual curriculum areas in the New South Wales system. The figures could demonstrate the importance decision-makers placed on these subjects. While the teaching time for English and Mathematics declined between 1905 and 1922, the allocated time for Physical Training increased from 3.4% to 8.4% on the timetable. Although this represented a remarkable increase it was consistent with the educational philosophy of the time to provide a sound moral, physical, and intellectual training for the pupil.\textsuperscript{26} Thus content subjects and special subjects gained in importance (20% and 30% respectively). As Physical Training and military drill were categorised into the 'special' subjects their time table allocation increased accordingly. Consequently the 'three Rs' subjects of Mathematics and English lost contact hours (to a total of 50%) to create the needed space on the time table. Turney remarked further that Victoria stayed far more conservative. The 'three Rs' remained as the core subjects in the curriculum and occupied 65%, while of the remaining 35 percent, 14% were directed towards the content subjects and 21% towards the special subjects.\textsuperscript{27}

Turney also alluded to the courses typically included in the 1932 curriculum. One is Physical Training. The author interestingly combined all the different activities taught in the physical culture and physical training courses. However, by summarizing and combining the information Turney provided a distorted view of what actually occurred. In 1931 the Commonwealth had recalled all military


\textsuperscript{26} Ibid, p. 47.

\textsuperscript{27} Ibid, p. 48.
personnel from deployment in the education system. Educational administrators had to face the situation that there were no Physical Education programmes available for boys. It took a number of years to devise adequate curricula for the male primary school pupils. In reality the boys continued for the first years with physical training and squad drill, slowly being phased into swimming and games. Girls only were taught in dance and elementary gymnastics, supplemented with swimming and games.28

Cleverley is one of the few authors who not only referred to but actually acknowledged the policy to train young students in patriotism and citizenship after World War I:

...it was claimed that war work had strengthened children's characters, and that the war provided unparalleled opportunities 'for training the young in ideals of good citizenship, social service, and self-sacrifice.'29

Returned service men were praised for:

inculcating habits of obedience, truth, purity, self control, and unselfishness which could only result in a glorious and robust manliness in the rising generation.30

The attitude expressed in these two quotations was crucially important in the New

29 Cleverley, 'The Primary School Teacher between Wars' Century, p. 83.
30 Ibid.
South Wales' and Victorian Physical Education histories, especially until the early 1950s, and to a slowly decreasing extent to the late 1960s. It was upheld by the national government, without admitting to it, for well over one hundred years. The silence and denial by policy makers, and constant reiteration that education was the sole responsibility and right of the states, would have blurred the fact that drill was strategically placed in the curriculum by the Commonwealth to achieve the goals for good citizenship and self-denial. It appears that it was generally assumed at the time, and later in the literature, that curriculum initiative came from educationists. But as Cleverley hinted, and this research will expand on, over decades the federal governments orchestrated the curriculum direction in state owned primary Physical Education curricula. The emphasis will be traced from a distinctly military emphasis, as expressed above, to a gradual swing towards a broader purpose oriented (including the military) health perspective.

Within this review, two unpublished theses will be considered together. They do have a number of elements in common with this research and bring proof of the military intentions in the school curricula. Ray Crawford's thesis\textsuperscript{31} traces the history of Physical Education in Victoria and New South Wales between the years 1872 and 1939. He was the first author to study Physical Education for children in the early stage of white colonisation. There are very few accounts available that concentrate on children's, and thereby elementary school, Physical Education syllabi, and focus on the time period prior to 1972. A number of researchers (for example Kirk and

Twigg 1993, Wright 1996, Kirk 1998) lean their research on Crawford's findings. Crawford set the trend by comparing the Australian local conditions to English precedent. He described the school based military drill as a means to instill discipline and to cater for the masses in elementary schools. His major contribution to the discussion of Physical Education within the education systems is that he described the development of the physical training and drill programmes and put them into political, social and economic contexts.

The second PhD thesis, by David Jones,\(^{32}\) provided some of the foundation and pre-WWII information to the study and shed some light on the role of military practices in Australian state schools. Jones traced the military forces that impinged upon the education systems and particularly the physical training syllabi. He refrained from analysing the curricula, as his approach was centralised from within the military, looking out towards the education system, while this study will take the opposite position and synthesise the military approach from an outsider's point of view. Jones was quite convinced that the perceived national defence needs were overriding the concern for colonial and state rights and the educational needs for children. At the time the study presented a new perspective on aspects of the history of Physical Education in Australia. With Crawford's and Jones' studies, the innocence to think that Physical Education is not closely linked with political intention was lost. The authors identified convincingly that whether implicitly or explicitly, political

decision-makers set a precedent in the development of Physical Education by formulating policy and directing and controlling implementation.

A shift in perspective occurred with a number of authors (Chown 1960, Tannock 1969, Birch and Smart 1977) who focused their studies on the Commonwealth government's involvement in education after the Second World War. They presented a diverse opinion in regards to the extent of the role the federal governments played in setting the syllabus directions. Each study has taken an historical perspective. Birch and Smart focused on national political and educational initiatives. The background information and research period covered the years 1901-1976. Tannock and Chown studied the role of the Commonwealth in more detail. Tannock chose the years between 1901 and 1968. He gave an overall account on the Commonwealth's initiatives during that time period, including all age and education levels. His investigation clearly pointed to the Commonwealth's intervention into the state education domain by voicing its concern for national health. In his opinion, the Kindergarten Act 1944 was the starting point as the federal government funded initiatives to create programmes throughout the education system. By the end of the 1960s, so he concluded, the Commonwealth had acquired the role of guarantor of the nation's students and education institutions.33

Chown was at tandem with Tannock in his view that the federal government moved its attention from the military to health issues. The vehicle was the National Fitness

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Scheme 1941. He gave an overview of the role of the Commonwealth government in education during the war years (1939-1945) and shortly after. He evaluated the implications of the new national responsibilities within the Australian education system. He was convinced that the Commonwealth acknowledged little responsibility for major educational matters until the outbreak of the 1939-45 war and that the circumstances of the war and its aftermath were the direct causes of an increased national participation in education.\textsuperscript{34} Chown's stand explained the description of the National Fitness scheme as it was established in 1939, shortly before the outbreak of WWII. He elucidated on the scheme in some detail, making the reader aware of the Commonwealth's reluctance to take over the responsibility to meet nation-wide needs. Once Chown had described the National Fitness design, he no longer dealt with the Commonwealth scheme. His study was designed more to inform the reader on the projects inaugurated than providing an analysis on the success of these schemes or any of their support mechanisms.

Tannock elaborated on the notion that health became a prime concern for the Commonwealth. He was more critical in his account of the National Fitness Campaign. He provided more insight into the way the Commonwealth was able to encourage the states to share responsibility.\textsuperscript{35} Peter Tannock's study went so far as to suggest that the Commonwealth, by 1941, had assumed control in state and private schools through the sponsorship of a nation-wide national fitness movement. He provided a cross-reference to, and comparison with, the previously Commonwealth


\textsuperscript{35} Tannock, A study of the Role..., op.cit., pp.85-88.
controlled Physical Training Scheme, supported and managed by the Defence Department between 1911 and 1931. The contrast, so he mentioned, was that the Health Department requested action to improve the physical health of young Australians and as a consequence, the Department of Health was allocated the duties to oversee and steer the Fitness campaign to assist Education Departments.

While Chown (1960), Tannock (1969) and Birch and Smart (1977) were making relatively brief comments on the Commonwealth’s policy direction of Physical Education, this study concurs with the notion that health became a concern within the Physical Education syllabi. It is to build on the view that the federal government, for various reasons, made health the focal point of syllabi development and implementation directly before WWII. Furthermore, a multifaceted policy development can be detected over a period of over one hundred years with two identifiable strands, a militaristic and a health strand. While the latter strand will be waxing, the former will lose impact and vanish over time.

Geoff Lawrence and David Rowe brought a new perspective into the discussion of political involvement in Physical Education. In their article on 'Nationalism' they linked sport per se with nationalism, masculinity and militarism in the period directly following the Second World War. Yet the federal or state policy statements of both major parties, the Labor and Liberal parties, did not make any reference to the sporting or physical being of the Australian public or Australian children. There may

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have been some ideas expressed by individual parliamentary representatives, but policies or plans for sport and Physical Education as part of a party platform were not cited in this account. In contrast, A.J.G. Simpson, in *Whither Australia* 37 reported that "...policy planning was being equated with communism". Whether or not the governments labelled everything that was planned 'communism' is not clear. If it did, it would have successfully rationalised non-policy making and it would have frightened the electorate to such an extent that demands, and even inquiries about future developments and financial involvement, would have been squashed. The underlying assumption here may be in line with Robert Paddick's statement that policy and finance are a measure of control38 used by politicians for social, economic and military purposes. Yet historically Western countries have not shied away from taking the opportunity to use Physical Education as a tool for early socialisation and therefore as a form of control. Australian politicians, so it appears so far in the literature, either by oversight or on purpose, excluded children's physical fitness in their planning for the future. The current research intends to develop an alternative of view by substantiating that active policy formation by governments had to be in place before change of curriculum direction could be implemented.

In the published literature specific to Physical Education, some authors have turned to the consideration of the role sport and physical education have played in the socialisation of the young Australian nation. David Kirk offers the first monograph,39 while other authors devote a major or minor section in their publication to specific

points of interest (Spauld 1982). Kirk's publication, like this thesis, concentrates on
the formative years of physical education, and pays particular attention to educational
policies influencing practices in the classroom. His approach though is following
Foucault's notion of 'biopower', a concept that encapsulates the struggle between
authority and the inferior class. In Kirk's interpretation he identifies broader social
ideologies pertinent to the political system. Within this framework he identifies the
way the subject of physical training and drill was used by the governments to assert
power over the young to create certain types of individuals. Hence within the
Foucaultian philosophy, the body became a tool to gain and retain physical and
mental control. This control was practised through systematic programmes of
militarised physical training and drill as part of the school curricula in all
government elementary schools around the country. Kirk traced changes in
community attitudes and practices, from the purely military to game orientation until
1950. The strength of the analysis is that he successfully demonstrated the power
relationship between education authorities and their attention to the child's body. All
policies and curricula had one aim in mind: to provide a medium through which
power could be exerted over a child's physical being. At the centre of Kirk's study is
the application of policies for a purpose, while this study explores a different
direction. The aim is to identify, to compare and to contrast policy developments for
physical education between the federal governments and the states of New South
Wales and Victoria. It is claimed here that policies developed in partnership and
flowing from Commonwealth Acts lead to different interpretations. Thus the
extension of thought this thesis offers is the emphasis on the process of policy
development, multiplicity of implementation and thus application at each state level.
An analysis of military training and the introduction of the National Fitness Campaign were also at the centre in Irving, Maunders and Sherington's study into Australian Youth during and after World War II. The authors identified the emergence of the concept 'youth' during the 1940 and 1950s and centred their publication around the fifteen to twenty-four year old age-group. Within the historical context the researchers analysed the actions by governments and assessed the effect of policies in all walks of life. Hence, physical education and recreation initiatives at all government levels attracted a substantial discussion. As the authors investigated the parliamentary sources of various legislature, this dissertation shares common inquiries and expands on policy identification and application. However, as Irving et al. pay special attention on the youth of Australia, this project focuses on children under the age of fifteen in Victoria and New South Wales. The focal point is how governments' education policies catered for children and how these policies affected the subject of physical education in government primary schools.

The topic of this thesis has been chosen in an academic area where little research has been conducted in the past. Hence the availability of literature is restricted. The interpretation of the early years of Physical Education until 1945 has been retraced through existing research but substantiated by primary source material. Most of the thesis relies on archival documentation, retrieved in Victoria and New South Wales. The time line to 1969 provides a natural break in historical events. In both states an era of curriculum development came to an end. In New South Wales, the first

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Director for Physical Education retired, as did the Victorian Organiser for Physical Education of twenty-eight years standing, Huck Hamilton. A re-arrangement of the National Fitness Council in New South Wales and a curriculum expansion in Victoria accompanied the change in personnel in both states.
1.2 Methodology

This thesis traces the history of government policy making and implementation for Physical Education of primary school children between the years 1848 and 1969 in two states, Victoria and New South Wales. The central point of the research pivots around the years 1945 and 1969. This research could not be carried out without investigating the context of educational policy and practice prior to the period of investigation. In 1945 the Second World War had ended. Thousands of Australian soldiers returned home from the war. Some had been actively fighting next to British soldiers; others had been placed outside Australia without being involved in combat, while other groups had been posted at strategic points around the country. The Australian Armed Forces had sustained an enormous loss during the six year long war: 33,826 members had been killed and 180,864 wounded. Repatriation had to begin in many forms. The Commonwealth had the obligation to care for the injured and permanently disabled. Many young men had been called to the front and, by following the enlistment drive, had jeopardised their education. New programmes were put into place to assist individuals and families to adjust to new life circumstances and life-styles.

In order to place the policy making in its historical context, the research had to refer back to the beginnings of free compulsory education. A major problem became imminent. No previous study had addressed policy making or policy analysis in the educational setting of physical training in any time period. Crawford and Jones had

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41 A. Barker, *When was that? Chronology of Australia from 1788*. Sydney, 1988, p. 325.
completed PhD studies into physical activity syllabi within the New South Wales' and Victorian education systems. Crawford investigated the influence of the British Physical Training school syllabus in Victorian and New South Wales' curricula between 1872 and 1939, while Jones examined the importance of the military in the Australian physical training programmes. Neither researcher focused on the governments' educational strategies. Hence the thesis addresses this research gap and concentrates on the area of elementary/primary Physical Education.

The unpublished and published literature provides limited analysis of policy. The historical methodology chosen directed the research inquiry into primary and secondary sources. This study relies heavily on primary sources. Parliamentary documentation (Parliamentary papers, parliamentary debates, Hansards, reports, minutes) and other archival documents were accessed and interpreted. Most Law libraries hold copies of these in their collection. Primary documentation from education authorities for this topic was far more available in Victoria than in New South Wales. In comparison, far fewer records were kept in the New South Wales State or Education Department archives or in the Australian Archives in Canberra. Only after 1970 can a systematic collection of records be accessed in New South Wales. Reading as many primary sources as possible was at the forefront of this research. The author is aware that nuances placed into a written document lead into variation of interpretation, hence they will guide the outcome of the research. In

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42 Jones' time frame was far smaller. He restricted his inquiry between 1872 and 1914, the beginning of WWI. By that time the Commonwealth Junior Cadet Scheme was well established and would remain in place until the Depression would force the federal government to abandon the programme.

43 This includes documentation held in Australian Archives. Most archival material for the National Fitness campaigns are held in Melbourne.
addition, the intention of any Report or Act under investigation could have been a
turning point in the direction of any policy or practice, or both, or of social or
educational significance for a limited or extended period. Thus only by reading the
primary sources could a real understanding be gained of the period being studied.
The underlying reasons and circumstances for the formulation of policies became
'alive', as only primary sources can, since no other author's interpretation interferes.

Yet articles, books, theses and newspaper articles were consulted as secondary
sources to widen the research and incorporate already existing information and
interpretations. The question of policy making and policy implementation though, is
solely based on primary material, however limited it may have been.

According to the number of publications, the study of policy analysis in education
has received substantial attention in Australia over the last decades. In the discipline
of Physical Education though, particularly within a historical setting, research is at an
early stage in Australia. It is far more common for researchers to investigate
governments' involvement in competitive sport. Semotiuk's work, for example,
approaches policy analysis from the national political angle. He investigates the role
of the national government in international sport from the Canadian perspective. As
part of his search into motives, Semotiuk devised a model, which encapsulates the
reasons for governmental influence and suggests the forces impinging upon the
decision-making of national governments.\footnote{D. Semotiuk, 'Motives for National Government Involvement in Sport', In: International Journal of Physical Education, vol.18 (1), 1981, pp. 23-28.} This model has formed a basis for this
study. The discussion chapter includes a modification of Semotiuk’s model, focusing on the reasons for involvement by federal governments in Physical Education. It will be noted that some points of motivation are identical in sport and Physical Education, while others are exclusive to the sport or education scene.

This investigation into the historical development of Physical Education in the elementary public schools in New South Wales and Victoria focuses on the reasoning behind the formulation, implementation and evaluation, or lack of it, of colonial and federal policies. Some authors, Birch (1975) Cleverley and Lawry (1972), Tannock (1975) and Thomas et al (1975), allude to ad hoc decisions made by governments, and comment that the governments did not seem to plan for the future.

Yet, as will be proven in this study, in the curriculum area of physical training or drill, the assumption made for other curricula does not hold. Physical training and drill made an exception from the very beginning of constituted secular education in Victoria and New South Wales. Hence the hypothesis that every federal government between 1901 and 1969 followed very clear directions and plans towards set goals in relation to Physical Education policy. Aims and objectives, as stated at the time, formed part of the process models. The process stage of evaluation, though, appeared to be ad hoc. However, one should not be too critical about this weakness since the concept of policy and its measuring tools are quite young. To put it into a time frame, the early theoretical framework identification for sport and Physical Education were published only in the 1970s. Nevertheless, as the study indicates, the governments in Australia had the process firmly in place well before any evaluation or critique was published.
In the following chapter, the reader will be introduced to the historical background of educational conditions in the early years of white colonialism and the philosophical direction of 'patriotism' and 'good citizenship' the governments requested the schools to promote. In elementary schools military drill was practised with boys, while class drill exercises were given to boys and girls. Instruction was shared between Army personnel and male teachers who were holders of the departmental certificate of qualification in military drill. The chapter provides an overview of changes occurring until 1931, when, after many years of intense disputes, the military withdrew its support of personnel from primary and secondary public schools and the military stronghold in the Physical Education syllabus is weakened.

Chapter Three explains the evolution of a national policy in Physical Education and the responses to pressures placed upon schools during the pre-war era in New South Wales and Victoria. The military emphasis in national educational policy again receives a boost with the introduction of a new school drill textbook and legislation, the Defense Bill 1909, to strengthen military activity in schools. Yet, over time social and economic pressures forced change into policy formation and to a limited extent, into curriculum activities. A more detailed analysis unfolds the inclusion of health as a policy direction in the 1910 policy model. However minute this change may appear to be, it becomes part of the Education Act and, although indirectly first, paves the future trend in Physical Education. The concentration on the bodily well being of the child was introduced when medical officers were appointed to the school medical services for the sole purpose of assessing the health status of school children.

45 Education Act (VIC) 1872, Regulations under the Act, p. 15, V.P.R. Series 1675.
Although the health direction is not noticeable at the curriculum implementation stage for another thirty years, the inroad into the education and community activities has been established and will gain significance once the National Fitness Act has been passed in 1941.

Chapter Four illustrates the developments in policy formations and curriculum developments in the state of Victoria during the years 1945 and 1969. The National Fitness Act 1941 began to exert an important impact on Physical Education and Sport in the broadest way. Health became the pivotal point in the policy, its power centered in the federal Department of Health. Physical Education was one of the three interlinked branches, together with community fitness and university training for physical education specialists. The bond was secured when the Commonwealth made grants available to all three sectors.

The chapter unveils how Victoria interpreted the Commonwealth policy on National Fitness. Although both states, New South Wales and Victoria, followed the same regulations, the application varied. The formation of the Physical Education Branch, the professional leadership in the state provided by the university appointment of Dr Fritz Duras, the writing of the first all Australian syllabus, to name a few major events, all contributed to the expansion of the subject. Major sporting events, like the Olympic Games staged in Melbourne in 1956, would also have left its mark.

The Commonwealth strengthened its commitment to health with the commission of the first posture survey for children. The research project is an example of good collaborative work between the Health and Education Departments and the
university sector. All three National Fitness campaign partners contributed to the first fitness related questions, the outcome and the subsequent health/physical education services for children with postural defects.

Chapter Five examines the New South Wales policy interpretation of the National Fitness Act, as indicated in available documentation. This state combined the independent positions of Director for Physical Education and Executive Member of the National Fitness Council. The consolidation of school recreation programmes and personal commitment to outdoor education by the Director for Physical Education may provide the answer to the query of why there was such strong development of community activities, especially camping programmes, in the state. New South Wales took the lead in putting a National Fitness Recreation Scheme into place. Several recreation leadership courses were offered to cater for the high demand in recreation programmes.

The New South Wales Education Department put a new policy framework into place in 1952. The primary goal was ‘to improve the fitness of young Australians’. Physical Education programmes and National Fitness Council activities were the agents at implementation stage. Crucial is the changing philosophy at the observational level. Children were to express their improved attitude to, and interest in, the programmes by showing signs of fun, enjoyment and increased participation. The subtle shift from the military to the health orientation in the primary syllabus had reached a major point. Teachers were to create a sense of well-being, a drive to seek pleasure when participating in Physical Education. As a result a new primary syllabus was introduced in 1952.
In Chapter Six the beginning of Australian tertiary training in Physical Education is described. The emergence of the two oldest Physical Education courses in the country is traced through the struggles to derive at a curriculum core acceptable to the tertiary institution, state education departments and the grant provider, the Commonwealth.

In the concluding Chapter Seven the emphasis is placed on the overall evaluation of policy involvement and development in Physical Education over time. The gradual paradigm shift from the military significance to a health oriented approach underline the investigation for the motives underlying the ongoing federal government's involvement in Physical Education programmes. The question of Commonwealth interference or involvement into state's rights, or collaboration/partnership with the states is discussed with the documentary evidence in mind. However, the alliance between the Commonwealth and the state governments, so it seems, fostered the relationship between all three parties. Regardless who was in control, the impact of the financial contribution from the nation-wide fitness campaign left both states in different, but strong positions.

From the theoretical frame of investigation arose a number of research questions that provide the theoretical orientation through the thesis. The questions were asked with assumptions firmly embedded. It was assumed that children, boys and girls, were involved in some form of physical activity as part of their schooling and the Commonwealth government was directing this training. Because the supposition was made that the physical training of children had its origin in the military, it was further understood that boys and girls were treated differently in this curriculum
area. It was established in the first part of the thesis that the national interest overshadowed the curriculum decisions for physical activity. Physical training became the only subject in the over one hundred years history of Physical Education for children\(^{46}\) in which syllabi were not written by educators. Thus it is argued that Physical Education, or physical training, has always been subjected to colonial or Commonwealth collaboration.

The major research questions can be stratified into three categories: policy formulation, policy implementation and an evaluation on the success of the implementation strategies. The all-encompassing question that had to be asked was (a) Did the Commonwealth interfere or collaborate with the states? The ensuing discussion should reveal response and reasons for the interactions, encompassing the question (b) why did the Commonwealth government contest state rights? The states guarded their rights very carefully and, according to the literature in education, no other curriculum area experienced the same federal interest. There may be a possibility that the states did not see the Commonwealth’s policy setting as an intrusion into their state rights. The policy and subsequent implementation strategies, after all, provided additional funds for one curriculum area and also secured the previously lacking teacher training courses and facilities. The last question in the area of policy formulation was the query (c) who benefited from the policy framework? The vigour applied by all parliaments to assent the Education Acts and pass amendments to the Acts and regulations hoped to shed some light on the motivation and provide reasons for the decisions.

\(^{46}\) Reference is made to the time span of 1850's to 1969.
At the level of policy implementation the question remained basic (d) how were policies implemented?, (e) did the strategies change over time? And again, (f) who were the beneficiaries? The study also attempted to examine the opportunities given to girls in the subject of physical training and Physical Education. While the available literature resources concentrate primarily on the physical activities provided for boys in elementary schools, there was the perceived need by the author to examine the opportunities for girls built into the strategies for policy implementation. The provisions and conditions under which the girls were part of the physical activity scene are not analysed and written about separately in this thesis, as some feminist theorists may suggest should have happened. The historical resources and documentation for this research in general, and specifically referring to girls’ conditions, are very limited. Especially in New South Wales, archival material, as stated before, is incomplete for multiple reasons. Therefore the study at hand combines the conditions and opportunities for boys and girls. When differences are evident, the research will elaborate as much as possible and highlight the dissimilarities for students or staff.

The third area in which research focussed was in policy evaluation. Some reports or individual letters to the Departments of Education comment on the weaknesses and strengths of various programmes. In particular letters from community organisations requested changes to accommodate their stakeholders’ opportunities. These primary documents form the basis to the question (g) how effective has the implementation of policies been? This element of success of the policy process, as mentioned before, was crucial to those decision-makers who were genuinely interested in change and placed all the effort into programmes to succeed with the objectives. Hopefully the
findings will be detailed enough, and the policy evaluation strong enough, to assess the achievement reached through the policy setting process.

To find the answer to the questions the data collection had to be directed predominantly to primary sources. Archival material from state archives in Melbourne (Fawkner) and Sydney (Kingswood) were consulted. In Melbourne, the Physical Education Branch correspondence collection stored at the Fawkner Archives was made available, as well as all information stored by the History Library in the Victorian Education Department. In Sydney, the New South Wales Archives in Kingswood provided the correspondence collection from the Education Department between 1914 and 1923, and between 1938 and 1972. The ‘thirty years rule’ (all government papers are restricted from viewing for thirty years) was waived by the Head History Information Officer, new South Wales Department of School Education Library, Parramatta, for the correspondence between 1968 and 1972 to guarantee the total information for the research. The History units from both state Education Departments assisted with guidance for publications of reports, gazettes, bulletins and curricula published over years by the Ministries of Public Instruction and Education in both states. Colonial, state and Commonwealth Parliamentary papers, dating back to the nineteenth century, were easily accessible in major libraries or at the Australian Archives in Canberra, Melbourne and Sydney. With the support of the library staff at Australian Catholic University, unpublished theses, not held in any library in Sydney, were ordered to assist with the study. Secondary literature searches, in form of books, newspapers or magazines, were conducted in libraries at all Sydney universities, the University of Melbourne and La Trobe University in Melbourne.
1.3 Policy Analysis

The literature divides policies primarily into social and public policies. Educational policies flow from either category. Some authors use both terms interchangeably; others, like Jennett and Stewart (1990) include national concerns like defence, trade, international relations in 'social' policies and use the term 'public' policy to embrace all the different components. 'Social' policy was, in Jennett and Steward's definition, a contingency concept. Once all the elements were together and formed a whole, only with all the specifications in place did they fulfil the necessary requirements to be referred to as 'public' policy.

This research refers to 'social' policy because, as Dalton et al. claim, the policies under investigation are about social arrangements for life situations, in this case of students, staff and parents. Graycar, an authority on Social Policy in Australia, acknowledges the many different approaches to the study of social policy. As he expresses, policy development and implementation is a political activity that is commonly driven by ideology or expediency or both. Graycar refers to the Australian experience, which makes his theoretical framework and ideological particularly meaningful for this study. This study supports his analysis of policy setting and implementation within the Australian context; as at the very centre of this thesis is the notion that political forces had always controlled Physical Education. Vankeris, Compton and McCarthy expanded the approach:

Policies are guidelines to action in organisations. They reflect philosophies, principles, and strategies, and form a bridge between strategies and operations. Policies are developed to carry out chosen strategies... and they reflect cultural and structural realities.  

The research, therefore, is looking for the guidelines and the philosophy on which the colonial and state governments, as well as the Commonwealth government after Federation, were building their educational programmes. It is believed that the politicians at the time had clear ideas on what they wanted to achieve. These aims may have varied, they may have been personal or along party lines. The philosophies may have been less obvious. It could have been more important for parliamentarians to place the well being of the country first, and disregard colonial or state interests. The prospect of other than party interests playing a major role is high. The time frame under investigation includes such events as the European republican unrests, the French-Russian War, the Boer War, and the two World Wars. There was ample scope to report on the existing varying policies for Physical Education the governments of the day implemented in primary schools in Victoria and New South Wales. Military goals and reactions to political and public demands are found to mirror the policy formulations and implementations in the physical activity curriculum in public schools.

Researchers in the area of policy formulation and policy analysis generally agree on some key elements of policy processing. Marmor and Christianson summarise the

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key sentiments aptly:

1. failure of existing system to meet some desirable performance goals
2. governments pursue their own 'selfish' interests rather than greater 'social' interest of citizens...
3. a government program [sic]subsequently enacted for the purpose of correcting, compensating for, or counteracting the behaviour of the 'guilty' party.  

Marmor and Christianson have made their observations on the United States in the Health Science area. However, their identification of fundamental process elements could be relevant to the wide spectrum of social policy. In their endeavour to come to formulate processes, they seem to justify why policy makers were reaching their decisions. The researchers approached their reasoning from the historical perspective and included the psychological and economic interests of the group of politicians. In addition, the analyses incorporate the stated objectives of the policy to be introduced. The emphasis of justification, rather than a cause and effect method, seem to underline Marmor and Christianson's policy approach.

Graycar provided another theoretical framework for the Australian scene. He classified three heavily interdependent, yet distinct, elements in a policy process. The elements are policy formulation, policy implementation and policy evaluation.  

He noted that they may at times not be found in a logical order, because, often practitioners choose to take a different path. Other authors have added steps to

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51 Graycar, op.cit., p. 7.
Graycar's process paradigm, stressing that more guidance ought to be given to policy setters to secure a more effective outcome. Longest 53, for example, writes as his first point within the course of action to be alert to environmental pressure. Pressure from within the internal or from the external environment usually forces policy formation. If a policy is destined to become law, so he warns, legislation has to be passed before the implementation phase ought to be put into place. Another point Longest emphasised is that in his opinion any policy formation demands a thorough investigation into the outcomes of the policy. There should be a system in place that makes somebody responsible for the overseeing of outcomes. The last level in the process model is identified by Longest as the policy modification and feedback level. Although the modification and feedback phase is the last phase in the model, it is one of the most important ones. This level has often been neglected in the past and this weakness is also carried over into current times. Yet, as it has been pointed out before, the policy process demands difficult choices and inevitably includes a variety of values.

As no process model available accommodated all dimensions of this research, the author devised a specific model to cater for the historical perspective chosen. Within that paradigm there are three levels recognised in the policy process: the policy formation level, the implementation strategy level and the evaluation level. As implementation ideally should be observed through several stages, the author identifies three monitoring stages, the first being the observational stage, followed by the internalised stage, while the higher order final stage is identified as the attitudinal

stage.

As mentioned earlier, the policy formation stage is created by pressure mooted and discussed in Parliament. Recommendations made in Commissions and pressures from public and military forces could also be found in the implementation stage. The flexibility and changes took place particularly at the implementation level. One level only to measure the level of success of the physical activity programmes proved to be inadequate for this research, and would have been far too generous to cater for the anticipated outcomes. The model had to accommodate policies which activated school and community programmes. The outcome focused on changes in behaviour and attitudes. To adequately measure the success of the implementation, three 'outcome' stages were incorporated into the model. Each stage concentrates on distinctly different aspects of change, from the most basic to the most complex. It is stressed at this point, that these stages are placed in a hierarchical dimension, representing conceptual achievements. Not every participant will reach all three stages. Some will remain in the observational stage and will never progress from this point, others will internalise a certain behaviour for a short while, or longer. No time frame is discussed as part of this research. The third, or attitudinal, stage will be reached by some, but not by all. Whoever will attain this highest level will display a life-style aimed for by the policy makers.

The first stage is called 'the observational stage, because, firstly, the implementation, the curriculum in its teaching could be observed and, secondly, the pupils also could be watched while they practised the learnt behaviour. The second outcome stage is termed 'internalised' stage. At this level the person would have internalised the
treatment, or programme, and would have learnt to modify or enhance personal characteristics, like self-respect and self-restraint. In order to achieve the desired outcome a person has to move from the 'internalised' stage to the 'attitudinal' stage.

![Diagram]

The newly acquired behaviour and attitude, like patriotism and citizenship, would be all embracing and would be visible, particularly at a time for which the policy was targeted. At that moment the decisive evaluation would come into force.

It is argued here that the stages outlined above are not purely action levels. Because the implementation is affecting behaviours and requires a certain level of maturity, not every person will be able to move through all the stages. Once a person has reached a set level, he or she may remain on it either by choice or because of lack of
maturity for the behaviour required. On the other hand, outcome may vary by degree, again, due to variation of maturation or preference.

The flow of the paradigm developed for this research is to be seen as dynamic, created by an upward and downward move.

![Diagram]

Evaluation

↑

attitudinal stage

↑

internalised stage

↑

observational stage

Implementation

↑

POLICY

The downward movement represents the evaluation process. The outcome is traced and evaluated in reverse, starting from the most sophisticated (attitudinal) to the superficial form of displaying learnt behaviour, the observational stage. The path originates from the highest evaluation point. The evaluation in its conceptual order flows in reverse from the peak down through the attitudinal stage, the internalised stage to the observational level. Here, at its most basic and minimal form of outcome, the downward trend stops and the evaluation process is completed.
The model is designed to simplify understanding of the policy implementation strategy processes in the discipline of physical training and military drill at the time under investigation. It is tailor made to include considerations for policy formation taken into account by governments from the time of state formation to 1969. Constraints to the model are noted but these are irrelevant to this research. The reference is made to cultural and ideological constraints that the students could have faced. While contemporary policies should also encompass the recipients’ values, beliefs and traditions, the policies under investigation completely omitted these aspects. Thus the policy model reflects the policy makers’ attitude and approach of the day.
1.4 Theoretical Orientation

The critical theory developed by Gruneau in the area of sport and society\textsuperscript{54} provides the sociological theoretical guideline for this thesis. The theory was chosen for several properties intrinsic in the nature of this study. Firstly, Gruneau placed his concerns within the discipline of sport history. Secondly, it is inherent in the theory to synthesise the historical emergence of trends and changes, and thirdly, an investigation into the given society and the reasons for decisions being made are at the core of the theoretical orientation. Gruneau’s critical theory has at its base the historical circumstances of the time and situation at the time. That means the approach demands to focus on interaction between individual, institutional and cultural arrangements, social structures and social responses. Within the sporting environment Gruneau created a paradigm which focuses on the relationship between sport, human freedom and constraints. In short, the theory provides the opportunity to trace practices over time. In addition, the theory caters for an evaluation of the relationship between sport, or in this instance Physical Education, governments, armed Forces, educational authorities and primary students. The question of government influence needs an investigation framework that allows scope and a need to query the reasons for interactions between parties involved. The governments at colonial, state or federal levels in Australia supported their own values and promoted their specific political party platform. The power of change and legislation was placed into their hands. Over decades newspaper journalists and other political observers reported children’s decline in fitness levels to the electorate.

\textsuperscript{54} R. Gruneau, \textit{Class, Sport and Social Development}, Amherst/Mass., 1983.
in order to convince the readers of the politicians’ concern in the citizen's well being. On the other hand, the documentation at hand for the study provided enough information to believe that teachers and administrators at departmental level in both states were opposed to many changes and attempted to influence the bureaucratic system. Therefore it was paramount for this research to establish the relationship between bureaucrats responsible for curriculum decisions in physical activity and the governments of the day. Inherent in the establishment of group dynamics was the search for an answer as to why certain decisions had been made and how these decisions affected different groups, particularly the young students. The target groups in the study range from children at the elementary school level, to the military, and bureaucrats at state and Commonwealth levels.

In addition, the reasons for the apparent non-involvement by National or Commonwealth parliaments in policy making in relation to Physical Education had to be appraised within the historical setting, and on a continuous basis. Thus the interactive roles of the social structure and the social development of education, politics and military forces had to be captured. Physical activity, as it was taught within first colonial public curricula in the 1850s and 1860s, had a very narrow definition and purpose. This attitude to the subject area remained steady well past the formation of the Commonwealth of Australia, survived the Great War, and only widened its approach slightly with the Great Depression. During all these years not one government, colonial, state or national, associated the concept of recreation.\(^{55}\)

\(^{55}\) the concept of recreation was already well developed. The definition, as being used in this thesis is taken from Stanley Parker in his book *The Sociology of Leisure*, Sydney, 1976. He reiterates the notion that ‘recreation’ is used to mean something similar to leisure. Recreation always involves activity of some kind and is frequently associated with renewing the self or preparation for work, p. 20.
with education - at least this is the impression created from the archival documentation. In a way this is surprising. Sport, as Cashman points out\textsuperscript{56} was a very well established pastime activity from the 1860s onwards.

The establishment of a free Saturday afternoon made time available for social and competitive games. The love for games has been traced back by a number of authors (Birch and Macmillan 1982, Cashman, 1995, Mandel, 1985, Stoddart, 1986) as part of the English tradition which was to be revived in the colonies and continued as an Australian trait. Yet, the passion for games, the social pressure to include recreational activities into the curriculum, did not reach the politicians. They did not seem to want to acknowledge the connection between sport, recreation and physical activity. Or they may not have been consciously aware of the relationship between sport, recreation and physical activity, and may not have noticed that each concept could have been addressed in its own right. Those members of the community, or teaching force, who tried to pressure the policy makers into a broader definition of physical training, and who tried to pressure for desirous changes into an enriched programme, may have been at that time too advanced for their countrymen. Another possibility, of course, could have been that the politicians were acutely aware of the change in public attitude and recreational practices but followed their own agenda. Whatever the reason, they persisted with the obsession to retain drill and physical training as a major part of physical activity in the curricula. The concept of recreation was only formalised by the Commonwealth government in 1939, when the National Fitness Council met for the first time.

\textsuperscript{56} R. Cashman, \textit{Paradise of Sport}, Melbourne, 1995, p. 42.
Jaques and Pavia attribute the non-involvement of Australian governments in sport, and with it the lack of commitment to the children's education in recreational activities, to the fact that governments at all levels considered Australia's climate good enough to warrant little assistance to sport. In addition, Simpson reveals in his article that it was part of the Liberal philosophy to support the laissez-faire approach and leave sport education and competition to the individual to take up privately. Physical activity outside schools therefore was played under a different philosophy. At school level it served to fulfil the aim of the government, to educate into patriotism and citizenship. Outside school, if finances permitted, a recreational approach was dominant.

With the establishment of the National Fitness Council, and two years later the passage of the National Fitness Act 1941 through Parliament, the Commonwealth admitted formally to the value of recreation. Fitness became the vehicle to health and recreation. The intention was clear, the Health department had shown concern about the unfit state of Australian youth. The Fitness Councils were to provide the guidelines and programmes to improve the fitness level of children. The timing of the creation of the National Fitness Council is quite revealing. It was not a coincidence that the first meeting was called before the Second World War broke out. The Western World had been in fear of the German militarisation for some time. Britain had set about a fitness drive for 'healthy youths' in 1938 and since

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58 Simpson, op. cit.,p. 72.
Australia had followed British examples in the past, the establishment of the National Fitness authority does not come as a surprise.

In terms of educational reasoning, the Commonwealth and the New South Wales and Victorian governments felt pressure from overseas to conform to educational standards accepted by European leaders in education. Britain, Sweden and Germany had been in competition for supremacy in physical and health education for a long time. Britain had followed the Ling tradition and also the movement by Gutsmuths, Jahn and Delsarte. In one way, the Europeans strove for individual excellence, on the other, they learnt from each other and built on the knowledge to modify to their own needs. Professional training was part of the European education system since at least the turn of the century. Yet Australia had not shown any initiative to train her own professional physical educationists. The country was extremely young, the efforts had to be placed elsewhere. At the time where war threats were felt and feared, where a shortage of physical training teachers was acute, the state governments of New South Wales and Victoria finally responded with the recruitment of two overseas professionals. One, Dr Fritz Duras, was to head the professional training of teachers in Victoria, and the second appointment, Gordon Young, was to supervise the Physical Education in New South Wales and also be one of the twelve executive members on the National Fitness Council (NSW). Officially the first step was taken. The Commonwealth had entered the open arena of state education.

1.5 Summary

The literature on educational policy leads to the assumption (by omission) that Physical Education, as general education, has always been the prerogative of state governments. Only a few writers (Chown 1960, Crawford 1981, Jones 1991) give limited insight into the role the Commonwealth may have played up to the end of World War II. The interest in this study emanated from the paucity of literature in the history of Physical Education.

The timeframe for this study arose from the question of how much influence the Commonwealth had exerted on the states in the curriculum area of Physical Education. The investigations led to the mid 1850s when the two Boards of Education were set up and the colony of New South Wales, including the Port Phillip District, were directing education. Already during this time, physical activity was part of the children’s school life. The choice to commence the research from the very beginning of public education gave an opportunity to follow New South Wales and Victoria from their common baseline. The decades ensuing illustrate the challenges and dynamic relationship between these two states and how both interpreted the Commonwealth’s policies for their own good.

Gruneau’s concept of critical theory offers the research methodology best suited to probe into the role of the Commonwealth in state education. It is the methodology that caters for an historical analysis ranging over a one hundred year span. The central question was why the federal government had insisted over decades to set the policies for Physical training in primary schools.
During the study it became essential to use a research tool which would cater for all the aforementioned requirements. As there was no suitable assessment tool available, a new model was devised to trace the policies, and subsequent strategies, the Commonwealth had used to secure influence. Although the Commonwealth government insisted that its authority was always limited, the assessment paradigm will ascertain whether this claim can be upheld, or whether the strategies employed by the Commonwealth to foster the health of the children and train staff for it, testify to be effective.
CHAPTER 2

THE COMMONWEALTH BEFORE 1939

2.1 Setting the Scene

It is commonly assumed that Physical Education is divorced, or had always been separate, from politics. In fact Physical Education, sport, physical training, recreation and leisure have always been intertwined with politics. The extent of this relationship at every level of government in Australia, throughout white settlement, has not been fully identified in the literature.

A number of studies (Tannock 1969, Crawford 1981, and Armstrong 1985) have attempted to grasp an understanding of, and establish the interrelationship between, political forces and Physical Education in Australia. These authors direct their studies either into the more general realm of education at federal level (Tannock 1969 and Crawford 1981) or centre their time frame after the 1972 change of government, to the Whitlam era (Armstrong 1985).

Every author writing about Physical Education prior to 1972 makes the statement that Physical Education in Australian schools was always under the sole jurisdiction of either the colonial government, or, after Federation, the individual state governments. This perception seems to be correct if one only looks at education generally. It is a premise of this research that previous authors have treated the area of physical exercises generically within the total curriculum and made their statements without assessing the specific subject area. The results of tracing the early beginnings of Physical Education in the colonies of Victoria and New South Wales indicate a need to correct the traditionally held view that physical exercise programmes in public schools were decided solely by colonial education authorities.
Before Federation, education had been the prerogative of each individual colony, but the trend of the early and mid 1840s was towards a uniformed system in all states. Greenwood mentions that each colonial government and society was leaning towards uniformity rather than variety.\(^1\) By 1848 New South Wales took the lead and set up state schools under a National Education Board.\(^2\) The other states followed soon and joined the guidance of the National Boards in each state. Education at this time was restricted to children whose parents could afford it. The churches upheld deep and bitter struggles with the colonial governments for a share in grants and curriculum teaching. It was only after 37 years of colonisation and more than twenty years in the shadow of the British Education Act of 1870, and following the directions of the National Education Board, that Victoria assented to the first Education Act on 17th December 1872. On 1st January 1873 the Act came into force to make education free, compulsory and secular in the state. Within the context of this research it has to be mentioned that the Victorian colonial government rationalised its decision to pass an Education Act to enforce free, secular and compulsory education, by stressing that education was to serve a social function, a vehicle to foster 'patriotism' and 'citizenship.'\(^3\)

There were definite reasons why a number of educators and politicians pursued this nationalistic approach to education. The colonies had grown substantially over the last decades. The gold rush enhanced the enormous influx of free settlers into the new colonies. A demand for equality in every respect, including self-government, had already been strong, primarily in New South Wales and Tasmania in the 1840s. An open feud between the emancipists and free-born settlers was avoided by Hargrave's discovery of gold in 1851.\(^4\) The call for a fair distribution of power was imminent after the euphoria of the gold rushes had subsided and mere gold seekers

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\(^2\) Ibid, p.112.
\(^3\) Crawford, A History of Physical Education., op.cit., p.71.
\(^4\) M. Clark (ed), *Sources of Australian History*, Melbourne, 1957 p. 144.
had left the shores. G.V. Smith, in his speech in the Legislative Assembly of Victoria on the Education Bill⁵, demanded the right to free, secular and compulsory education, an education of highest standard that would elevate the national character. In addition to the 'three Rs' he requested 'three Ss' to complete the framework of national education: self-reliance, self-respect and self-restraint. G.B. Kerfeld added another dimension to the very basic education - a character building component.⁶ He alluded to the fact that political power can only be executed if the person possesses the tools to operate such an office. 'Therefore it is essential that people who gained this political power are well educated and can use power intelligently'.⁷ E. Langton spoke in the Legislative Assembly about the virtue of education and how it would diminish criminal activities amongst children, as was experienced in Prussia, England and Switzerland.⁸ Children in these countries, so he argued, were preoccupied by being educated and therefore have less time and inclination to involve themselves in crime. Thus education was to bring to the colony social empowerment for the lower classes, and a remedy to solve social ills.

The debates in parliament helped educationists to formulate the direction education was to take in the late 19th century. Under the guidance of a newly formed state Education Department which was answerable to the Minister for Public Instruction with a Director of Education as the permanent civil head, a curriculum was set up focussing on the 'three Rs', personal values, and a government directed philosophy towards the new country. Education had to serve a social purpose. At the centre of daily routine were discipline, obedience, and order. These characteristics were highly valued and seen as means to introduce stability and security into the colony.⁹

⁶ VPD 1872, Legislative Assembly, 8 October, vol. xv, p. 1714.
⁷ Ibid.
The colonial Victorian and New South Wales governments were determined to educate children in public schools towards 'patriotism' and 'good citizenship'.

Games and military training were seen as ways to socialise the children to accept these values unquestioningly. Games were extensively played outside the school in social and organised sporting settings. There was also time set aside by schools to devote practice time for interschool competition. In regard to the teaching of physical exercises it is a reflection of the time that the curriculum for physical training was taken over by the military. At the end of the 19th century military service was seen, first as the most accepted way to inculcate children and adults into the ideal of citizenship and patriotism, and second, as a way to recompense the taxpayer for the free education. The subject was taught to boys in large towns as part of the core or 'first schedule' subjects. It appeared that priority to teach the subject was given to male teachers who had an army training background. More importantly these 'special' teachers had to qualify for an award or certificate of competency from the National Gymnasium. Only teachers who were holding such a certificate were allowed to form 'extra' classes and received payment for such. As it was customary at the time, teachers were paid by results. Only if a teacher could prove that the pupil had made an 'efficient' effort to learn, then payment would be made to the teacher. The Education Department made the conditions for payment very difficult. Minimum numbers to constitute a class were high (more than fifteen) and since attendance fluctuated greatly from day to day, drill lessons were not very popular amongst

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13 Blake, op.cit., p. 206.
14 The regulations use the terminology of 'efficient' effort without defining the meaning and how the level of achievement should be ascertained.
teachers. To measure an ‘efficient effort’ in a uniformed physical programme where no child was supposed to show any variation, with an aim to substantiate progress to parents, seemed to be highly unrealistic. There were no standards in performance available or testing batteries developed at the time. As long as children were able to perform the drill, the aim was achieved. It is interesting to note that physical training became the only subject in which non-teachers were primarily involved in content determination and where a non-Education Department organisation took control. No policies, plans or programmes for the drill sessions were in place. Only Anderson’s Manual of Drill for School Use, a publication for general application in schools put together by Colonel Anderson, the Commander of the Defence Forces, was made available to teachers in 1875. In Parliament the representatives of the electorates were assured that this volume was published for the purpose of a common approach to drill instruction in colonial schools. After all, instruction manuals in military drill for children did not exist and there was no indication in the literature that there was a move to modify the exercises for children’s needs. The children simply underwent the same physical training routine as it was conducted for the adult soldiers. By determining military drill as part of the physical training for children in public schools, the Ministers for Public Instruction used a concept the public would have been familiar with. They trusted the professional military to enhance the training towards loyalty to the British-Australian heritage. The physical and mental training was accepted as positive and character building. Thus new physical practices,

15 VPRS 892 Education Department of Victoria, Special Case Files, 1853-1976, 81/1359/P42/2273.
16 Referred to in V.P.P. vol 3, 1876, Report of the Minister of Public Instruction for the Year 1875-76, p. x. The publication could not be located in any of the Australian libraries, including the National Library.
17 V.P.D. vol 21, 29 July 1875, p. 894.
associated with the Swedish educator Ling, that were introduced from overseas and supported by Gustav Techow in Victoria, may have been viewed with suspicion at first. Techow, who had opened a National Gymnasium in Melbourne in 1865, was the only member on the Board in Victoria with a solid knowledge about these modern health or gymnastics oriented exercises. It took Techow years to become well known and highly regarded for his progressive exercise training. Yet, at the time the new Education Act was inaugurated, military drill was still the pivotal point in the school exercise programme. John Elkington, the district inspector in the metropolitan area, may have had a strong influence in this decision, as he had spoke out strongly in favour of 'class drill' in schools. The Education Department continued with its support of the subject that had been perceived for centuries as being wholesome.

With these objectives in mind, and clear goals to inculcate discipline, obedience and order in children the policy to teach this programme operated throughout the remainder of the 19th century. Military drill over decades had been used by British educationists as a vehicle to instil these goals in boys. The British tradition was overwhelming in the colonies and education followed in its pattern. Any other influence was simply rejected. Although Techow was well known at the time the Victorian Education Act was passed, it appears that Techow's individual influence was not yet strong enough to counteract the overwhelming belief by members of the newly formed Department of Education that military exercises, over gymnastics,

would provide the basis for obedience and discipline. Over the years the majority of boys in the colonies were given instruction in military drill. Jones strongly stresses that drill training gained such importance that it was elevated to a prerequisite for employment as a pupil teacher.\textsuperscript{21} Within today's context of Physical Education one can assess that military obedience and total absence of individuality was placed at the centre of the programme and thus became the foundation for physical exercise programmes in the colony. Its influence would be felt for many decades to come.

New South Wales introduced a similar Education Act in 1880. Since all colonies looked towards Britain for direction and approval it is not surprising that one finds the same principles in educational thought in every colony's Education Act. The philosophies and teaching of Physical Education by Guts Muths (1759-1839) and Pestalozzi (1746-1827), expanded by Iing (1776-1839) and Herbart (1776-1841), and introduced into Victoria by Techow (1865), had not been able to find firm ground for germination yet.\textsuperscript{22} The influence of the military and police, on civic training, found its legitimate entrance without any objection, into the curriculum via Physical Training. It is from the very beginning of state directed education in Australia that politics was actively included in the preparation of children's thinking and behaviour. This is not necessarily a surprise. Most authors maintained that Australian education followed the British pattern.\textsuperscript{23} In 1870 Britain passed a new Education Act. A \textit{Revised Code of Regulations} followed. McIntosh describes the drill activities newly accepted into the Victorian, and later New South Wales,

\textsuperscript{22} Fischer, Pestalozzi's Influence., op.cit., passim.
curriculum similar to the ones described for British children. The colonies chose the activity area, or motor domain, to influence the child's thinking and behaviour. The concept of fitness in its closest and most static form, namely military drill, became the vehicle of socialisation.

Federation of all colonies in 1901 provided Australia with a new Constitution. The powers given to each colony in the past were newly realised and distributed according to need for national and/or state representation. Constitutionally education became firmly enshrined as a responsibility of the states. Each state passed its own Education Act in 1901. Governments irrespective of political persuasion respected this power granted to the states. Even when the states, burdened under the spiralling costs of education, begged the Commonwealth for assistance as late as 1935, Prime Minister Lyons replied forcefully: 'Education is a matter that comes with the administrative control of the government of the State'. At the time of change from colonial to federal status, on 1.1.1901, the curriculum in each state remained as stipulated in the Education Acts of 1872 and 1880 for Victoria and New South Wales respectively. The policies for the state education system were formulated centrally in each capital city. For a number of years physical training for boys and girls in public schools remained unchanged until the state took over the initiative to adjust to more modern educational principles.

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Birch, in his study of Australian education policy formation, takes the view that, historically, neither the Commonwealth nor the states exercised an exclusive right in education. In the past, so he claims, both have been involved in policy making.27 Birch and Smart reiterate this view in a later publication.28 More published research in Commonwealth-state educational interests would assist and support a deeper understanding of specific curriculum areas and the involvement or possible interference of the Commonwealth in what was believed to be state territory. Primary and secondary sources pointed to the fact that the policies set by the colonial governments, to implement physical drill in their curricula, had not been abdicated with the onset of federalism. The Commonwealth took over the national responsibility for defence, and within this framework, continued to determine the physical training of children, particularly boys, in the states' curricula.29 The 1903 Defence Act became the base legislation for the second major national policy in Physical Training. Under section 125 the Act made everybody liable for service and included a compulsory cadet scheme for six months.30 Kirk reports resistance to a scheme of compulsory military training in schools, 31 while Inglis elaborates that although compulsory military training was unknown in colonial Australia and not proposed by the first federal government, the 1903 Act, and later the Act of 1909 were introduced with the consent of all parties.32 As states could not come to an agreement over finances, any discussions between Education and defence

29 Blake, op.cit., p. 995.
31 Kirk, Schooling Bodies, op.cit., p. 37.
departments officials were stalled for six years. It was only shortly before the Commonwealth introduced the 1909 Defence Act in parliament that the Prime Minister stepped in and called for a conference with all Directors of Education to solve the question of physical training in and outside schools. It would be the first of three conferences on Physical Training (1909, 1910, 1912). The Prime Minister, Andrew Fisher stated

that the conference had been suggested as physical training is being adopted in the several states, and it is considered by the Defence Department to form the basis on which any subsequent military training must depend.

The conferences in 1909 took place in the Victorian Barracks, St. Kilda Road in Melbourne. The Minister of State for Defence, Joseph Cook, presided over the one day meeting. The major issue on the agenda was to discuss a uniform system of physical training of school boys and girls attending school in the Commonwealth. Related issues like provision of adequately trained teachers and the health status of school children were part of the agenda. The Defence Bill of 1909, introduced into the House of Representatives by the Minister for Defence, Joseph Cook, contained extensive provision for cadet training. The incursion in the state education system leaned on the fact that this cadet system relied heavily on the cooperation of the physical training programme in schools. The conference membership agreed on many recommendations. Most of them would be adopted and very quickly implemented. The foremost recommendation was to call on the Commonwealth to

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33 AAV 1832/1/220. Letter to all Premiers of all states, dated 16 March 1909.
appoint a supervisor of Physical Training. The second to employ a sufficient number of expert teachers to carry out, under the direction of the supervisor, the training of instructors for the Cadet Forces and of teachers for the schools. Certificates of Competencies should attest to the proficiency of the holder. The fourth recommendation urged the building of permanent training centres. The conference also addressed the importance of a system of Physical Training to be provided for in curriculum in schools. The curriculum was not health driven; quite the opposite, the policy for the new national fitness programme was to prepare children's physical well-being for defence purpose.\textsuperscript{35}

The system of the Universal Training scheme incorporated a second tier within the national direction. Reference is made to the School Medical Inspection programme. In the literature, the School Medical Service and the Physical Training Scheme are not necessarily seen as one programme. Yet, by reading the minutes of the first meeting of state Directors of Education one has to take note that the last recommendation is referring to Medical Inspection:

That the state education authorities be requested to coordinate their system of medical inspection of children and schools with the proposed system of Physical Training.\textsuperscript{36}

Medical Inspection in schools in New South Wales and Victoria had been carried out on a regular basis. Since May 1907 the Education Department in New South Wales conducted anthropometric measurements of the height and weight of school children

\textsuperscript{35} Crowley, op.cit., p.184.
in Sydney and later in the year in Newcastle. When the Education Act 1910 formally included the service into the schools, the New South Wales state government extended the service to the South Coast district and a number of inland towns. Victoria responded with the opening of the school medical service when the Education Department appointed three medical officers to comply with the recommendation it had enthusiastically supported at the Conference. Standard medical check-ups included also anthropometric measurements and posture assessments.

A second Conference on Physical Training was called in March 1910 to draw up and submit a definite scheme for the Physical Training of school boys in relation to the physical fitness required for service as cadets.

Within the ensuing deliberation two papers were considered: the syllabus of physical exercises for Public Elementary schools 1909, from the Board of Education, London, and the copies of the Defence Act 1903 and 1909. It was resolved by all present to support three recommendations which took the altered circumstances into consideration. The membership of the conference included the following sections of the community: the Education Directors of all states (except South Australia and Tasmania), representatives of the private school system, teacher associations, schools Registration Boards, the commanding officer of the Cadet system and a representative of school medical inspectors.

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38 ibid.
40 Harvey Sutton's first major official representation.
1. There should be a compulsory military training and universal scheme of physical training. The physical training should only include those boys to whom the Defence Act applies (junior cadets between the age of 12-14, senior cadets between 14-16 years of age. Some special groups were excluded from service)

2. The British syllabus was accepted as a general guide for physical training.

3. That all teachers be afforded facilities to attend, without cost to themselves.

The Act of 1903-1909 required a minimum expenditure of 120 hours per annum upon the physical training of boys between 12 and 14 years of age. The federal regulations as required within the legislature stipulated at least 15 minutes per school day. When schools complained about the descriptive nature of the regulations which would not even cater for half the time legislated (1 ½ hours per week over 46 teaching weeks would only total 57 ½ hours in every one year), an explanatory note was circulated from the Prime Minister’s office to each state. The PM reiterated the regulations and also alerted to the future compulsory medical inspection.41

At last, at the Conference of representatives of state Education Departments for the purpose of considering the progress and future of Physical and other Junior Cadet Training,42 the Defence Act 1903-1911 in its final form was considered in deliberations. Concluding recommendations were drawn up for the approval by the Minister for Defence. They included to reduce the duration of training, as prescribed by sec. 127 of the Defence Act, to ninety hours per annum, and to reduce the compulsory activities to one choice from a selection of three. Miniature rifle shooting to be excluded. The Minister ratified all three recommendations.43

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41 AAV 1832/13/90, Correspondence from the Defence Department.
42 AAV 1832/13/585, Melbourne 23-24 July 1912.
43 AAV 1832/13/573, Commonwealth of Australia, Department of Defence.
The first of July 1911 marked the outcome of all discussions. The day recalls the commencement of a new Physical Training scheme, governed by the first post federation national policy for what would become Physical Education. The new initiative by the Commonwealth provided an infrastructure which straddled over two disciplines, or two ministerial portfolios: defence and education. The aspect of health, the third area, is embedded in education, as the medical service providers are employees of each Education Department. The creation of the national vision in the future of the health of Australians is combined with health and education. It’s the first time that physical activity is taking that direction.

It appears from the outside that the federal government overrode the states to put a national programme, directly supervised by the Minister for Defence, into force. There are a number of reasons for it. Firstly, the implementation of the policy was not part of the responsibility of the Minister of Public Instruction, but was in the portfolio of the Federal Minister for Defence. Secondly, as detailed in the recommendation from the first Conference in 1909, a position for a Director of Physical Education had been created. The first incumbent was Mr. C. Bjelke-Petersen, a former officer in the Australian Army. According to Director General’s report, his brief was to oversee, with the help of special instructors appointed in each state, the training of teachers for private and state schools. In his Report, dated 1914, the principal administrative officer published the news that the scarcity of teachers was over. More than 4,000 teachers had attended short, intensive Physical

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45 Ibid.
Education courses under Defence Department instructors' guidance and had obtained Certificates of Competency to qualify them for the subject area. He called the federal-state cooperation, the establishment of physical training staff appointed in each state under his own supervision, a great success. He refers, of course after the few years of operation, to the building of the infrastructure, not to the success or effectiveness of the curriculum.

The relationship in the cooperation between the Commonwealth departments and the states appears to be very constructive. According to the minutes of various meetings and other documentation the Commonwealth had the full support from most states. The absence of Tasmania in all meetings may suggest that that state's total absence was an act of protest. Additional research may shed some light on the attitude of the most southern state on the Commonwealth's initiatives. The speed of response with which Victoria reacted to all recommendations may support Kirk's claim that Victoria embraced the Junior Cadet Training scheme with greatest enthusiasm. Also New South Wales, with Peter Board negotiating with the Defence Department, seemed to be in total harmony with the actions recommended. There is no indication in any of the minutes that either Victoria or New South Wales opposed the proposals. To the contrary, each Director for Education had signed the recommendations.

The twin federal policy to provide a national medical service and a physical training scheme for children in state schools around the country remained in operation for

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many years. The School Medical Inspection Service in New South Wales and Victoria were still providing medical services to children in each state at the end of 1969. The Service remained with the Department for Education in both states for about thirty years. Once the Department of Public Health (NSW) or Department of Health (Victoria) was inaugurated, the respective services were transferred under the Ministry of Health.\textsuperscript{48}

The federal policy to provide a national Universal Training Scheme for children in state schools around the country remained in operation for twenty years. In the late 1920s and early 1930s Australia faced economically fierce times with unemployment and poverty dominating daily life. The Great Depression demanded that governments cut expenses wherever possible. The Labor government had tried for most of its term of office to support the scheme, but cuts in wages, as well as pensions and increases in taxation and interest rates, made it impossible to uphold the expense. Three months before the Scullin government was defeated, Labor Defence Minister J.B. Chifley disbanded the Physical Training Scheme in schools on 1\textsuperscript{st} July 1931. This did not mean that the Commonwealth was no longer interested in national fitness. Documentation suggests the opposite. At the time the concern was only dormant. Regardless of party affiliation, all federal governments exercised influence in the physical training of boys in schools and within the Cadet Scheme outside the classroom. The creation of national fitness and national morale was close to federal politicians' thinking regardless of political orientation and regardless of the time frame. As pointed out earlier, the interest was formally expressed with the onset of

\textsuperscript{48} Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth, 1901-1918, no 12, 1919, pp. 1068-1069.
state education and later on when the Commonwealth took over the national training. There are only six years in the history of children's Physical Education between 1872 and 1939 that the Minister for Defence was not in charge of the subject area, and the service by the army in boys' Physical Education was dispensed with. This six year span, during 1931 and 1936, was the first time in the history of Physical Education in Australia that boys were freed from military influence and educationists were able to concentrate on children's interests and needs. Yet as early as 1936 the Lyons United Australia government was prepared to reintroduce the physical training scheme. This was despite the reassurance by Archdale Parkhill in the House of Representatives that 'education is a state function'. Donald Cameron had requested the government's involvement in the training of youth for the sake of defence. Prime Minister Lyons avoided accusations of interference by categorically clarifying that his government would only recommence the fitness programme if the states request it. In 1936 political tension already existed in Europe. Fear of another military support for the motherland Britain may have crossed state politicians' minds. The states' representatives may have feared the financial burden of training for military fitness. Whatever their hidden agenda may have been, little doubt exists that the states collaborated with the Commonwealth and voiced their reassurance that it was within the national interest to have physically fit citizens.

This notion was supported by the foundation of the National Health and Medical Research Council that paved the way for the National Fitness Council to be established in 1939. The full conference of state Education ministers approved the

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50 Tannock, A Study of the Role..., op.cit., p.85.
National Fitness scheme. The first Council met in January 1939 and worked on recommendations that later were adopted by Federal parliament. Within its framework a national office would oversee the implementation of the national policy for children's fitness and direct the national fitness campaign. The allocation of funds would remain in the hands of the national coordinator who would be responsible to the Prime Minister. The power of the scheme was clearly left with the national government. By the time World War II broke out, the federal government was firmly involved in Physical Education programmes. This position was further consolidated when the national parliament passed the National Fitness Act in 1941. Prime Minister Menzies went to great lengths to convince the electorate that the finance of the national fitness movement was not to control the education of the states. He referred to the administrative control of the states, not the decision-making power of the states, because the Commonwealth had retained the right to make the final decisions and to ensure that these would be executed. The discussion for both states, Victoria and New South Wales, will shed more light on the influence of the Commonwealth on children's Physical Education in state schools before the assent of the National Fitness Act (1941) and during the years of application of the national Fitness campaign.
CHAPTER 3

VICTORIA AND NEW SOUTH WALES.

THE FORMATIVE YEARS PRE AND POST FEDERATION

The evolution of a national policy in Physical Education cannot be clearly understood without a comprehensive analysis of events which had led the Commonwealth to take openly, and without apparent resistance by the state governments, control over an educational discipline. The development was gradual and unobtrusive, providing logical responses to pressures placed upon national issues. The physical training area of the curriculum lent itself to address weaknesses observed and reported on the national status of fitness or health. The military used the lack of trained civilian personnel to its own advantage when it offered trained military staff for the teaching of the young children. No consideration was given as to whether these military men were professionally prepared to train men for combat situations. The instruction of children never became an issue, since the military appeared to be the best qualified for the curriculum programme. A steady shift from necessity to a forced intent marked the years of elementary teaching in Physical Training from its inception as a school subject to the early 1930s when the military withdrew its services.
3.1 Victoria 1860s to 1900

By the time the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed on January 1, 1901, the newly formed states of Victoria and New South Wales had their education systems well established. The National Board of Education had lost its function with the formulation of independent states. Instead, state Education Departments were formed. The Minister for Education resumed the prime responsibility for the standard of education, its policy formation, curriculum planning and implementation. He was answerable to the State Parliament.

Physical Exercises occupied a special place in the curricula of Victoria and New South Wales. It was the one subject that was not fully placed under the control of the Education Departments. Its content and teaching were determined by dual interests which, on one hand, were claimed to be educational and on the other hand, had to serve the purpose of instilling morale and discipline. The colonial military had been the invisible partner in education since the early years of state influenced teaching in the colonies and had dominated the activities in the previous syllabi. With Federation education was carefully guarded by the states and defence became the responsibility of the Commonwealth. The military was to protect the young nation and support Britain. This in turn meant a continuation of the interpretation by the Armed Forces that they should prepare the youth of Australia for physical and mental military readiness.

The assumption by politicians and the military that the school curriculum is the place to socialise the young into military skills, obedience, order and discipline, originated,
as pointed out before, in the tradition of military drill in the colonies. A more
detailed study of physical training in the colonies of New South Wales and Victoria
is essential to understand the origins, and thus underlying circumstances, surrounding
the decisions made in the early years before the establishment of the Commonwealth
of Australia.

The colonial governments in Victoria and New South Wales requested the Board of
Education to introduce military drill into the Victorian Common schools in 1865 and
into the New South Wales public schools with the passing of the Public Schools Act
in 1866. Blake explained the inclusion of the subject as a military drill programme to
have been the response to teacher demands.\(^1\) He did not elaborate to whom these
demands were made, and what interests this group or groups fostered. He
disregarded any other factor, explicitly or implicitly, which may have had an
influence on the decision to incorporate military drill as a subject in a mandatory
curriculum. In support of Blake’s observation it can be added that in the same year,
1866, Gustav Techow, who had studied Physical Training overseas, had opened a
gymnasium in Fitzroy, Melbourne, from where he was instructing males in drill and
gymnastics. It was the first gymnasium of its kind in the Australian colonies. Several
teachers were reported having attended a free course in Techow’s National
Gymnasium.\(^2\) The overall success of the training facility was overwhelming. The
Report of the Board of Education reflected the involvement by the public, and
specifically the teaching fraternity, when it specified in Parliament that advanced

\(^1\) Blake, op.cit., p. 112.
\(^2\) Ibid.
classes in gymnastics had begun and hundreds of teachers were trained. A sense of attention can be noted in the parliamentary report. After all, a lack of experience in 'free' physical activity was common and the unknown created uneasiness. In addition, the legislators may have felt threatened, as many activities practised in the National Gymnasium were judged as moving away from the notion of military drill. On the other hand, Blake's *Vision and Realisation* had been written for the Victorian Education Department to celebrate 100 years of state education in Victoria. The account can be interpreted as self-perpetuating, a descriptive justification for a course taken by Education over decades. Teachers will have believed in certain aspects, including the necessity to add drill as a compulsory part of the total education of a child. However, the aspect of teacher demand is difficult to support when little evidence for the claim can be found.

Jones, in his study of military drill in Australian schools, assessed the introduction of military drill in favour of gymnastics or games, as a deliberate inclusion by the respective governments. Free education, he wrote, was considered a gift, not a right. To expect military service in return, was not seen as unreasonable. In addition, governments turned towards the colonial schools as an economical means to provide some fundamental military training. All colonies suffered an acute shortage of money. Few settlers, in proportion to the size of the colonies, supported the bureaucracy with their taxes. The public purse was unable to cope with all necessary expenditure. Hence some may judge it reasonable that the decision makers wanted

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5 Ibid., p.25.
to reduce the Defence Bill by training the boys at school and prepare them as part of their education for more intense and sophisticated military practice later in life. Furthermore, the drill programme was to create a propensity towards military activities and defence of the colonies.

The explanations brought forward by Jones can be enhanced by social control theory. Paddick argues that policy and finance are a measure of control⁶ and are used by politicians for social, economic and military purposes. The introduction of military drill into Victorian and New South Wales' schools is a probable example. Educational reasoning, as assessed at the time, never appeared in any debates. The recommendations based on educational arguments in the Higinbotham Report⁷ were ignored. Higinbotham asked for the recognition of physical training to provide an all-encompassing education of the children. He was the first Commissioner who included teacher training in his recommendations. In his opinion class teachers should have received physical training before they were allowed to teach the subject. His second recommendation was directed towards a wider curriculum. Techow's National Gymnasium may have been part of Higinbotham's own experience as a Melbournian. It would explain why he realised the gymnastic apparatus' acclaimed educational potential for children.⁸ Important in the discussion here is that Higinbotham confirmed the position of physical training within the educational programme for boys, and made two recommendations of which only one was accepted, namely the inclusion of teacher preparation in physical training. The

omission of the second recommendation is crucial. The inclusion of gymnastics would have allowed a new element into the curriculum. The author's interpretation is that it would have made the first attempt to include physical self-expression and the physical sensation of freedom⁹ into a colonial curriculum. The administrators of the colonies may have felt uneasy and in fear of losing control when they ignored the recommendation. This apprehension may have been deepened by the realisation that women were attracted to the gymnastics activities. Many women had requested the introduction of women's classes.¹⁰ The justification to slight the second recommendation for a wider presentation of physical activities brought forward in Parliamentary debates prior to the passing of the Victorian Education Act 1872, and permeating throughout the following years, confirm Paddick's criticism: military drill was to force order, discipline, and obedience into schools. The 'state' intended to control the behaviour of the students by socialising the boys into military obedience.

The introduction of the Victorian Education Act 1872, into the schools in 1873 established the compulsory, free and secular education the community had requested for over twenty years. The colonial government enshrined its sole right to oversee education in its own colony into the Act. The Minister for Public Instruction was answerable to Parliament. Reports were to be given to the House and subsequently published as Parliamentary Papers.

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⁹ The gymnastics movement in continental Europe (where Techow was socialised) included the enhancement of physical expression and the physical sensation of 'being free' into their programmes. See H.-J. John, 'Leibesübungen im Dienste nationaler Bestrebungen'. In H. Überhorst (ed), Geschichte der Leibesübungen, vol. 3/1, Berlin, 1980, p. 282.

¹⁰ Ibid.
Individual teaching subjects in the new syllabus were categorised into schedules. Schedule One and Two were distinctly different as Schedule One contained the subjects of the ‘three Rs’ and provided teachers with a bonus payment if they could provide the school authorities and parents with 'efficient' results. Military drill was classed as a Schedule One subject. Although this classification is important, it has not been taken seriously by Crawford in his research. There are two aspects that deserve mentioning. Firstly, teachers would take more care, and pay more attention, to a subject when they are able to better their standing. Secondly, and this may be the more important point, the ranking of military drill into the superior schedule. The first argument is questionable. A payment is only meaningful and motivating when it is paid. But correspondence between teachers and the Education authorities suggests, that in the first years teachers were not paid, although the groups they trained were far larger than the minimum number of fifteen, the group size for payment entitlement.

Thus the Minister of Public Instruction may have had another reason for the decision to include military drill into Schedule One. It is argued that the policy to educate children in elementary government schools into patriotism and citizenship was as significant as teaching pupils in reading, writing and arithmetic. It was an overt decision by the Minister, a clear policy by the governments, to rank military drill equal with the ‘three Rs’. The implications of such a policy were not admitted for the next hundred years, although teachers and parents would request changes and teachers would individually undermine the subject of military drill for boys.

The policy, as developed in the early 1870s, should be explained in a systematic form, since the essence of the policy was to become the cornerstone for physical training and Physical Education for the next century. This blueprint for military drill in schools became the entrance ticket for the Defence Forces, or the Commonwealth, into the school curriculum after 1\textsuperscript{st} January 1901.

The diagram below delineates the physical activity policy as conceptualised in this research. The model is viewed from two perspectives. It explains the process through which implementation should take place, moving through three distinctive stages and including all three Australian governmental levels. Secondly, within the same model, the evaluation process runs parallel and in reverse to the implementation. This parallel function is central as it claims that every evaluation of a policy has also to be monitored through the implementation stages. This monitoring process should start at the final, or outcome, stage and should be traceable through each implementation stage. Without this process in place, the policy analyst can only ascertain whether the policy has not been successfully implemented or not. By tracing the analysis through the reverse cycle, the analyst can determine where, at what stage and what level, the implementation was ineffectual. For the Victorian Colonial Government's Physical Training policy framework the policy makers, or politicians, had decided to create patriotism and citizenship amongst young people. Military drill and cadet corps were used as vehicles for implementation of the policy. The outcome of the implementation was three-fold: the first, or observational, stage in the evaluation hierarchy could be easily monitored. The ability to be disciplined and show obedience could be measured. The schools were places where an observer could assess whether order in children had been achieved. The second stage, or phase of
internalisation, is where the activity and the quality of implementation have an effect on the person's own personal view of self. The outcome of self-reliance, self-respect and self-restraint was assumed by the policy makers to result in an attitude of patriotism and citizenship, the third and final level within the policy evaluation model. The opportunity to evaluate the final outcome could be uncertain, depending on a situation arising in which citizenship is a virtue and patriotism is essential to place one's own life behind the national interest.

Table 1: VICTORIAN (COLONIAL) GOVERNMENT'S PHYSICAL TRAINING

POLICY FRAMEWORK 1872

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>state/national level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attitudinal stage</td>
<td>PATRIOTISM &amp; CITIZENSHIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internalised stage</td>
<td>self-reliance self-respect self-restraint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observational stage</td>
<td>DISCIPLINE OBEDIENCE ORDER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Military Drill Cadet Corps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result is order, a situation not to be questioned, only to comply with. The empowering of the lower classes could have only occurred if a boy would have been able to reach the observational stage of self-reliance, self-respect, and self-restraint. It is argued that the unfolding of these personal moral characteristics are part of the making of a higher order, the final stage that could not be achieved in the school. It is immediately bringing the growth of the individual's moral characteristics. The economy and install order into which, since the analysis suggests that patriotism and citizenship do not necessarily result in obedience and an orderly environment. Obedience is at the root of the very being of the people involved. Similarly it does not have to live in a sense of order as military drill into the curricula may be judged to be a convenient strategic way to solve a national problem.
The Victorian Education Act of 1872 was passed by Parliament with the aim of empowering the lower classes, and to remedy social ills. Yet, by assessing the Physical Training policy against the Act, one has to note conflict between the two objectives to empower children from disadvantaged backgrounds and constitute patriotism and citizenship in young people, even if one classifies the policy outcomes in a hierarchical order. The first stage in the implementation process used military drill and the use of commands to achieve obedience. The result is order, a situation not to be questioned, only to comply with. The empowering of the lower classes could have only eventuated if a boy would have been able to miss the observational stage of military characteristics and immediately move to the second level of the hierarchy. By excluding the stage of accepting commands, individual critical thinking in view of the well-being of the country, could have been far more easily developed. The unfolding of self-reliance, self-respect and self-restraint are personal characteristics of a higher order, the final stage that would not be achieved by everyone. It is argued here that these characteristics are essential for personal growth and rudimentary qualities for the kind of empowerment the legislators claimed to seek for the male youth. By immediately blurring the opportunity with military style practices, there was little opportunity to gain personal development encouragement for most young boys. In summary, the choice of military drill was a means to serve the economy and install order into schools, since the analysis suggests that patriotism and citizenship do not necessarily result in obedience and an orderly environment. To achieve empowerment a person does not have to live through a life span where obedience is at the root of the very thinking of the people involved. Similarly it does not necessitate a sense of obedience either. The placing of military drill into the curricula may be judged to be a convenient strategic way to solve a national
economic problem and the inability of school administrators to control the public schools.

All inspectors and most teachers were in favour of the widespread introduction of military drill into the colony's schools. Jones argues that this attitude by educational staff was of prime importance, as the introduction of the subject would not have succeeded without the staff's support.\(^2\)

Victoria was the first colony that opened its schools to military activity in a constant and planned manner. The Department instigated 'specialist' training for its teachers in the National Gymnasium under Gustav Teichow. Assistant instructors were appointed and paid by the Department to provide the link between the colonial school administration and the gymnasium training facility. Certificates of Competency were issued by the education authorities to authorize volunteer instructional staff to teach drill in the schools.

The Rogers-Templeton Report in 1884 became the first commissioned educational Review under the Education Act 1872. The administration, organisation and general condition of education were assessed against the aims and objectives set in the first curriculum. James Ellis, a truant officer, was one of many teachers who were called before the Commission and invited to testify. The Victorian Parliamentary Papers published Ellis' judgement that military drill was badly taught in nearly all schools.

\(^{2}\) Jones, The Military Use of Australian State Schools 1872-1914, op.cit., p.82.
In his opinion, so he continued, the award of 'special certificates' from the National Gymnasium was 'simply a farce'. The Commissioner concluded "...that there was 'a want of discipline', which would only be solved by putting drill into the hands of the Defence Department". This statement by Rogers signifies the beginning of many public calls to open the doors to a non-educational interest group and let education authorities lose the sole right to educating the children.

The Rogers-Templeton Report left its mark in another way in Victoria. A change in policy was gazetted in September 1885. Military drill was to be regarded as an 'ordinary' subject, and free exercises were to become a compulsory addition to marching and squad drills. This composition of exercises was to be called class drill. The change in policy was significant as it embraced all children, not only boys. Military drill was solely reserved for boys while class drill included girls as well. From 1887 onwards, girls no longer were excluded from military practices.

Rogers & Templeton's Review was far reaching. The interest in military drill had planted firm roots within Victorian elementary public schools. The recommendations to support the cadet system may have given further encouragement to decision makers in the Education Department and the military to expand the military training. Public schools followed the trend set in private schools and formed their own cadet corps. The scheme of voluntary military drill in the elementary public schools provided the first formal links between Education and Defence Departments. It had taken three years, between 1884 and 1887, before Rogers-Templeton's judgement

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that only military personnel could effectively implement discipline in schools became reality.

According to documentation available, the opening of class-rooms to the military was welcomed by many teachers. Walter Gamble, one of the Inspectors, expressed an unequivocal view that the state schools' military drill within the cadet corps became an integral part of the physical exercise programmes for schools. He extended his view even further by urging to strengthen the links between the military personnel teaching the subject:

'If the cadet corps system is to flourish in our State Schools, the inspection and disbursements incidental to instruction in military drill in State Schools, should be transferred to the Defence Department, which has the largest number of efficient drill instructors to render assistance in moulding the lads who will form our national army'. 14

In 1888, the Department of Education made the next move. It transferred part of the Physical Training curriculum under military control. The Minister proclaimed that military drill, traditionally inspected by the Education Department's own staff, would in future be '...in the hands of the Defence Department'. 15 It took just over four years to implement the findings of the 1884 Commission Report. The removal of teachers as drill instructors and inspectors for drill was a clear indication that the

Department had carefully taken note of the assessment of the military drill scheme by practising officers of the department. It was not possible to ascertain whether there was strong support expressed outside Parliament by members of the teaching force. It may be assumed that the Commission called on teachers who were known to be supportive of military influence, or even control, in schools to speak up and make their pro-military attitude heard and speak on behalf of their colleagues. There was little resistance. The teachers knew about Walter Gamble's personal views and interest in the Physical Training policy, and as they relied on the inspector’s favourable support, expression against the drill policy could have resulted in losing the livelihood. Thus the Minister of Public Instruction had created an opportunity to aggressively infiltrate the state right to control the elementary education system in the name of national interests.

The pursuing years witnessed some opposition to the rigidly controlled military drill classes. In 1890 the Victorian Male Teachers' Association (VMTA) responded to their members' unrest and lodged a strong request with the Education Department to allow swimming classes for state school pupils.\(^\text{16}\) It was an attempt to 'loosen up' the syllabus and encourage sporting activities in the well-respected curriculum. The Education Department replied very slowly, yet strategically. There was no intention to change the policy framework. The mission to socialise youngsters into patriotism and citizenship remained. The colonial government did not intend to lose control of its overall aim to gain prepared volunteers for military service. Instead, amendments to the implementation policies followed. Almost two years after the Teachers'

\(^{16}\) Victorian Education Department Archives, Classified Headings, Special Case Index 1062, 'Swimming in Schools', 1890.
Associations' proposal to relax the training schedule for drill, the special bonus payment scheme was dropped to teachers of military drill and gymnastics.\textsuperscript{17} However, the teachers did not give up their fight to implement changes to the education of their students. Finally, in March 1893, they were able to meet with the Minister for Public Instruction.\textsuperscript{18} The meeting disclosed that the Minister rejected the proposal and was unwilling to be persuaded. To the contrary, the government sealed the decision with the decree that military drill be included in the 'ordinary routine of every school'. To guarantee that teachers would no longer be trained in the 'rebellious' activities, the Minister ordered the closure of the National Training College. No further training of any kind would be able to take place in the Gymnasium. Gymnastics was considered dangerous to military drill\textsuperscript{19} as it threatened the position of military drill within the curriculum. To eliminate the threat by closing down the source of training seemed to be the easiest solution to the perceived problem.

\textsuperscript{17} V.P.P., vol. 2, 1893, Report of the Minister of Public Instruction 1892-1893, p. xix
\textsuperscript{18} Victorian Education Department Archives, Classified Headings, Special Case Index 1062, March 1893.
\textsuperscript{19} Ibid.
3.2 New South Wales 1860s to 1900

In 1848 New South Wales and Port Phillip came under the auspices of the Board of National Education for the public elementary schools in each part of the colony. With the emergence of this umbrella organisation, the colonies separated the administration of colonial schools from church schools. As mentioned in the previous chapter, it was agreed to uphold similar syllabi in New South Wales and Port Phillip. The British curricula formed the basis of the newly established national education. As will be revealed below, New South Wales and Victoria's rivalry in the area of Physical Training, in later years to be renamed Physical Education, began with the acceptance of the National Board's supervision.

The introduction of military drill and gymnastics into a New South Wales' school programme dates as far back as 1851. William Wilkins can be accredited for the initiative to place in the Fort Street Model School an activity he was trained in and he felt would be advantageous for the pupils. Wilkins had been trained in Britain prior to his arrival in the colony of New South Wales and part of his training at Battersea College had been military drill.\(^{20}\)

The proclamation of the Public Schools Act of 1866 included the formation of the new Council of Education. Jones evaluated the existence of the Council as an obstacle to expand into a more embracing and depersonalised Education Department.\(^{21}\) Henry Parkes, who had introduced the Public Schools Act, similar to

\(^{21}\) Ibid, p.185.
the Common Schools Act in Victoria of 1862, had secured a stronghold on public education. The very fact that the Council of Education had been given the authority of administrating all public elementary schools that received public funding made the Committee a very powerful one. Henry Parkes, as the first Chairman of the Council, resisted many attempts by fellow politicians to develop the Public Schools Act into the Public Instruction Act. Such a move would have established an Education Department far earlier than 1880.

During Parkes' chairmanship and with William Wilkins' greater involvement in the philosophical direction of the Council, military drill was introduced into schools in the colony of New South Wales in 1867. Crawford mentions that the move to allow some physical training into public schools had been taken reluctantly. However, as was reported from Victorian schools, the discipline within the New South Wales schools was as low as in the South. As Crawford claims, military drill was introduced with the intention in mind to improve the discipline in the classroom.\(^{22}\) As can be expected, the acceptance of drill varied within the colony. Each school was inspected twice a year, some were even visited three times at random. Wilkins surrounded himself with inspectors he had recruited from Britain and who had been trained as teachers by him at Fort Street Model School.\(^{23}\) The commencement of drill sessions required a guideline by which the inspectors could judge performance. Between 1867 and 1880 a standard of efficiency was set and followed by teachers and inspectors.

\(^{22}\) Crawford, A History of Physical Education..., op.cit., p.77.

In the colony of New South Wales drill enjoyed a lesser degree of acceptance and weighting than the counterpart subject in Victoria from 1872 onwards. The status of a Schedule One subject attached a sense of importance to the subject. Teachers were paid according to results. Subjects without the Schedule One tag were not necessarily seriously taught, as the teacher would not receive any reward for it. The New South Wales Council of National Education solved the problem of convincing teachers of the importance of the subject in a different way. It should be remembered that the Council made decisions for public schools that were recipients of public money. That meant also, that if a school did not comply with the published guidelines, the Council could have rejected funds for that school. Schools at the time were solely answerable to the Council. Financial necessity would have made any school comply with the regulations. This explains why schools complied with the pressure of the department to accept military drill into their curriculum.

By the time the Public Instruction Act had been given assent in New South Wales in 1880, military drill was well entrenched in the curriculum. The policy model adopted in the colony was identical to the Victorian framework of Physical Training. Again the welfare of the colony was at the centre of concern. Many teachers, similar to the Victorian situation, were concerned about the defence of the colonies. Military drill was seen as the pupils' contribution towards defence. 24 Whether in New South Wales or any other colony on the Australian continent, the threat of military invasion, and the absence of the Imperial Forces, 25 was reported on by newspapers

25 The Imperial government had withdrawn its military defence force from the colony after peace had returned to New Zealand and Britain no longer saw a need to keep its military presence in the colonies. V.P.D., vol 10, 16 June 1870, p. 876.
and politicians, and thus perceived by the general public. The general aim in education was at par with the Victorian counterpart: patriotism and good citizenship should form the nucleus of an overall education. Character building activities would help to achieve these aims. The procedures would remain relatively steady over the next fifty years. So did the general status of Physical Training within the state curricula. The general agreement between states resulted in a very positive spin-off effect. Victoria and New South Wales would engage in a kind of friendly interchange to stimulate each other into policy modifications.

When the Public Instruction Act was passed by the New South Wales colonial government, eight years after the Victorian Education Act 1872, drill and cadet corps were the implementation tools for the overall policy frame of colonial patriotism and exceptional behaviour towards the colony. The Act had retained the status quo of the subject, a non-examinable subject which could be time-tabled whenever ‘practicable’ and was assessed by the teachers as an extra-curricula activity. The Rogers & Templeton Report appeared to respond with the amendment to the implementation policy and declared drill an ‘ordinary’ subject after the Combes and Johnson Reports were discussed in New South Wales. Edward Combes, a member of the New South Wales Legislative Assembly, had been abroad as Commissioner to the Paris Exhibition and had been commissioned to undertake a study of school buildings. Turney mentions that the study Combes tabled in Parliament was far beyond the original brief. Combes' Report sparked off a serious philosophical debate with Erwin Johnson, the Chief Inspector in the newly

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26 Turney, The Rise and Decline of an Australian Inspectorate', op.cit., p.128.
formed Education Department, as the sparring partner. Combes based his views on Froebel's ideas. He warned Parliament not to let children, even as young as pre-school age, develop only one or two faculties at the expense of others. In other words, all elements of education should be taught and equally developed. Combes passionately spoke for a broader physical training for children. He elaborated on a new term: 'movement'.

'*Fröbel noticed that children delighted in movement - in play. They want to be always walking or running or jumping, and tossing their limbs about. Play must therefore be resolved in education...This may be achieved by play, which is the natural occupation and business of the child...Play should be the means of developing the child's intellect without fatiguing him, and also lay the essential foundation for serious education. Children use their senses. therefore means must be contrived to educate these senses...so the result may be an increased quickness and appreciation of observation - of seeing, and hearing, and touching.*'³⁷

It was the first time that a politician spoke in parliament about Physical Education.

In his observation of kindergartens overseas, Combes became witness to a part of education that was not as yet known in Australia. He had understood the very essence of Froebel's teaching:

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²⁷ Ibid, p. 129.
'The great principle...is, to convert the activity, the energy, and amusement of children - in short everything that goes by the name of play - into instruments of education'.\textsuperscript{28}

Combes' broader vision of physical activity included gymnastics and health education. His travels in Europe also highlighted the fact that girls were intensely involved in Physical Education in Western Europe. Upon his return to New South Wales, Combes appeared totally out of social context when he became a spokesperson for the introduction of Physical Education for girls.

The movement to liberalise the traditional and narrow concept of 'drill' could no longer be delayed. It was only a matter of time before pressure would be strong enough to force the Minister for Public Instruction to make amendments to the implementation of physical exercise delivery. Many teachers in the public elementary schools found themselves in a conflict situation. On one hand, the recommendations by Combes were in harmony with community experience and increased interest in play and games. On the other hand, the Chief Inspector praised the pro-disciplinary character of drill and expected inspectors and teachers to adhere to Department policy. Teachers who were participating in military drill were rewarded with recommendations to the Education Department.

While the Education Department remained committed to the military drill and every metropolitan school practised the training, Mulholland, who had been trained in the National Gymnasium under Gustav Techow, expanded his enthusiasm to liberalise the traditional and narrow concept of 'drill'. Contrary to Techow, he placed emphasis

\textsuperscript{28} Ibid, p. 130.
on callisthenics, and the use of simple apparatus combined with physical exercises.\textsuperscript{29}

It cannot be ascertained within this study whether Mulholland had been studying other education systems in other parts of the world. It is suggested here that Mulholland was strongly influenced by either the American school system or the British curricula. In the 1820s, the Americans had already introduced into their school curricula in Boston and New York full callisthenics and gymnastics programmes,\textsuperscript{30} and the British curricula, of course, provided the origin of callisthenics for the British based education systems.

Captain Mulholland embodied the contradictory streams of educational thought in physical training at the time. He was the Superintendent of drill to the New South Wales Department of Public Instruction and within that role supported the governmental forces to maintain drill as the implementation tool for discipline in schools. He was also an officer of the military and was, as such, educated in that tradition. Drill was only one part of the military training. To maintain fitness and boost morale amongst the troops, as well as take boredom out of military life, the military had the resources and interest to encourage sport and games.\textsuperscript{31} Mulholland was also sensitive to demands for changes and aware of educational developments elsewhere. He used his position and his life-experience to speak openly against government implementation policy. He was brave by expressing public and teacher sentiments for physical training in the New South Wales Education Gazette:

\textsuperscript{29} Crawford, A History of Physical Education..., op.cit., p.147.
\textsuperscript{30} Hackensmith, op.cit., p. 334.
\textsuperscript{31} Cashman, op.cit., p. 19.
It is the body as well as the mind which we educate, and we should not attempt to train one to the neglect of the other. Physical training should not be confined to the school room. To train children properly, amusing games should be devised for playground exercises, and such as will cultivate kindly affections... Give the child plenty of fun, plenty of real, hearty, innocent fun. 32

Mulholland had adopted Combes' recommendation in the mid-eighties and had been an advocate for the introduction of gymnastics into the curriculum for many years. Crawford, in his study, focusses on Mulholland and comments on the fact that as late as 1889 the Minister rejected Mulholland's recommendations for a more relaxed syllabus. Crawford's research did not assess the placing of military drill under the control of the Defence Department in Victoria and the re-positioning of the New South Wales School Cadet Force under military control in 1889 in New South Wales. It is assumed in this study that the cooperation between military personnel in Victoria and New South Wales, and the Minister for Public Instruction in both states, was favourable and in full agreement with each other. The Ministers of Public Instructions in both colonies would have assessed the defence, political as well as economic position at the time. The Departments did not move away from their policy and the implementation strategies of military drill and cadet training. Throughout the decades the concern about wars being fought overseas at various times and in various war theatres, would not have eased. The defence possibilities had not changed, nor had the economic standing. The shift happened in the social arena from where the educational policy would have been perceived under threat. Mulholland represented his office and incorporated the social attitude with a demand

32 vol. 2, no 9, 1 February 1893, p. 166.
for change. His vision and steadfastness in values and beliefs is understood in this research to be the vital force behind New South Wales' decision to tighten up only the rules for the cadet corps\textsuperscript{33}, and not for military drill.

Officially the military drill in the public elementary schools received a new impetus at the same time. 'Standards of proficiency' marks were awarded to the subject, 'equal in value to those given to other important branches of learning'.\textsuperscript{34} In reality, so Crawford laments, the marks allocated to the subject were not at all equal. He quotes a teacher, Mandelson, who insisted that the allocation rated 2 for reading, writing and arithmetic and 1 for military drill.\textsuperscript{35} Since one cannot assume that the Education Department made a mistake, it is interpreted here that the allocation of half of the possible marks to the subject was a compromise to pressures from all sides without admitting it.

A change of curriculum direction, but not policy, was quietly happening in New South Wales during the 1890s. The progress towards a broader interpretation of physical training in elementary schools started with the formation of the Public Schools' Amateur Athletic Association in 1889. Swimming classes were conducted outside schools. When the education authorities were approached for permission to close classes earlier to attend swimming activities, schools did not encounter any difficulties after 1892. By 1897 swimming had gained such popularity by school children and staff that a total of 12,000 enrolments in clubs were recorded. Combes'\textsuperscript{35}

\textsuperscript{33} The New South Wales Cadet Force, Report of the Minister of Public Instruction 1889, p. 19.
\textsuperscript{34} Crawford, A History of Physical Education..., op.cit., p. 93.
\textsuperscript{35} Ibid.
recommendations, supported by the Chief Superintendent of Drill, gained momentum in the New South Wales school population: the first girls felt encouraged enough to join clubs and become members of swimming teams. The year 1898 is the foundation year for two milestones in Primary School sport carnivals where boys and girls competed in non-military activities. Firstly, it can be recorded as the first swimming season for school interclub competition. The response was overwhelming. Thousands of children took part within the colony. The second was a breakthrough for the New South Wales Elementary School Amateur Athletics Association (later called PSAAA) The previous decade had seen a steady growth and increase in enthusiasm by pupils, parents and teachers. Strong competition had been enjoyed. Inter-colonial competition was a level of progression which was expected in community sporting activities. Therefore it was not surprising when Southwell, the Secretary of the PSAAA met with the Victorian Minister of Public Instruction to gain permission to collaborate with his Victorian counterparts.36 A successful meeting paved the ground for the formation of Victorian clubs and, ultimately, school competition between the two colonies. The century ended in New South Wales with an unexpected change in attitude by one key player who had a major influence on the history of Physical Education in the state of New South Wales until 1912. Colonel Paul who occupied the twin office of school cadet movement and 'ordinary' drill had been an ardent defender of military drill as a military force controlled subject. Any attempt to weaken that position had been fought rigorously in the past. The Colonel's sudden attention to callisthenic exercises and use of light dumb-bells and wands, as well as girls participating in physical training sessions,

36 Victorian Education Department Classified Correspondence, 1885-1901, memorandum from Southwell, 1896. VPRS, Special Case Files 1853-1976, 892/80/1359.
was congruent with the previous explanation that the colonial government made concessions in order to retain control of the total exercise programme. As will be revealed at a later stage, the Commonwealth and state governments will reaffirm their control, and confirm their educational policies, once the new Commonwealth of Australia had been established.
3.3 1901–1931. The Years of Extensive, Versified Military Influence

At the beginning of Federation, Victorian and New South Wales' education in physical training started on a similar premise: a strong military philosophy permeated the Physical Education system. In both states, children were taught from military drill textbooks which had been devised and adopted for the purpose of school teaching. In addition, the textbooks available for teaching had a distinct British flavour as they were publications from the military in Britain.37 Thus, the pupils were influenced physically, as well as intellectually and emotionally, by the Commonwealth, resulting in a strong bond with British nationalistic thinking. The Commonwealth also addressed children's socialisation with a school reader. The Commonwealth School Paper was published monthly between 1904 and 1915 and was regarded as a supplementary, thought provoking, reading source.38 The publications were vetted by the Department of Public Instruction under the supervision of the Chief Inspector. One may call it a joint publication, as the direct input by the education authority cannot be separated.

While the Commonwealth retained tight control on the physical and health education of children, the states pursued what they called their own agendas. The New South Wales Education Department prescribed its own choice of text book to the teaching staff. Peter Board, the new Director of Education, considered Colonel Paul an expert

37 Crawford, A History of Physical Education..., op.cit., p.65.
in the field of physical training and selected the manual written by him *School Drill and Physical Training* in 1904.\textsuperscript{39} R.J.W. Selleck sums up the new state's political platform:

There was little doubt in S.H. Smith's \textsuperscript{40} mind as to what view of England and the Empire his young readers should take, whether they found it in history or geography. The public school pupil was to be presented with the assumption of a particular kind of colonial patriotism, politically conservative and socially respectable...\textsuperscript{41}

The values of the Department of Public Instruction could not have been more clearly expressed. The Director of Education, Peter Board, the spokesperson for public education at the time, regarded the schools of the future as 'the nurseries of the nation's morality' and 'its training grounds for national defence'.\textsuperscript{42}

This policy statement, summarising the Education Department's attitude and direction re physical training in public elementary schools for the last decade, was published shortly before Prime Minister Andrew Fisher's call for a national conference on physical training in Australian schools. Whether Peter Board was proactive and publicly made it clear that he intended to cooperate with the Commonwealth prior to the invitation cannot be investigated as part of this thesis.

\textsuperscript{39} Crawford, A History of Physical Education..., op.cit., p. 275.
\textsuperscript{40} Stephen Henry Smith was the editor of the *Commonwealth School Papers* after 1908 and later became Director of Education for New South Wales.
\textsuperscript{42} *Public Instruction Gazette*, 27 February 1909, p. 33.
What can be argued is that there was an acknowledgment of a wider agenda. Within the context of the subject discipline, this agenda was evidenced in approval of Commonwealth intervention through the Defence Act 1903-10.

Victoria did not respond by imposing a new teacher reference book. The schools acted on the revised British syllabus of 1902 and strengthened the stronghold of military drill in the schools. The end of the Boer War had meant an increased alertness to national defence requirements, which usually decreased the farther the dangers were perceived to have eased. The Victorian schools were issued with the revised *British Syllabus on Physical Training* when Gertrud Anderson became the first organiser of Physical Training in the Victorian Education Department in 1909. The British curriculum remained the major teaching document until the end of the Second World War. Victoria had joined New South Wales to retain the British tradition.

The first thirty years after Federation became one of the most vibrant eras in the history of Physical Education in Australia. One can look back to that time and view it as the preparation time for changes happening in the 1970s. There are three forces running parallel with each other and also affecting each other. One is the progression in Victoria, another New South Wales' development and the third, the Commonwealth, which was between the two, acting on both together and/or independently and interchangeably.

During the period of 1901 and 1931, the Commonwealth was in full control of the Physical Training of girls and boys, although no power was granted officially to the
Commonwealth government. As Blake argues, each state carefully guarded its education activities. Tannock claims that the Commonwealth's active steering of the elementary involvement for Physical Training in public schools arose out of concern for national defence. Tannock's argument is in line with the previous discussion, where the government was quoted as actively seeking goals for national defence and citizenship. The essence of the Commonwealth's intention and the very nature of the curriculum area of Physical Training singled out the subject and made its role unique in Australian education.

The Commonwealth changed its education policy between 1909 and 1910. Two major concerns guided the policy: national health and demands of national development and national defence.

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43 Blake, op.cit., confirm p. 653.
Table 2: COMMONWEALTH POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR BOYS’ PHYSICAL TRAINING 1910

Evaluation

- attitudinal stage
- internalised stage
- observational stage

National Defence & National Health

- self-reliance
- self-respect
- self-restraint

DISCIPLINE
- OBEDIENCE
- ORDER

PRIORITY
- Military Drill
- Cadet Corps

POLICY
- NATIONAL DEFENCE
- NATIONAL HEALTH

Implementation
- state/national level
- school level

The policy framework had been changed from the 1872 model. Patriotism and citizenship were exchanged with national health and national defence ability. The Commonwealth consolidated its place in the elementary school system through concerns for the physical condition of school children. The health status of Australian children would remain a prime interest for the federal government. Health conditions are closely interlinked with an ability to serve in the Armed Forces. A young man declared unfit would be rendered unsuitable to defend the country or come to the rescue of a friendly country. By taking the initiative and setting a policy
and implementing it, the Commonwealth fulfilled another constitutional responsibility. Section 51 (VI) of the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution stipulates that the Federal government has the obligation to provide for national defence. Hence once Federation had been achieved the Commonwealth passed its first Defence Act in 1903, with amendments in 1909.\[^{45}\] in the House of Representatives by the then Minister for Defence, Joseph Cook. As detailed in chapter 2, the Bill contained extensive provision for cadet training. From July 1911 onwards the schools, public and private, were to cooperate in the physical training programme, by registering each junior and senior cadet and make staff available for military training.

As soon as the individual Education Departments had agreed with the Commonwealth to introduce the Junior Cadet Training scheme and to leave the training under the control of the Defence Department, the states of New South Wales and Victoria emerged into a time of newly experienced activity. Massive teacher preparation was conducted under the supervision of the Commonwealth Military Forces. The newly appointed Director for Physical Education, Bjelke-Petersen, was to liaise with the Director of Education to ensure adequately trained staff in every public elementary school around the nation. Assistants would be appointed in all states to provide the necessary links between Commonwealth, states and schools.

At the 1910 second Australian Conference on Education, delegates were aware that the decision to massively introduce a national cadet programme would leave the

\[^{45}\] CPD, 21 September, 1909.
majority of school children outside the scheme. The archival documentation manifested a recommendation that the primary curriculum should make some provision for 'a system of physical training for all school boys and girls respectively'.

New South Wales had not followed the recommendation in the Knibbs-Turner Report to include 'physical culture and gymnastics' into the school syllabus. At the time, in 1904, it had not agreed with Knibbs on his concern for the children's health and physical development, but now the government 'followed' Commonwealth demands and incorporated swimming into the school programme. Swimming also received a great boost in Victoria. Frank Beaurepaire's own personal vigour and determination encouraged children to learn to swim. He planned his campaigns very carefully. He formed committees, arranged for competent teaching, scheduled training classes and, as an elite athlete, also instructed future instructors and gave countless demonstrations. The Melbourne Herald sponsored Beaurepaire and the Victorian Physical Education Branch's Learn-to-Swim campaign by providing funds to engage instructors and issue certificates. Thousands of children would for decades aim to have a "Herald" rewarded to them. The certificate attested that the youngster was competent enough to swim 25m uninterrupted. Frank Beaurepaire would in the 1950s become Victoria's most distinguished personal sponsor to swimming. His enthusiasm culminated in an expansion of swimming for which Victorian educational change advocates had hoped and fought for years.

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The twenty years before World War II were exciting and challenging to females. The 'expansion policy' by the Commonwealth, readily adopted by the states, started to acknowledge women as professionals in the field of Physical Education. Several women were placed in positions of responsibility and were able to assert their influence. Although only a few women had surged ahead and had become well trained in the discipline of physical culture at the time, suddenly there was an opening for their expertise. Victoria led the way when Gertrud Anderson was appointed Organiser of Physical Training. She also was put in charge of the newly established Physical Education Branch in 1911. Rosalie Virtue joined her in 1912 to promote swimming amongst female teachers and assist in the development of dance in the state. Virtue's addition to the Physical Education Branch personnel enforced the new policy to implement swimming and dance into every syllabus at elementary level. Thus, the implementation phase in the policy model was officially altered and widened in its approach.

World War I had also a profound effect on Physical Training in New South Wales. The absence of men in the community gave women a chance to prove themselves. In 1915 women teachers were admitted for the first time in a Junior Cadet Training course. When the enrolment of women for the course was very slow, the District Inspector noted to Peter Board, the Director of Education, that women may be reluctant to spend two weeks of their holidays in a teacher education course. He may have seen it as a favour to women to do the course in their own spare time, while their male counterparts, in the past, had been released from teaching duties. Board
could not understand that the female teachers would not jump to the opportunity.\footnote{NSW State Archives, Cadet Drill. Box 20/12532, Action File no 14/3598, reference 10/12.14*100030.} Rapid changes marked the years following the Great War. New South Wales followed Victoria's example and appointed a female teacher in the position of Inspector for Physical Culture. Ella Gormley would take on a leading role as an educator for physical culture and dance in both states, New South Wales and Victoria. After her return from the US and Britain, equipped with a new MA in Physical Education, gained from Columbia University in New York, and several certificates in Greecian and Dalcroze exercises and dance, Gormley conducted the first National Training course for women in 1921. Women from all over Australia were sent to Sydney to be updated in dance and physical culture. The finance for the inservice came from the defence department and part of the course was military drill, conducted by the Army. \footnote{E. Gill, \textit{ACHPER First Symposium}, 1980, pp. 172-173.} The women teachers' return to their states marked a more common approach to Physical Education in the various state departments.

New South Wales and Victoria diversified their interests during the 1930s. With the abolition of defence money and withdrawal of defence personnel during the depression, both education systems became freed from Commonwealth oppression for the first time. The physical training of boys came to a stand-still. New programmes had to be devised to address needs, interest and expectations.

The Ramsey-Johnson Report (1936) commissioned by the Victorian state department recommended a desperate need for training of teachers in the discipline of Physical
Education. Melbourne University opened its door in 1937 to a new faculty of Physical Education and appointed Dr Fritz Duras as its first Head of Department. The training of Physical Education teachers in the country was assured. New South Wales chose to approach the professionalisation of Physical Education from a different perspective. The Education Department appointed a Director specialised in Physical Education. This position would become a centre key and a link back to the Commonwealth influence.

With the threat of a new war in Europe, the call for a stronger defence force became louder and with it the renewed assessment of children's physical health. As in the past, the health standards were reported to be rather dismal. The blame was put on the education system, as state departments had resisted the attempt by the Commonwealth to bring back the military drill into the class room. The educational changes had been far too strong to revert back to the narrow, discipline driven and child-alienating approach of the past. There was also national concern for the depression-ravaged children. The Commonwealth therefore set up a National Fitness Advisory Council to focus on the health of children and adults. The Director of Physical Education in New South Wales, Gordon Young, was placed in a dual role between state and national interests when his position secured him automatic membership of the National Fitness Council.

The passing of the National Fitness Act in 1941 once again placed the Federal government into the centre position in Physical Education. The framework policy was revised. As the result, the policy, as stated in 1939, was modified to war time conditions. For the brief period of four years, the policy intention was narrowed to
the criterion of National Health. Physical Education, in conjunction with the National Fitness Council, from primary school onwards, included camps and military drill to enforce the notion of discipline, obedience and order. These were objectives from the past, which, as in 1941, highlighted the evaluation criterion of passing the military entrance test. The variation in implementation between the early twentieth century policy was that the Commonwealth no longer insisted in bringing military personnel into schools to train the children. In 1941, the implementation phases became the responsibilities of state departments and schools with which the Commonwealth intended to collaborate.

By the time Australia returned to a peaceful civilian life-style again in 1945, the 1939 policy to improve the fitness of young Australians was reinstated. Each state department had set up a viable structure in which Physical Education programmes could be planned and implemented. Leading personnel in Victoria and New South Wales had embodied educational trends with which to enrich the Australian Physical Education scene. In Melbourne and Sydney universities had agreed to train professionals in the new discipline. The Commonwealth had promised to foster children’s health and had enhanced this commitment with a policy. There is no indication that the states opposed the invasion of their state right. To the contrary, the states consented by accepting the funds from the Commonwealth National Fitness Council. The plans proposed by the National Health Department made it easy for the New South Wales’ and Victorian Education Departments to follow directions, and by doing so, ensured the inclusion of the subject in the curricula. In addition, the following discussions about the content and the teaching standard employed in the subject will reveal later that the Commonwealth’s policy provided
the impetus for the advancement of the disciplines of Physical Education and Recreation. No individual state would have been able to foster Physical Education without a visionary plan and massive funding. New South Wales and Victoria were ready to implement the Commonwealth’s overall policy.
3.4 Summary

At the turn of the century, physical exercise classes in New South Wales and Victoria showed small, but distinct differences in curriculum design and status. In both colonies very little serious consideration had been given by governments and Departments of Public Instruction to the role of physical training in meeting the needs of children. That is partly a sign of the time. Children generally were viewed as small adults and their needs, especially in the motor domain, were not acknowledged. The science of Psychology and the study of children’s growth and development pattern were not as yet the focus of attention.

This research suggests that the early governments of Victoria and New South Wales had consciously steered the physical training of children towards the military. This approach lifted the teaching subject out of the jurisdiction of the colonial governments. It is the only subject for which national interests conflicted with state rights. It appears that both governments collaborated with each other, or supported each other, when the original framework for the overall policy was planned. Military drill for boys, and later on for girls, had a very important role to play within the curriculum. The policy model for Physical Training, developed for the Victorian Education Act 1872, and later adopted by the New South Wales Public Instruction Act, decided the direction for the physical training in public elementary schools for the subsequent forty years. It became the leading document well into Federation. The model was retained in its entirety until 1910, when the policy was reviewed and

modified. A shift in policy goals and consequently outcomes can be identified as significant. As patriotism and citizenship were the major goals and outcomes in the 1872 policy model, these objectives were changed in the 1910 model: into support for National Defence and concern for the health status of children. Attention has to be paid to the occurrence of the second goal, the health of the pupils. From this time on, health will be part of every Physical Education policy formulated by the Commonwealth. The 1910 model provided the foundation from where the importance would gain momentum.

However, the inclusion of health into the policy did not change the curricula at school level. The objectives and outcomes anticipated by the policy makers were not made known to the teachers nor were the curricula changed. This meant that the methods assessed at implementation level (military drill and cadet corps) were retained, so were the overall outcomes, measured at the observational level (self-reliance, self-respect ad self-restraint). Military drill still dominated the exercises in the Physical Education syllabus. Only minor variations in policies were recorded by the states over the next decades. The modifications were introduced as amendments at the implementation level. The outcome of the policy was consistent, never revoked. The tools for implementation varied according to levels of social and economic pressure.
CHAPTER 4

PUTTING POLICY INTO ACTION:

VICTORIA 1945 – 1969

By the time World War II had been won by the Allied Forces of Britain, the United States of America, the USSR and France, and civilian life was able to return to peace time conditions in Australia, the education system in Victoria was phased into a new era. Preparations for an Australian based syllabus had been in progress for decades by the staff of the Victorian Physical Education Branch. Once the emphasis had been moved away from war activities, staff at the Branch was able to focus on the future.

In pre-war years Physical Education had experienced a newly found recognition. In 1934 the Physical Education Branch had been officially established. The Centre had been opened at the time when a new syllabus had been published in the Education Gazette. The prescribed programme was a combination of the 1933 British Syllabus of Physical Training from the Board of Education in London\(^1\) and plans and ideas that had been devised by Rosalie Virtue and her staff in the Centre. With the dispensation of the army organisation in Victorian Physical Training, the boys in the state primary schools had been left without an organising.\(^2\) It took the Victorian Education Department seven years before a decision was made, to appoint Mr. Lambert G. (Huck) Hamilton to the position of Assistant Organiser. Huck Hamilton

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\(^1\) Victorian Education Department (ny), *Centenary of State School 2365. 1881-1981. A Short History of the Physical Education Branch*, Melbourne, p. 3.

\(^2\) Blake, op. cit., p. 996.
had been working with male students at the Melbourne Teachers' College since the late 1920s. He had developed a strong expertise in Physical Education for boys. Once the military had left the educational scene, and Captain Dickens had been replaced by one of the College staff, Walter Don, the army influence had been slowly substituted with exercises directed towards the children's interests and geared towards providing fun, not army drill. The 1934 syllabus made a beginning to changes that would dominate the twenty years following the Second World War. The Education Department acknowledged Rosalie Virtue's professional vigour and dedication when she was appointed Organiser of Physical Education, which included control of swimming, in 1939. She and her staff of twenty-two steered the Physical Education Branch through the war years\(^3\) to ensure a good Physical Education programme for the children.

4.1 The New Organisational Structure in 1945

By 1945 the organisation of Physical Education, and the forces impinging upon the Education Department for a curriculum that would serve the many interests, had become increasingly complex. From a two player situation, the Department for Public Instruction and the Armed Forces, presiding over the physical activity programmes in state schools, the mid-nineteen forty reality saw one major player, the Commonwealth, using several drawing cards to impact on the Victorian Education Department's Physical Education syllabus. Important for this discussion is the realisation that the Victorian Education Department was far removed from being the sole decision-maker in all educational areas. The change in Physical Education policy in 1938 included the Health Departments at federal and state levels, the National Fitness Councils and as an external source, the universities. All of them were contributing to the planning, philosophy and programme setting. In Physical Education, the intervention of the Commonwealth government was constant and therefore of paramount importance. When the education of Victorian young people was put under review in 1945, the Commonwealth had established its stronghold in Physical Education.

As mentioned earlier the Education Department was the responsibility of each state. The Minister for Education was at the helm, and responsible for the organisation as a whole. That person was accountable to the state Legislative Assembly. The Director for Education headed the Education Department, providing the link between parliament and the organisational body for state education. Since education was the constitutional responsibility of the state, Treasury would be in control of running an
efficient department. All funds would be centrally allocated to grants made available for special projects. In the case of Victoria around 1945, and in Physical Education particularly, the Commonwealth was subsidising the state and supporting Victoria in a fitness campaign with various grants. As part of the envisaged National Fitness Act 1941, the Commonwealth Menzies Liberal government had informed the six states on 12th July 1939, that it was to make £100,000 (at rate of £20,000 a year) available for a nation-wide fitness campaign. During the following conference of State Ministers of Health chaired by the national Health Minister, the Commonwealth accepted the recommendations of the conference, which were as follows:

a) £1,000 p.a. to each state National Fitness Council for organisation and administration expenses
b) £2,000 p.a. each to the Universities of Sydney and Melbourne, £1,500 p.a. each to the Universities of Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth, £1,000 p.a. to the University of Hobart - for establishment of lectureships in Physical Education
c) balance of amount (£4,500 p.a.) to be allocated by the Commonwealth Minister for Health. (On 21.8.1940, the Minister approved of a further £500 p.a. to each of the State National Fitness Councils).  

Prior to the announcement of a national Fitness campaign to the individual states, the Commonwealth government had been very cautious in not making information available to the two Houses. On 3 May 1939, the Opposition Leader John Curtin had to ask the Prime Minister during Question Time whether or not it was a fact that the government had established a national coordinating council for physical fitness. The nature of the Council apparently was not known by the Opposition either, at least it

\[4\] Memorandum from T. Forristal, Accountant, to The Director of Finance, VPRS 892 Education Department of Victoria, Special Case Files, 1853-1976, 81/ 1359 / P42/2172 (14.7.1942).
had not been expressed in either House previously. There was no debate on the issue because, firstly, question time did not allow for a dialogue of ideas and plans. Secondly, the members of the House of Representatives seemed to be quite content about the answers given by the Prime Minister, otherwise there would have been an opportunity at a later stage to request a discussion in the House. 'Yes', the Prime Minister replied, 'a Council had been set up under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Health and Social Services, Sir Frederick Stewart'. Immediately Menzies was able to recall by name, not position, all the members invited onto the Council and responded swiftly to the request to detail reasons for the establishment of the Council. Motives ranged from the concern of individual fitness to paying attention to health aspects like hygiene, nutrition, and remedial and corrective training. Two aspects of his plan, outlined in his answer during that particular question time, were omitted in later communication: firstly, the intention to set up a national register for trained personnel and secondly, to prepare the young to assist political allies if need arose. The national register was to include teachers who would be educated from National Fitness campaign grants in the six identified university departments and in in-service courses instigated and staffed by the Education Department. The former would be graduates with a Diploma in Physical Education and the latter holders of Certificates of Competency in Physical Education. This task of registration may have been perceived as being too difficult to coordinate and administer. The training of Physical Education and fitness personnel was too diversified between all six states. The main aim was to establish courses. Streamlining and determining requirements

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5 Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates, (CPD) vol. 159 (3.5.1939), p. 79.
6 ibid.
7 The proposal to register certificate, diploma or degree holders was first recommended by Alan Ramsay and Meg Johnson in their Physical Education in Victoria Report, commissioned in 1935 and published 1937. A full appraisal will be included later.
for registration was nobody's responsibility. In addition, at a time where databanks were non-existent, to develop a national registration protocol was virtually impossible. It should not be forgotten that 1939 marked the beginning of WWII. A national registry would not have made the priority list for any government in office at the time.

Attention should be paid to the second justification by the government for the introduction of the National Fitness Committee, again only mentioned once in parliament. Menzies reasoned the initiation of the Fitness campaign during a Parliamentary debate on the 3rd of May 1939, one week after he had been elected Prime Minister: ⁸

...to coordinate the efforts of organisations which are now or may be later working for allied purposes, and to assist and supplement their efforts where desirable and possible. ⁹

It is suggested that this statement should be read in the light of the looming outbreak of the war. Prime Minister Menzies, new in office since 26 April 1939, of course was fully aware of the possibility of war and Australia's obligation to Britain. The apparent lack of fitness of Australian youths has been discussed previously. Every government since white settlement had lamented the lack of fitness without being privy to the scientific know-how of assessment, and had used this deficiency as a lever to introduce military training. Only as late as 1938/39, the School Medical

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⁸ Since the sudden death of J.A. Lyons on 7 April, 1939, the UAP-CP coalition faced upheaval. When on April 18, R.G. Menzies was elected new leader of the United Australia Party (UAP), the leader of the Country Party and Care-taker P.M., Earl Page, refused to form a government with the UAP. One week later, on 26 April, Menzies formed a new ministry and became the new Prime Minister.

⁹ Menzies had previously referred to purposes like to develop community and individual appreciation for physical well-being, to provide opportunity and essential facilities and to adapt physical education for each stage in life, ibid.
Service in Victoria gathered the first health research results. It gave both governments, Commonwealth and Victorian, a chance to base their claims on health facts, not fiction. The criteria of, and procedures undertaken by, the survey cannot now be ascertained, so the question of validity remains unanswered. Nevertheless, the Prime Minister had used an opportune moment in Parliament to state an open case for his government's intention to determine other purposes for the national fitness campaign at a later stage.

Interesting to note here is that on the first Council, two out of ten positions were held by high-ranking Armed Forces officers. The members of Parliament in the House of Representatives at that time, or later, did not request the explanation for the inclusion of military personnel. It may have been self-evident to the sitting members after Curtin had asked the Prime Minister whether the government had decided to provide halls with all kinds of gymnastics equipment, also for the use of those who had enlisted in the Army. Menzies had responded in the affirmative, as a matter of cause, making it quite clear that the military would be included in the fitness drive. It was thus a logical conclusion that the military would be represented on the National Council to oversee the campaign and continue with the tradition to guide physical activity for children in the country.

The diagram below (Table 3) encapsulates the structure of the Australian National Fitness campaign and the forces exerted on the Physical Education programmes in Victoria. Grants had been made available by the Minister for Health and Social Service for three target organisations: the state National Fitness Council to promote

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10 special reference to the 1938/39 findings will be made at a later stage when the Report of the Departmental Committee on Physical Education will be discussed.
fitness and healthy living in the community, the Education Department for the training of teachers in Physical Education and Health and sound Physical Education programmes to enhance fitness and well-being, and the University of Melbourne, to train specialist Physical Education teachers.

Table 3: Commonwealth Grant structure for National Fitness Campaign - organisational structure

In addition, the Federal Health Department had made funds available to the Victorian Health authority to establish, in conjunction with the Physical Education Branch, a Remedial Physical Education programme.\footnote{More detail will be discussed at a later stage.} The holistic approach to Physical Education was put into practice for the first time. Physical Education programmes for school children were placed in the centre. Training of specialist teachers was centralised in one university\footnote{With the exception of Sydney where the Sydney Teachers' College became the sole professional training centre for the state.} in each state. The course was taught over two years. The third year requested future teachers to attend one year of teacher training at the Teachers' College. Each year a cohort of teachers would be leaving the training
institutions to take up positions in primary schools. The Physical Education Branch members were to coordinate the teaching of programmes in Primary schools and in the Remedial Physical Education Centres, and also develop syllabi for Victorian schools. There were also a number of practising teachers in Primary schools who were requesting training in Physical Education and Health. Classes for a proposed Certificate of Competency in Physical Education were advertised for the first time in the May 1940 Education Gazette, calling for training in theory and practice of Physical Education and Swimming and Life-saving. In the following year, the new practice of training teachers 'in house' for Physical Education, Health and Swimming/Lifesaving was enshrined in the revised edition of New Regulations and General Instructions 1941, a book of guidance compiled for the information of teachers, school councils, and school committees. The Education Department and the Health Department were to combine their expertise and have school medical practitioners refer children with postural defects to the Remedial Centre for Physical Education staff to teach them in specially designed courses. The National Fitness Council was to coordinate activities in the local community and establish camp sites and train youth leaders. The setting of programmes and training of staff were entirely left to the Fitness Council of each state. As part of the overseeing function, the National Committee in Canberra monitored all activities conducted by the state branches around the country.

14 From 1940 onwards, every year the Physical Education Branch advertised classes of instruction to assist teachers to qualify for the Certificate of Competency.
15 Proficiency Certificate in Physical Education was listed as part of a group of subjects in Regulation IV (D), point 4, p.4; while Regulation XIII (F) was solely addressing the Certificate of Competency in Swimming and Life-Saving, p. 20.
4.2 The revised Physical Education policy 1939

The records of the Commonwealth Parliamentary Debate in the House of Representatives on 3rd of May 1939 outlined very clearly the new Physical Education policy the new Menzies' Liberal government was about to introduce. It included all ingredients of a policy where the federal government followed its mission to guide the nation and make decisions for the good of the nation and her citizens. It stated the overall objective, outlined the implementation and stipulated the desired outcomes. The Prime Minister's answer to the Opposition Leader's question in regards to the apparent establishment of a National Fitness Council was crucial. The government outlined a very substantive campaign taking care of the key aspects of activity programmes in schools, recreation in the community, health education at school and teacher training. It was the first time since the introduction of the Victorian Education Bill in 1872 that physical activity was redefined by the government to Physical Education and that the single-minded military emphasis of the subject area was eliminated. Subsequently the Education Department would operate under a new policy. It should be remembered at this point, that at the time the Menzies' government discussed the introduction of a Fitness campaign for children, World War II was only months away. It can be assumed that the Australian government was aware of the German military threat and was preparing for military aid of the United Kingdom. To remove the military tone from physical education in schools at such a

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16 After J.A. Lyons' sudden death on April 7, 1939, R.G. Menzies was elected leader of the United Australia Party (18.4.39) and became Prime Minister on April 29, 1939.
17 The change of terminology from 'physical activity' to 'physical education' was gradual over recent years. The Victorian Report of Departmental Committee on Physical Education acknowledged the shift in emphasis (some may call it philosophy) from 'activity' to 'educational'. The Committee expressed agreement with the view. Report of the Departmental Committee on Physical Education, detailed in Memorandum from Dr. E.L. Leach (EL), Assistant Chief Inspector, to the Director of Education, Mr. J.A. Seitz (JAS), 26.11.1942, p. 2, Victorian Education Department Classified Correspondence, 1853-1901, VPRS, Special Case Files 1853-1976, 892/80/1359.
crucial time may therefore be interpreted as a tactical move to guarantee the introduction of the twin programme into schools and the communities.

The following Table number four delineates the new Physical Education policy, expressed in the National Fitness Campaign, as the federal government intended to implement the policy via the nation-wide fitness drive. As in the past, the national government took it upon itself to lead the states into a nation-wide approach and

**Table 4:** The new Physical Education policy 1939 - the Commonwealth’s perspective as interpreted by the Victorian government in the 1940s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>PHYSICAL FITNESS &amp; HEALTH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attitudinal stage</td>
<td>appreciation of well being, seeking facilities regard for own health self-reliance, self-restraint, self-respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internalised stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observational stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implementation**

Physical Education Programme - Nat. Fitness Council

TO IMPROVE THE FITNESS OF YOUNG AUSTRALIANS

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**Footnotes:****

11 Ibid.
initiate a policy that would cater for all Australian children, irrespective of state of residence. The National Fitness Act in 1941 therefore represents an exceptional role in the educational agreement between the Commonwealth and the states. Unnoticed to educational analysts, the subject of Physical Education continued to be the one subject in the state educational system that was directly steered by the Commonwealth. The methods of control being used were funding for the states that catered for training of personnel, development of programmes and providing leisure activities for children during school hours and during leisure time.

A shift from the previous policy, to educate children for good citizenship and patriotism, to a broader policy of maintenance and improvement in fitness, was reiterated in an entry in the Education Gazette during 1941. In an instruction for teachers to train children in good citizenship, it was only cautiously suggested to utilise group sport meetings for effective development of civic values:

> Group sport meetings will furnish excellent opportunities for effective civic training... and it is requested that in all such gatherings the organisers should provide for the effective supervision of pupils in the outer grounds.\(^\text{19}\)

This statement is far removed from the policy objectives reinforced by elementary government schools at the turn of the century and well into the 1930s. There had been a gradual change in philosophy and educational aims amongst educational bureaucrats, but the gazetted instructions over the past decades were still well alive in the minds of politicians. Whenever possible they would remind the teachers,

\(^{18}\) Victoria, *Education Gazette and Teachers’ Aid*, vol. 41, 17 June 1941, p. 319.

\(^{19}\) Ibid.
although in a much milder form, that Physical Education had potential to add a civic dimension to the subject.

The revised policy, as expressed in the National Fitness Act 1941 and enhanced during parliamentary sessions leading to the passing of the Act, aimed to improve the fitness level of young Australians. The implementation took place at school and communication level via the Physical Education Programmes on one hand and the activities conducted under the auspices of the National Fitness Council, on the other. The success rate could be observed not only at school and local level, but could be traced up to state and national level and would move through the three stages, the observational, the internalised and the attitudinal evaluation stage, culminating in the state of improved fitness of most Australian children. At the first stage, the observational, children were to have fun and experience enjoyment by being involved in the physical Education activities of varying forms. The positive exposure to the programmes would enhance active participation in school classes and additionally would lead to voluntary enrolment in National Fitness camp activities. Testing of the fitness level of young Australians would then reveal in future whether the policy had been successful. If not, modifications to achieve the desired goals could be devised and implemented.

The argument that the Commonwealth government again used the national curriculum for its own military function was supported when an additional financial boost for the first national fitness drive was promised on 26 June, 1942. The Prime Minister, John Curtin (Labor) re-endorsed his government’s commitment to the
National Fitness Campaign and increased the Liberals' initial amount by a further £50,000. The total amount of £70,000 was allocated annually in the following way:

Table 5: National Fitness Campaign grant allocations 1942

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>National Fitness Councils</th>
<th>Education Departments</th>
<th>Total for state</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>£ 2,100</td>
<td>£ 7,000</td>
<td>£ 2,834</td>
<td>£ 11,934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>£ 2,100</td>
<td>£ 7,000</td>
<td>£ 2,834</td>
<td>£ 11,934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>£ 1,600</td>
<td>£ 5,500</td>
<td>£ 2,833</td>
<td>£ 9,933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South A</td>
<td>£ 1,600</td>
<td>£ 5,500</td>
<td>£ 2,833</td>
<td>£ 9,933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West A</td>
<td>£ 1,500</td>
<td>£ 5,500</td>
<td>£ 2,833</td>
<td>£ 9,833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>£ 1,000</td>
<td>£ 5,000</td>
<td>£ 2,833</td>
<td>£ 8,833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>£ 9,900</td>
<td>£35,400</td>
<td>£17,000</td>
<td>£62,400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most populated states of New South Wales and Victoria received the highest allocation of £11,934 each year. In 1941, the Menzies government had pledged the total sum of £100,000 over 5 years with the view to re-examine the physical state of children in the country after the first two years. The Curtin Labor government not only altered the size of the grants, adding 350% to the Liberal promise from 1943 onwards, it also changed the timeline from 5 years to indefinitely, as the Commonwealth Accountant instructed the Secretary of the Premier in a memorandum. Concurrently, the Director of Education, Mr. EM. Pritchard, was asked for comment:

Attention is drawn to the following paragraph from the memorandum prepared by the Commonwealth Director-General of Health:

'It should be noted that, although it is provided that the sums mentioned should be annual amounts, no period or term for these annual grants has been fixed'.

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20 Memorandum P 42/2172, dated 14.7.42, from T. Forristal, Accountant, to the Secretary, Premier. Education Department of Victoria, Classified Correspondence 1853-1979, Special Case File, VPRS 892/81/1359.
21 Ibid, p. 3.
The unlimited time frame and the extraordinary boost of grants at a time when Australia was at war, when Australia found itself in a financially stressful situation\textsuperscript{22}, was to fulfil other goals than just policy implementation goals for the Federal government. The application of programmes would have to be significant. It is interesting to notice which organisation in the chain of grants benefited the most by the new quota. The targeted areas provide the research answers.

For the first time the Federal territories were acknowledged in the disbursement of funds. The sum of £7,600 was given as a combined figure for the use of the Federal Territories' development of the Fitness campaign and the development of a control bureau for the distribution of information on Physical Education and Recreation.\textsuperscript{23} The breakdown of the sum had not been published and was not mentioned in the parliamentary debates.

As Table Six below indicates, the state branches of the National Fitness Council were the big beneficiaries of the available funds. Excluding the Federal Territories, the total increase to the states was 312\% per year. The National Fitness Councils' grants around the nation increased by 592\%, followed closely by the Education Departments' share, which officially had gained by at least 378\%.

\textsuperscript{22} The Commonwealth found herself in such financial dilemma, that in 1943, at the time the National Fitness grants had been increased, the states agreed to abdicate their right to taxation. An Act was passed which gave the Commonwealth the momentary power to collect taxation from all citizens. Since then, the Commonwealth has retained the right. In 1940, Hytten, who was Economic Adviser to the Bank of New South Wales, suggested in his article 'Wartime Financial Policy' in: The Australian Quarterly, March 1940, pp. 63-72, to plan for the war effort. He estimated that at least 12.5\% of the estimated National Income would have to be set aside for war expenses, an amount which could not necessarily be spared.

\textsuperscript{23} Memorandum 42/2172. Education Department of Victoria, VRPS, Special Case File, 1853-1979. 892/81/1359.
Table 6: National Fitness Campaign allocations and increases 1939 - 1942.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Universities 1939</th>
<th>Universities 1942</th>
<th>Increase</th>
<th>National Fitness Councils 1939</th>
<th>National Fitness Councils 1942</th>
<th>Increase</th>
<th>Education Departments 1939</th>
<th>Education Departments 1942</th>
<th>Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIC</td>
<td>£2,000</td>
<td>£2,100</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£7,000</td>
<td>700%</td>
<td>£2,834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>£2,000</td>
<td>£2,100</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£7,000</td>
<td>700%</td>
<td>£2,834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QLD.</td>
<td>£1,500</td>
<td>£1,600</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£7,000</td>
<td>550%</td>
<td>£2,833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>£1,500</td>
<td>£1,600</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£5,500</td>
<td>550%</td>
<td>£2,833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>£1,500</td>
<td>£1,500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£5,500</td>
<td>550%</td>
<td>£2,233</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAS</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>£1,000</td>
<td>£5,000</td>
<td>500%</td>
<td>£2,833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>£9,500</td>
<td>£9,900</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>£6,000</td>
<td>£35,500</td>
<td>592%</td>
<td>£4,500</td>
<td>£17,000</td>
<td>378%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The universities only experienced a minor adjustment at this time. The Universities of Sydney and Melbourne both were awarded £100 each, amounting to a 5% improvement. The Universities of Queensland and South Australia equally received £100, measuring 6.6% in their share. From 1943 New South Wales and Victoria secured £7,000 each on behalf of the state National Fitness Councils. These Councils were under the direct guidance of the federal Minister of Health who had placed conditions of way of expenditure upon acceptance. These were as follows:
Table: 7:  Recommended funding breakdown for National Fitness Council (Victoria) 1942

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>£</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>organisation and administration</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Co-ordination &amp; extension of Boys' Clubs activity</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Grants to local National Fitness Committees for the extension of National Fitness activities. Each Committee, if not a municipal one, must have at least one municipal delegate</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Keep-fit classes for munition workers and staffs of city offices and firms</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Establishment of camp sites / youth hostels</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Training of Voluntary Youth Leaders</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>£7,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to the Commonwealth grant, the National Fitness Council of Victoria covered its costs with an additional £3,000 from the state government. The mutual financing of the fitness campaign, with a ratio of 3/7, made the Council answerable and accountable to the two levels of government. Each stakeholder had its own aims and objectives to cater for, and yet, they had to be unified by the Council.

Although in the guidelines for the Councils only the co-ordination of Boys' Clubs activities were recognized, a memorandum from Dr. A.G. Scholes, Organiser, National Fitness Council of Victoria, to Mr. E.I. Leach, the Chief Inspector of Primary Schools, revealed that on the 22nd and 24th of December 1943, an advertisement for a Field Officer (Woman) had been placed in The Age and The Argus. The advertisement attracted one applicant. The position was filled by Gwen Owen who claimed previous experience with National Fitness classes in Launceston. Her application divulged that she had been working extensively in the 'fitness
industry' for women and girls,\textsuperscript{24} possibly meaning that she had conducted classes outside of school activity. Previous works in this area have not mentioned that keep-fit classes for senior and junior girls were conducted in schools, and private school girls' teams were practising for National Fitness Folk Dance Festivals. The indications are that certain physical activities for girls were conducted prior to the appointment of the female Field Officer, but these activities were led by volunteers and were far less frequent than the ones for the boys, and consequently they were not reported.

Prior to the allocation of funds, in late 1939, the Commonwealth had initiated a survey amongst schoolteachers to establish the perceived health status of children and thus the needs in Physical Education for school children. A Departmental Committee had been formed to investigate the present position of Physical Education in schools. E.I. Leach, the Assistant Chief Inspector of Primary Schools at the time, became the Chairman of the newly formed Committee. A call for teachers to take part was printed in the Victorian Education Gazette.\textsuperscript{25} Copies were forwarded to district inspectors for distribution among teachers representing all types of schools. To secure a sizeable response, a copy of the questionnaire was reprinted in the same issue.\textsuperscript{26} The Education Department thought of all venues to secure responses to gain teachers' opinions and recommendations for improvement in the subject.

\textsuperscript{24} Miss Gwen Owen's curriculum vitae to the Selection Committee, National Fitness Council of Victoria, National Fitness staff appointment. Field Officer (Woman), Memorandum 21.1.1944.
\textsuperscript{25} \textit{Victoria. Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid}, vol. 40, 15 May, 1940, p. 129.
\textsuperscript{26} Ibid, p. 130.
The unpublished Report of the Departmental Committee on Physical Education\(^\text{27}\) in Victoria summarised the teachers' views on Physical Education. There was overwhelming agreement by the over four hundred respondents\(^\text{28}\) that there were many factors that assisted the retardation of the development of the subject in Primary schools. The committee summarised the results as follows:

1. unsatisfactory status of Physical Education in many schools  
2. inadequate and unsatisfactory accommodation and equipment  
3. insufficient medical supervision  
4. insufficient specialists in Physical Education  
5. insufficient training of young teachers in the methods and practice of Physical Education  
6. unsatisfactory organisation, including allotment  
7. insufficient cognisance of the needs of adolescent girls  
8. parents' lack of knowledge of the value of Physical Education.\(^\text{29}\)

Many of the criticisms were supported by recommendations to improve the training of teachers, the teaching of pupils and the installation of facilities and equipment. After the compilation of the Report, the Education Department had been furnished with sound appraisal and advice from within the teaching force. As future action by the Department will indicate, the education authorities treated the findings very seriously. The outstanding recommendations were compiled into a mere six points, each of them as important as the others.

1. To stimulate interest in, and to emphasise the importance of physical education, a selected school should be equipped with an open air gymnasium,

\(^{27}\) Memorandum from E.I. Leach, Chairman, 26.11.1941. VPRS 892, Education Department of Victoria, Special Case File 892/81/1359.  
\(^{28}\) Memorandum from E.I. Leach, ibid, p. 1.  
\(^{29}\) Ibid.
showers, apparatus, and a special teacher should be appointed to demonstrate the possibilities in this subject. Estimated cost £1,000.  

2. A pass in Physical Education should be essential for the award of the Trained Primary Teacher's Certificate

3. At least 30 minutes daily should be provided for organised physical activities, including swimming and organised games in all schools.

4. The medical inspection staff should be increased from 7 to 18, including a travelling oculist and a full time psychiatrist. The number of nurses should be increased to 20, and dentists to 45. Estimated cost £75,000.

5. A special gymnasium for corrective work in posture, etc., should be established under a fully qualified officer. It is suggested that this gymnasium be established at State School No. 1213, Central Brunswick. The estimated cost of the necessary apparatus is £100.

6. Closer co-operation between medical, Physical Education, and teaching staffs should be effected.

The Committee plainly presented the summary and recommendations to the Director of Education without any further explanations. A general appraisal of the place of Physical Education in the system of education highlighted the philosophical change, the multi-faceted nature of perceived policy requirements for physical activity that foreshadowed the modern approach to the subject in the general education of a child. The new perspective made the comparison to other subject areas very simple. As no educator would have argued about the importance of English or Mathematics in the curriculum, the Committee continued with its rationale to equate Physical Education (and within its boundaries the health status) as important as the traditional core subjects. The motives for the regular inclusion into the weekly time-table ranged

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30 Teachers even made a recommendation as to which school should be chosen for that purpose. See State School No. 2566, in Memorandum, ibid., p. 1.
from fitness and health defects prevalent in children, to economic deliberation of importance of fitness at the workplace.\textsuperscript{31}

The Committee finalised the Report on a very encouraging note. The circulation of the findings had been commenced only at the end of November 1941. Yet, the teacher training courses had already commenced in 1938 and the first specialist teachers had entered the schools. But progress was slow due to the restricted intake quota and the high number of students in the Primary school system. At the Teachers’ College level, more time for the training of young students in Physical Education had been allocated. Without substantiating their claims, the Committee argued that many schools had already introduced at least 30 minutes daily Physical Education activities to their programmes, and a few schools had raised funds locally for showers and special Physical Education equipment.

The Report received high acclaim by the Commonwealth upon circulation. In a letter the Commonwealth National Fitness Officer, B.F.G. Apps suggested sending the Report to other Education Departments and to all the University Diploma of Physical Education courses as an example of good analytical reporting.

It presents such a sane conception of the position that Physical Education should occupy in the general school curriculum, both from the point of view of emphasis and time that it represents a valuable contribution to the physical education literature available in Australia.\textsuperscript{32}

\textsuperscript{31} Ibid, p. 3.
Combined effort between states and the Commonwealth assessed proposals for programmes and training and made relevant grants available. The interests and aims of this model were practised in Victoria, culminating in the implementation of the first Remedial Physical Education Centre at the Physical Education Centre in Queensberry Street, Carlton, on 7th August 1944. Several additional centres, including country centres, followed later.

The opening of these centres was a direct result of responses to two questionnaires. One was circulated in Victoria to teachers of all types of schools, and the second was a survey conducted by the School Medical service in 1938/39 inquiring about the extent to which the School Medical Service is able to be effective in its medical assessment of school children. The results revealed that an acute shortage of medical officers and nurses were unable to cater for the many children with postural defects.

The total school population of 220,000 children in Victoria had been medically examined in the year ending June 1939. The Victorian Physical Education Report only referred to the year in which the research took place. It appears that the survey was separate to the usual triennial medical check-ups for every student. During the year seven medical officers assessed 220,000 children. It would have been a demanding task for each medical practitioner to examine 3,820 children in one school year. The results provided the health and education authorities with the long overdue result. Forty-four thousand children were diagnosed with a posture defect. The Report of the Departmental Committee on Physical Education treated the research outcome with sincerity. The Chairman called on the Education Department to respond to the children's physical deficiencies and provide the School Medical
Service with more medical and nursing staff to be able to meet the triennial inspection schedule and be able to follow up selected cases on a yearly basis. Eighteen medical officers and twenty nurses were assessed as adequate for the number of students involved. To intervene in the development of faulty postures in children and to improve children's postural defects with specific exercises, it was put forward for consideration 'to establish in a central position a purpose equipped gymnasium where specially selected children from surrounding schools could attend for regular treatment'.

On the front page of the memorandum from E.I. Leach to the Director of Education, A.S. Seitz replied to his subordinate with a little note, suggesting that the recommendations may be used in connection with the Commonwealth Grant. Seitz, at the same time, passed on a copy of the Report to the Commonwealth National Fitness Co-ordinator, B.F.G. Apps. The intention may have been to personally alert the National Fitness Officer to the alarming state of health of Victorian children. Or he may have thought that once the Director for Education himself made an unofficial approach for funding to the federal Health Department, the likelihood of success would increase.

Documentation published in the *Official Commonwealth Yearbook of Australia* provides the answer about the effectiveness of the submission. In the first year after

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34 Ibid.
36 The table has been compiled from data published in Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics (1941-1951), vols. 33-37, Canberra Commonwealth Government Printer.
publication of the Report, the nursing staff was immediately increased by 50%, which opened up one more position. The following year, 1940/42, nine positions were added to the supporting nurses. The twelve places fell six short of the recommended eighteen. But the twenty were to aid eighteen medical officers. No additional positions for doctors were filled. It may have been the intention of the Health Department to employ more medical officers, but the department was unable to fill the positions. After all, more medical doctors were requested to serve in the Armed Forces. The war drained professional resources at home. The entry for 1950 mentions the staff shortage and an inability to maintain the desired policy for staffing. This reality would also clarify the decline in position by the medical officers from seven to only six full time and one part-time positions. The increased ratio between doctors and nurses from 7/2 (2 nurses assisting seven medical officers) to 7/12 (or 1.7 nurses' positions for every medical officer) reveals the intention by the Department. The nurses' role had been described as being involved in 'follow-up' work. The tasks could be described as liaison between department and parents and

Table 8: Students enrolled in Victorian state schools, number medically examined and student/medical staff ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N=pupils</th>
<th>n= examined</th>
<th>n=medical officers</th>
<th>n= nurses</th>
<th>ratio officer-pupil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1939/40</td>
<td>218,683</td>
<td>32,808</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940/42</td>
<td>211,880</td>
<td>50,524</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7,218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1942/43</td>
<td>198,567</td>
<td>29,745</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944/46</td>
<td>198,239</td>
<td>19,203</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946/48</td>
<td>204,013</td>
<td>17,526</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

the organiser for the recommended treatment. The latter task would also have been the direct linkage between the medical service and the remedial Physical Education programme. The recommendation to care for the physical needs of the children had been accepted and implemented by the Education Department. Two years after the findings of the Report, the Remedial Centre in Carlton was opened and one staff assigned to duty at this facility. Another facet of the policy health strand had been synchronised into the system.
4.3 The Period of Reconstruction 1945 - 1955

The period of reconstruction in the state began as a stressful time when ministerial leadership was at its minimum. The frequent changes in Ministers between 1945 and 1950 made stability impossible and devalued the position of Education. Not one Minister of Education remained longer than two years in office. Two ministers, Hollins and Hughes, only lasted one month.38

The end of World War II gave the Physical Education Branch an opportunity, again, to gather its strength and concentrate on educational aspects. The Branch seemed to function quite well within its own parameters and as indicated by stability of personnel. During the war years, the Branch had to survive on minimum staff numbers and thus was just maintaining its programmes. The return to peace times made it possible to implement the innovations which had been developed and refined for years by Rosalie Virtue and her staff.

The period of reconstruction built on the foundation that was put in place during the pre-war years. Primarily the British syllabus of 1934 had been the guide to all teachers in the state.39 Contrary to previous practices, from the mid 1930s onwards, teachers in the state of Victoria were granted some professional freedom within all curriculum settings, including Physical Education.40 The Curriculum Revision Committee and the Inspectors went even as far as to advise teachers during summer

38 Blake, op.cit., p. 373.
40 It should be mentioned here that the new syllabus carried the name of Physical Education, not Physical Culture or Physical Training. The name change was in accordance with the British terminology change from 'Culture' to 'Education'.

145
schools that

the new course was 'suggestive and flexible rather than mandatory and final' and that they gave a 'new measure of freedom to teachers.' The educational task would be to lead children 'by observation and experiment and through the exercise of their own powers of thought, judgement and reasoning to establish truths for themselves.'

Within this context it would have been encouraging for Rosalie Virtue to move away from the British syllabus and develop her own vision of what Physical Education should be in the classroom. Her expertise was particularly directed towards rhythmic dance and outdoor education. The establishment of the first school camp at Crow's Nest, Queenscliff, in 1946, is attributed to her pioneer work. Within her capacity as senior education officer in the Physical Education Branch, she advised hundreds of teachers over years on how to teach an activity best, and how to vary the syllabus to provide interest and enjoyment.

When the Council of Public Education in Victoria released its Report on Educational Reform and Development in Victoria in 1945, it did not address the subject of Physical Education. The specialist curriculum area was totally ignored. It may be that the educational bureaucrats had considered the National Fitness policy adequate and therefore were confident about its 'automatic' inclusion into the syllabus. Another aspect could have been that the education authorities did not wish to interfere in National Fitness Councils' territory and hence omitted any appraisal of

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42 Blake, op.cit., p. 1031.
the subject area. Although the syllabus had not been formally assessed, and no recommendations had been made in any respect, the first Australian textbook for Physical Education was released in 1946. In addition, the Education Department published *Physical Education for Victorian Schools*.\(^43\) No authorship or editorial input has been recorded for the publication. Only in the centennial publication on Education in Victoria, did the writer on Physical Education acknowledge Rosalie Virtue as the leader in the revision for the modern 1946 curriculum.\(^44\) Under her guidance the book became a most valuable resource for any person teaching physical activities in the primary division. For years she had been giving practical assistance to teachers and had written lesson plans for anybody requesting them. In the new textbook, every chapter focussed on a different age-group in chronological order. Exercises, games, posture training and skill training were presented for each age-group, for boys and girls. Each chapter contained lesson plans and provided tests where children could assess their own progress and the teacher received the appropriate test format.

The 'Grey Book', as the new syllabus was called due to its gray cover, was a very thorough and progressive curriculum document for its time. The first chapters gave the reader a good reasoning for the curriculum area and an understanding of planning for Physical Education before going into specific details for pupils in the infant years. It is interesting that Rosalie Virtue considered the growth and development stages of boys and girls, and underpinned the teaching and learning with scientific knowledge as known at the time. Children up to the age of eleven

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\(^{43}\) Education Department of Victoria, *Physical Education for Victorian Schools*, Melbourne, 1946.

\(^{44}\) See Blake, op.cit., p. 997.
were to be taught the same activities, while from the age of twelve, the syllabus moved into activities that were seen as more suitable for boys and others more appropriate for girls. Boys and girls were supposed to be practising strength activities, but girls' exercises were far less strenuous than the boys'. The games were divided into the ones traditionally played by men and women. Boys concentrated on Australian Rules Football, Cricket and Basketball and girls on Netball, Hockey and Tennis. Surprisingly, the pictures demonstrating the correct grips in Tennis for service, drives and volley show a male in action, yet the writer does not suggest in the curriculum that boys should be instructed in Tennis. More outstanding may be the fact that in the chapter for Physical Education for boys between 12 and 16 years, in two pictures, girls were demonstrating the exercises. One, the knee dip, demanded a good sense of balance, and the other, the human rocker, softness in movement combined with agility and balance.\(^45\) It is argued here that these cross-references to the other gender were not accidental. All pictures show children in a possible school setting. They are not elite athletes. The pictures may have been specifically taken for the publication. Therefore, the gender will have been deliberately chosen for each activity. Rosalie Virtue will have made the decision to show the opposite gender in the picture, to remind the teacher, without making special reference to it, that these exercises could, or should, be done also by the other sex. These pictures and the continuous cross-referencing to the opposite sex are significant and are atypical for the thinking of the time. The New South Wales syllabus of 1952, as an example, refrained from any meaningful reference to either gender. While Rosalie Virtue was quietly shaping the Physical Education curriculum in her capacity as Organiser in the Branch, the pictures in the 'Grey Book' identify her as a radical educationist; a quality not fully recognised.

\(^{45}\) Education Department of Victoria, op.cit., pp. 235-239 and 268, 271 respectively.
There is another chapter in the 1946 Victorian Primary Physical Education syllabus that distinguished the Victorian from the New South Wales programme. The reference is to the chapter on Swimming and Life-Saving. Victoria had established a strong tradition in learn-to-swim campaigns from 1911 onwards. The name of Beaurepaire became synonymous with swimming. The elite swimmer Beaurepaire had worked from the Physical Education Branch and had developed a programme, as well as a reward system, for children. The newspaper The Herald had supported the Education Department and, in co-operation with Beaurepaire, set up a reward when a child was able to swim uninterrupted for 25m. A certificate, named 'The Herald' by students and teachers, would testify the achievement for decades to come. Still in the 1970s, Victorian schools would encourage students to aim for their first swimming award. It gave the child an incentive no other sporting activity was able to offer at that stage.

The educational values swimming provided and political necessity to keep down the number of drowning victims kept swimming in the forefront of activities offered by staff working in the Physical Education Branch. Therefore the inclusion of Swimming and Life-Saving in the 1946 syllabus is a formalisation of this activity in the curriculum, almost a 'personalisation' of Virtue and Beaurepaire, because the New South Wales syllabus, for example, does not mention swimming at all. As it will be discussed later, the omission of swimming in the New South Wales curriculum, as late as 1965, was criticised by some interested parties, like The Graziers' Federation.46

Apart from the fact that the Victorian curriculum writers had written a comprehensive syllabus in swimming and life-saving no other state would match, they also broadened the mind of teachers and readers in general. The opening sentences made a clear statement:

Swimming forms a very definite part in the Physical Education program, and where facilities are available it should be a school subject for all children.\(^\text{47}\)

The sentence is itself out of the ordinary. Swimming was enjoyed by girls and women, but not necessarily life-saving. The Royal Life Saving Society had only encouraged boys and men to become active members in their organisation before the war commenced. During the war, some women had taken the place of male life savers out of necessity. Now the Physical Education Branch assumed that this trend would not only continue, but would provide equal opportunities to girls and boys. The tenor of the opening paragraph would be maintained throughout the chapter. The writers provided the teachers with excellent methodical detail in any facet of teaching the activities. Furthermore, the equal access to teaching and learning was underpinned with pictures. Seventeen photographs were included in the chapter, all taken for the purpose of providing pictorial material for the finer points in teaching technique for strokes, diving and life-saving. Every photograph used girls as models. Not one boy or man had been chosen for this demonstration exercise. Where particular positions, angles etc. had to be indicated, the designer had drawn the diagrams in 'stick figures'. Only the rescue drill used males in the drawings. The methodical attention to detail in this part also drew special attention to four different

\(^{47}\) Education Department of Victoria, op.cit., p. 311.
methods that could be used. A carefully balanced approach had been elected to firstly provide a comprehensive document that children could be trained thoroughly, and secondly, guide the teachers gently into thinking that all children, regardless of gender, ought to learn the same skills and enjoy the same activities.

The first Australian syllabus in Physical Education was a versatile document, encapsulating the policy goals to improve the fitness level and health status of children, as well as addressing the needs of all pupils and teachers. H.P. Kelly, the Medical Inspector of schools in Victoria wrote the linking forward and expressed the need 'to provide the children with healthful means of spending the leisure that is available to them'. All three project partners foreshadowed the evolving and strengthening of the curriculum direction, the gradual turning from military drill type exercises to health oriented playful activities. The National Fitness Council was established to coordinate and direct all three partners, the university, or teacher training level, the school level, and the recreational level. The syllabus was written in such a way that it could be used at each level. The training institutions received a clear guide to aim for the competencies of their students; the school teacher, whether a holder of a competency certificate or a Physical Education diploma, could easily follow the lesson plans and learn from the step-by-step instructions. The pupils benefited in numerous ways by the book's guidance. Firstly, the teachers took the latest scientific knowledge into account. Secondly, the teaching would be more skill oriented and therefore the children would be able to perform the skills. Thirdly, the syllabus expanded from posture exercises to dance, over gymnastics to athletics, swimming and games. Teachers had easy access to knowledge and were able to

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48 Education Department of Victoria, op.cit., p. vi.
teach the wide spectrum of physical activities. Because the curriculum was focussing on most activities, except outdoor education, the publication could also be used by National Fitness Council staff for their recreation activities.

The Physical Education syllabus compiled by Rosalie Virtue and her staff was a perfect example of a syllabus written with the Commonwealth Physical Education multi-faceted policy in mind. Involving all children at junior age into a demanding and skill based physical activity programme automatically established the content and established strategies and operations for the stated goal to improve the fitness of young Australians. The syllabus became the implementation tool for the Education Department. Officially, the Victorian syllabus had become independent from the British syllabus. The 'Grey Book' was written by Australians for Australian children. The members of the Physical Education Branch were experienced teachers in Australian country and city schools. Their teaching aimed to attract the children in the bush, in the cities, near the beach. The activities had to reflect the familiarity within their environment. Once children felt comfortable with the activity, so it was argued, the first stage of the policy implementation would be reached. Fun and enjoyment would lead to voluntary participation in and outside school.

A high demand for aquatics information may be the explanation why this first Australian syllabus addressed for the first and last time the area of water rescue and resuscitation. Swimming and life saving were prominently practised in Victoria, at beach sides and along rivers. Life Saving clubs reported strong memberships.\textsuperscript{49}

additional membership drives could easily be facilitated by teaching the skills at school level.

The success of the 1946 syllabus can be traced only to the observational and internalised stage of the evaluation stages. No documentation exists through which one could ascertain whether the children at a very young age, or later as adults, learnt within their Physical Education lessons to appreciate their well being and regarded their own health as important throughout their lives. One can only judge upon anecdotal evidence that, although the syllabus was of superior quality, the teaching did not represent the document as intended. Most adults who were attending Primary school during the 1940s and 1950s and who had an opportunity to comment upon their Physical Training classes, recall their experiences as limited and boring.\(^{50}\)

While the syllabus was in the process of being written, the Education Department prepared the ground for intense teacher preparation. In 1945 the Education Department had published amendments to regulation XIII (E) for the Certificate of Competency in Physical Education.\(^{51}\) According to the new rules, candidates were able to gain a Certificate of Competency when they had passed the following conditions: were able to physically perform the activities, successfully completed fourteen days of intensive training per year, over two years. In addition they had to pass the practical and theoretical examinations, and completed a prescribed period of teacher training at an approved school. Once these prerequisites had been fulfilled, the candidate had to coordinate a Physical Education programme at her or his school

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\(^{50}\) While teaching in the Victorian education system, the author had extensive opportunities to discuss Physical Education experiences with parents of pupils. These parents compared unfavourably their own Physical Education experience with their children's classes.

for one year. At the end of that year, the District Inspector had to issue a certificate to the Director of Primary Education, testifying that the work had been satisfactorily performed.

For the purpose of obtaining such a Certificate of Competency, the Education Department from 1945 onwards conducted Vacation Schools for teachers who intended to qualify in the area of Physical Education. The first special vacation school was conducted at the Teachers' College, Melbourne, from Monday, the 27th August to Friday, the 7th of September. Teachers from all divisions, infant department to secondary and technical, were invited to take part. The call for the vacation school very clearly stated that the school was being organised in connection with the grant for national fitness purpose. The number of applicants was therefore not restricted, so as to attract as many teachers as possible.

The organisation of vacation schools for generalist teachers was, as previously stated, part of the condition under which the Education Department received the grant from the National Fitness Campaign. Every year, since 1942, the Education Department had invited Primary teachers to train in Physical Education and gain Certificates of Competency. The post-war years saw a renewed impetus towards broadened training for leadership in fitness and outdoor education. The Education Department opened the opportunities to all teachers. The objective was quite clear. The fitness campaign was aimed at all children and adolescents. Knowledge in Physical Education had to infiltrate all educational divisions. The National Health

\[52\] Ibid, p.133.
Department requested, as part of every annual report, proof that the states had spent the designated money in the spirit it had been granted: for the training, including refresher courses, of teachers in new methods of Physical Education and Health Education. Bursaries for interested teachers to study in the Diploma of Physical Education course at Melbourne University were introduced in addition in 1946, as an opportunity to boost the number of specialist Physical Education teachers in the state system.
4.4 Australia's First Nation-Wide Health and Posture Survey for Children

The Physical Education textbook provided the guidelines for Physical Education teachers in the state for many years to come. The ensuing years after 1946 proved to be very quiet and very focussed. Few critical events took place or primary decisions were made which changed the rate of progression or direction for Victorian Primary school Physical Education.

At the University of Melbourne, the Department of Physical Education prepared mostly generalist Primary School teachers in Physical Education. The main field of employment remained with the Education Department. In 1946, for example, from a total of 40 diplomates, 26 were employed within the public education system. Another 12 graduates gained employment within the private school sector and only 4 were to work in Fitness and related areas. The reason for the centralisation of employment may have been firstly due to the opportunity given to government teachers to take out a scholarship to pursue the studies. The Department in turn bonded the teachers for a period of two to four years. This was one way to secure an increase of 'specialist' teachers for country and city schools. Secondly, the course of study was judged in the 10th Report of the Commonwealth Fitness Council\(^5\) as being more tailored for the specialised teacher in Physical Education. The person working in the National Fitness area or providing community leisure, so it was reasoned, ought to receive a wider and more varied training. Thus it was concluded that universities ought to increase the duration of training and should establish an

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Australian degree course of four years duration.\textsuperscript{54} From the previous discussion it is known that the call for more intense and wider training could have been heard for many years to come. It was only in the 1970s that tertiary training institutions, like Rusden Teachers' College in Melbourne, were able to introduce the extended specialised course in Victoria. But this change from a two year plus one year Physical Education teacher training course to a four year degree qualification was only possible with a change in Commonwealth and state government policy which took place in the 1970s.

The first Conference of Directors of Physical Education was called in October 1945, immediately after World War II had been won by the Allied Forces and the Australian government had some months to concentrate on peace times again. The delegates reiterated the distress of the Physical Education Branch in 1938/39 in regards to postural defects children displayed in their early school years. As previously mentioned, the Education Department and the Health Department had responded to the concern in 1939 and following years and had increased the medical staff, especially nursing staff, to examine the school children for postural deficiencies during the war years. Once the attention of the government could be directed back to national concerns, the supervisors of Physical Education from all state Education Departments around the nation recommended to the National Health and Medical Research Council to concentrate their research into the field of child health.\textsuperscript{55} A Child Health and Posture Survey was agreed upon by the Council and the Department of Health in Canberra undertook to conduct the research.\textsuperscript{56} This

\textsuperscript{54} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{55} Ibid, p. 13.
\textsuperscript{56} Correspondence between the Secretary of the Department of Health and the Education Department/Physical Education Centre. January - April 1948. Victorian Archives, Box 10537/38/1949.
Australia-wide posture survey would be the first and last of its kind initiated at the national level.\textsuperscript{57} The next Australian survey would be a Fitness analysis of Australian children conducted in 1971, and published in 1973 under the supervision of Dr. A.W. Willee of Melbourne University.\textsuperscript{58} The emphasis of this 1971 study shifted away from the broader health approach into a more specific inquiry, namely to assess the fitness levels of Australian secondary students by establishing the fitness benchmarks or norms for Australian teenagers between the ages of thirteen and seventeen. No emphasis was placed on the health and postural defects; the investigators measured only the performance output. This particular trend would continue into the 1990s.

In the Foreword to the nation-wide postural defect report, A.J. Metcalfe, the Director-General of Health and the Chairman of the Commonwealth National Fitness Council, stressed the point that the investigation had been carried out to establish reliable evidence on the state of health of children. A total of five different surveys were conducted to assess aspects of posture in Australian children. Three of the five surveys focused on different age groups, and using different aspects. The range stretched from pre-school age, to five to fourteen year old boys and girls, followed by the assessment of adolescents. Two other separate surveys were included to provide as wide a framework as possible. One assessed the effect of a programme on the posture of primary school children aged between eight and nine years, and the other inquiry intended to correlate posture and socio-economic conditions.


The posture survey of school age children was initiated in 1946. From March, 1947, onwards staff collated available literature and material published within the English speaking world and dealing with the subject of posture and its relation to child health. In 1948, the field work was carried out by all state Education Departments. Victoria was requested to provide 12 staff members. The Physical Education Branch chose 6 men and 6 women to conduct the survey on children in the 5-14 years age-group in 29 pre-selected schools.\textsuperscript{59} The testing occurred between the 12th and 30th of April 1948. The selected schools could be classified as a convenience sample. In a letter from the Acting Director-General of Health, Mr. A.J. Metcalfe to Mr. J.A, Seitz, Director of Education, Victoria, Mr. Metcalfe requests a sample of approximately 6,250 children to be examined from nine centres: Melbourne, Ballarat, Bendigo, Hamilton, Horsham, Shepparton, Mildura, Wonthaggi and Bairnsdale. The proposed towns represented children living in the major city, and North, West, South and East of the state's capital. The sample population intended to include urban as well as country children. Some were living in bigger town centres, and others growing up in more remote or smaller settlements.

\textsuperscript{59} Ibid.
Table 9: Primary schools included in the Victorian section of the Australia wide survey into incidences and causes of postural defects in children according to Region and school system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Government schools</th>
<th>Catholic schools</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardiner Central</td>
<td>Catholic Ladies’ C.</td>
<td>St. Brendan's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graham St</td>
<td>St. Patrick’s C.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George St.</td>
<td>St. Michael's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambridge St.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wonthaggi</td>
<td>Wonthaggi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wonthaggi North</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geelong</td>
<td>Tate St.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballarat</td>
<td>Urquart St</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pleasant St.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bendigo</td>
<td>Violet St.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Golden Square</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bendigo North</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>California Gully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horsham</td>
<td>Horsham</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildura</td>
<td>Mildura</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sacred Heart C.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Sample: 22 schools =
[15 government schools (68%), 6 Catholic schools (27%), and 1 Independent (5%)]

Correspondence available indicates though, that the supervisor of the Physical Education Centre in Queensberry Street, K. Hamilton, disregarded the request for the proposed research design. He either took it upon himself and allocated staff members to pre-selected schools or Physical Education Centre staff were able to self-perpetuate their work and select schools which happened to be in their 'care zone'. No memorandum or other document disclosed the decision-making process and can shed light on the rationale.

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60 Correspondence between the Secretary of the Department of Health and the Education Department/Physical Education Centre. January - April 1948. Victorian Archives, Special Files, Box 10537/38/1949.
The criteria for the purpose of selection could not be ascertained from documents placed in the archives. Accepted research methodology makes it clear that the sample for this direction seeking survey was biased in regards to several methodological requirements. Firstly, the schools were not representative of the total school population of 4 to 15 year old children, due to geographical restrictions and preferences. Secondly, children in Victoria attended a school placed in one of three school systems: the government system, the Catholic or the Independent sector. The sample selection included all three sectors but while most schools were from the government or the Catholic system, only one school was chosen from the Independent sector. The severe limitation of the Independent school population, particularly in the rural areas, put the validity and reliability of the study into question. The third weakness in the research method is the apparent overemphasis on urban schools. The school samples, as depicted in table below, are compared with the original research request. The Eastern region of Victoria is completely omitted, together with the Northern and South-Western part. The median, eight, of schools chosen for the programme were located in Melbourne, one in nearby Geelong, two in easy reach in Ballarat and six in another regional education centre, Bendigo. The Physical Education regional centres in Geelong, Bendigo and Ballarat had been developed after the war by the Physical Education Branch in Queensberry Street into regional centres, attended by at least 2 appointed staff members, from where seminars and workshops were conducted. That meant that again 16 schools, or 70% of the sample, had close access to staff and other resources, and, in comparison with other Victorian regions, would have been classified as 'well serviced' by Education Department authorities. The section of Victoria in which the selected schools were placed, included the two largest and richest inland cities, Ballarat and Bendigo.
The total stretch (shaded area on the map) was regarded as fertile agricultural area, cattle, wheat and orchard country; and in the case of Wonthaggi, also coal country. Country children from less privileged areas around Victoria, including Hamilton, Shepparton and Bairnsdale, were disregarded to provide samples to the nation-wide survey, although they were to be included in the research.

Diagram 1: Posture survey in Victoria. Geographical location of survey samples

NOTE: Commonwealth suggested towns marked in black. Education Department selected centres marked in red. Number of surveyed schools in brackets.

The health and postural survey conducted in 1948 was to give decision-makers the knowledge of the incidence of postural defects and age trends in the defects found. It also was hoped to learn something of the factors underlying the development of posture defects in children. The Acting Director-General of Health drew special attention to the training of staff prior to commencement of the survey in order to secure uniformity.
of standards. Analysis indicates that the Education Department, or the Physical Education Centre did not necessarily observe research methodology to secure commonality, validity and reliability. All documentation indicated that the sample had been chosen and not randomly selected. The majority of children in Victoria had been tested in fifteen government schools (68%). The remaining six schools were part of the Catholic school system (27%) and one school represented the Independent sector (5%). The biased selection towards government and Catholic schools will have had a reason. Unfortunately any evidence or indication could not be detected.

The results of the survey were published in 1950. All in all 34,457 children between the ages of five and fourteen had been examined: 7,358 from New South Wales, 6,817 from Queensland, 5,992 from Western Australia, 2,644 from South Australia, 3,204 from Tasmania and 8,548 from Victoria. The incidence of poor posture in children had been proven to be high. Thirty percent of all children had been rated as unsatisfactory. It was also revealed that four percent of children had developed multiple defects. The most vulnerable period, so it was stated, was during pre-school years. 'Postural defects were often present at an early age. Therefore the early years of the child are of the utmost importance in determining postural development, especially the posture of the upper trunk'.

The age-group of five to fourteen year olds provided some confirmation on the specific details of defects and their relevance to the genders. In the less severe grades

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61 Correspondence between the Secretary of the Department of Health and the Education Department/ Physical Education Centre, Victorian Archives, Special case Files, 10537/38/149.
of poor overall posture, there was a slight improvement in boys at eleven years, but otherwise there was no change during the school period. In girls, there was a more marked improvement at ten years of age, and again at thirteen years. The incidence of, what was called within the report, the more severe grade postural defect, showed no variation during the school period.\footnote{Ibid, p. 53.}

The results of the survey gave researchers a first broad insight into health and fitness related questions. There were two parts in the research project. The first, the quantitative part of the research, was restricted to questions with regard to nutrition and socio-economic factors. The second part, also applying quantitative measures, contained the exploration into the Primary School children's posture defects. A qualitative approach, posing questions which could have given answers to, for example, the high incidence of postural defects and whether the school conditions or home environment conditions were a minor or major contributor, were excluded from the study. The conclusions reached by the investigators drew special attention to several weaknesses of the study, including the above-mentioned lack of qualitative data. Although the study demonstrates some weaknesses in design and approach, it should not be forgotten that this is the first attempt by the Australian health departments to launch a study of such magnitude. The significance is that the Commonwealth Government made the opportunity available to assess the posture of children and that this undertaking proved to be more than a gesture. It is assumed that the results were passed on to the School Medical Service as the service remained in operation for many years to come. Little change in the procedure and frequency of medical check ups in schools could be detected after the results became known. The
medical staff would continue to assess each child in three medical examinations during her/his school life.

The survey has been described and analysed in detail in this study so its significance can be appraised within the policy model and the question of control or cooperation between the Commonwealth and the states of Victoria and New South Wales. In terms of relationship between the two levels of government, the conduct and then pursuing implementation or enhancement of programmes, the survey seems to highlight an active partnership. The Commonwealth, as the custodian of the National Fitness Act 1941, provides the infrastructure and the funds for a nationally supervised health evaluation. The states meanwhile make the research staff available to administer the fieldwork. Thus each governmental level contributes with existing resources to keep the cost level down.

The fact, that there is so little known about the posture survey obstructs any inquiry to ascertain an answer on how seriously the findings of this research were treated. The question still remains why the federal government did not respond with an initiative to the results. After all the aim had been to confirm the poor health status of children, a fact which was discussed over many previous decades. An intensive search in various Australian Archives for documents from the federal Department of Health or debates in parliaments proved to be unsuccessful at this stage to reveal more relevant information. But the scarcity of pertinent archival material does not distort the fact that the Commonwealth Department of Health would have been serious when it commissioned the Physical Education Branches to undertake the survey. The book publication gives testimony to the claim. On the other hand it is
rather mysterious that there are no papers written by any medical staff about the health issues raised in the research. One could expect that the *Australian Medical Journal* would have been interested in informing its members on the state of health of Australian school children or any researcher enthusiastic to further synthesize the data.

However, the federal and state departments may have had an agreement to utilise the research findings in their curricula. As this dissertation is only concerned about Victoria and New South Wales, reference is restricted to these two examples. As the findings concurred with the approach the Victorian education authorities had pursued, Victoria would have been confident that the health related curriculum, introduced in 1947, would benefit their students in primary schools around the state. The change of the primary Physical Education curriculum in New South Wales may also be the direct or indirect result of the survey findings. The segment called ‘health protection’ refers to the hygienic environment and health examinations as well as control of disease, and mental hygiene. Direct questions and measurements to ascertain an insight into the state of health protection had been included in the survey. Thus it is a possibility that teaching aspects of health and healthy living were build into the new curriculum as an active plan to socialize the children into healthier live-styles. The general explanatory comment under the heading ‘Health Education’, could be seen as one indicator that the survey results were utilized to the benefit of the young generation:

> The search is for health, now and in the future, through planned individual and social hygiene rather than by external checks and controls.\(^{64}\)

\(^{64}\) Department of Education (NSW), *Curriculum for Primary Schools*, Sydney, p. vii.
However, some assumption may be made within the context of a broader political picture. There may have been reasons for the Commonwealth government not to act upon the national report. The survey was finalised in 1948, the last year of the Chiefley government. In 1949, a federal election took place. During an election campaign neither political party will have paid any attention to a posture survey on school children. Far more importantly, political pressures will have occupied the politicians. After all China had become Communist earlier in 1949 and the outbreak of the Korean War in August 1950 will have tested the newly elected Liberal government's negotiation skills. In addition, Menzies introduced with the election to office in December 1949 a compulsory military service.

In terms of government direction within the National Fitness campaign paradigm, the posture survey for children symbolises a gradually declining role of the military influence in the exposure of physical activity and Physical Education in primary education. It's a formal acknowledgement in the shift from the Commonwealth to the state. The Commonwealth had gradually moved away from the decision-making role and had handed over a substantial part of the responsibility to the state education authorities.

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4.5 The Olympic Influence on Primary Physical Education in the State, 1956-1969

By the beginning of the 1950s Physical Education had made an inroad into the
general education at primary school level. Radford⁶⁶ established in his introductory
chapter on the general state of education in Australia, that Physical Education had
received far more attention in schools than formally. The Victorian special teaching
text Physical Education for Victorian Schools had been well accepted and special
syllabi were devised. In Victoria more than a decade of teacher training at
Melbourne University and Education Department level had educated a steady
number of specialists in Physical Education, securing more space on the time table
for the subject.⁶⁷ Generally, the years after the war saw the consolidation of the first
Australian curriculum.

At the end of the decade, Victorian educationists introduced a concept into
Victorian schools that they had observed in schools in New Zealand.⁶⁸ New
Zealand's conditions, although the country is geographically significantly smaller,
still was compared to the Australian situation. Many small schools were scattered in
rural areas, lacking the expertise of staff. To overcome the isolation factor and
reduced opportunities, so called 'Field Days' had been introduced into the New
Zealand education system. When Victoria took up the concept, the Education
Department recognised the need for children in small rural communities to be
exposed to a wider Physical Education programme. On two occasions during each

⁶⁷ Ibid
⁶⁸ R. Tinning, First Australian Symposium on the History and Philosophy of Physical Education and
240.
of the three school terms, the country children were transported to a large central school, where they were involved in major games and folk dancing for the day. The Supervisor for Physical Education reported in 1955\textsuperscript{69} that these 'Field Days' became very popular and were most successful and were held in most districts in Victoria.

The training of specialist teachers in Physical Education had been successful, but the demand for Physical Educationists was far greater than the supply. Archival documentation points to some of the letters that had been written to the Director of Education, Brigadier General Ramsey, requesting more specialised staff. The country schools were especially hard hit. Ramsey, for example, wrote back to Ballarat Primary School on 12.12.1949, that no staff would be available at all for Ballarat.\textsuperscript{70} The reply to the Victorian Teachers' Union's letter, dated 15.6.1950, was similar, if not written in stronger wording. The Union had suggested reallocating some staff and spreading the expertise more evenly across the state. Wheeler, the Secretary for Ramsay, rejected the proposal strongly, but softened his approach by foreshadowing a review of staff distribution towards the end of the year. He promised maximum benefit from current staffing levels in the following year.\textsuperscript{71}

Taking the extreme shortage of teachers into consideration, the 'Field Days' for country children were one excellent solution to expose the children to sporting specialist areas, and at the same time, foster the communication between country and regional schools. The Minister of Education, in his 1951 Report, elaborated on the teaching of Physical Education in country districts. He mentioned that these


\textsuperscript{70} Victorian Education Department, Classified Correspondence, Victorian Archives, File Box 10537, box 38: 1951.

\textsuperscript{71} Letter dated 19 June 1950. Victorian Education Department, ibid.
'Field Days' also attracted parents to attend. The dancing was followed up on a fortnightly basis. Never before had the Australian Broadcasting Commission received any mention together with Physical Education. Now, the Honourable P.P. Inchbald reported to the Victorian parliament that the national radio stations broadcast dancing sessions to rural classrooms.\textsuperscript{72} The selection of dances, according to degree of difficulty and age group, combined with the selection of music and the step by step teaching of the dance, would have been far too difficult for the general classroom teacher. The specialist Physical Education teacher could reach hundreds of class rooms and provide the methodology, while the classroom teacher was able to concentrate on the presentation and control the class. Students and teachers were able to co-join an activity and learn together.

The year 1950 saw the Education Department issue a new set of Regulations and General Instructions to its teaching and administration staff. There were three regulations that had direct relevance to the Physical Education syllabus in Primary schools. They had been previously published in the Education Gazette and Teachers' Aids on an annual basis since 1945.\textsuperscript{73} The new regulations published in 1950 superseded the ones published in 1941. Regulation IV(A) lay down the requirements for a Swimming and Life-Saving certificate for pupils. The other two regulations, Regulation XXXII(F) and (E), referred to teaching essentials for staff to hold. The requirements for a Certificate of Competency in Swimming and Life-Saving, and the Certificate of Competency in Physical Education would be published from then on every year in the Teachers' Gazette. The activity of

\textsuperscript{73} An example of such publication is: Victoria. \textit{Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid}, vol. 45, 16th July 1945, p. 131.}
swimming provided a major concern for the public throughout the 1950s and 1960s. Primary documentation held in the Archives\textsuperscript{74} demonstrated the strong belief by parents and other citizens, that every child, metropolitan and country students especially should have compulsory swimming tuition. The Education Department is on record replying that swimming classes for children under eight or nine years of age were ineffective and that these findings were the basis for the decision to make swimming classes optional.\textsuperscript{75} In a letter to the NSW Director-General of Education, H.S. Wyndham, the Secretary to the Victorian Director of Education, D.H. Wheeler, outlined the teaching conditions for swimming in the state of Victoria. Where facilities were available, swimming instruction was given in school time, but it was not compulsory for children to attend. There is no mention of what alternative classes were offered to non-swimmers. Instruction was generally carried out by Physical Education staff, who were traditionally placed in the metropolitan areas and the large country centres. Children who were in grade V in November and in grade VI in February the following year were targeted for the classes. The Victorian Education Department issued its own swimming certificates. The requirements were outlined in the 1950 Regulations, as mentioned earlier. The Department held a policy on the teacher-pupil ratio during the swimming classes. D.H. Wheeler made the comment that 30 students were the upper limit for each instructor.\textsuperscript{76} Children outside the major centres were left to chance. If they were close to facilities and if their teacher was a competent swimmer, they could be taught. If either component, facilities or competence of staff, was missing, the children would be deprived of the

\textsuperscript{74} Victorian Education Department, Classified Correspondence. Victorian Archives, File Box 10537, boxes 39-41.
\textsuperscript{75} reference to a letter, dated 12 August 1960. Education Department Files. Victorian Archives. Reference Number 10537, Box 40
\textsuperscript{76} reference to letter from Department of Education, NSW (Ref no 52/613/53803), dated 12 February 1953. Education Department Files. Victorian Archives. Reference number 10537, box 39.
opportunity to become water safe. It has to be acknowledged that the Department had to deal with enormous difficulties. Shortages in staff and facility resources, and the constant challenge to overcome the geographical harshness, and subsequent complaints by parents and other interested parties, had to be overcome. Against all these odds, during the summer season in 1955-56, the greatest number of children ever recorded in one year, 32,246, learnt to swim and 25,828 gained Junior, Senior or Bronze Medallion awards.\(^77\)

The measured outcomes reported by the primary Physical Education staff to Parliament are impressive. One hundred twenty-eight teachers visited all parts of Victoria during the year 1958-59, to offer instruction in Physical Education and swimming. At each of the three remedial gymnasia two hundred children per week received a course of exercises designed to correct special physical defects.\(^78\) That programme was the link between the School Medical Service and the general teaching programme. The influence of the National Fitness Council and its three pronged objectives came closest to the highest point of diversities within Physical Education programming. A large number of students were able to receive special attention in regards to their postural defects that would have had a future impact on their health status. The next year, the Minister, J.S. Bloomfield, released additional figures to stress the impact the Physical Education staff had on the physical wellbeing of the pupils. Swimming still constituted the main concern by the public. The release, that approximately 55,000 children in the Metropolitan had been taught at least one lesson in swimming per week, may have been designed to calm critics.


and assure parents that their children had been taken care of. Figures for the country school population were omitted in the Report, which may be significant politically.

The year 1955 became the most active year during that decade. Finally, the dearth of trained Physical Education personnel had to be acknowledged. With the admission, positive steps had to be taken to overcome the acute shortage of teachers. Mr. Hamilton, the Organiser\textsuperscript{79} of Physical Education in the state, requested studentships in Physical Education to attract more students into the discipline. The Education Department later that year granted two positions. Upon Mr. Hamilton's insistence, twenty more became available in 1959. The latter number was far more promising to be effective in the future. The first two scholarship positions opened up for application, only made a statement, an acknowledgment that the overwhelming shortage had to be addressed at some stage. The state also in future decades would be hesitant to approach the topic of Physical Education teacher training head on. The reluctance would linger on into the 1970s and 1980s, putting forward a Band-Aid approach by recruiting specialists from overseas.

Melbourne had been awarded the 1956 Olympic Games. Prior to the major sporting event, a few changes could be detected before the sporting world came to present their ideals and approaches to the Australian audiences. Eunice Gill, a staff member on the Education Department's roll and teaching at the Melbourne Teachers' College, had been granted study leave in 1951. During these twelve months, Miss Eunice Gill had visited several major teaching organisations in the United States of

\textsuperscript{79} The title of Organiser was changed to Supervisor of Physical Education during 1964. At that time the position was raised to inspectorial level. The new status entitled the Supervisor to a supportive position of Assistant Supervisor.
America and in Britain. A comprehensive report to the Victorian Department outlined some new developments in Physical Education, particularly for women, which had happened overseas. One of these innovations was a methodology named 'movement education'. The origin was in Britain. The essence of the new approach to activity was to educate the child through movement. Self discovery, self determination, self expression, initiative and decision-making was part of the activity. The teacher would not direct and pre-think the activity, he or she would guide and suggest. Movement became an interchange, intellectual and physical, between teacher and student, or group of students. Physical Education was seen to make some contribution to social education. In 1955, Movement Education was officially introduced into Victoria when Doris West conducted a brief lecture tour. Further exposure to workshops in movement education was offered during the International Pre-Olympic Congress. Some Physical Education teachers may have taken ideas back to their schools and experimented with the concept in their class rooms. Officially, Movement Education was introduced into the curriculum of upper primary schools by 1965, some ten years later. Primary schools did not take up the challenge of education through movement. The jump in teaching style from command style to movement exploration may have been far too difficult to master.

The International Congress in Physical Education will have given Australian teachers the first understanding of Physical Education in other parts of the world. Australian Physical Educationists had been in the past frequently invited to World Congresses but they never had been granted permission to attend. The last invitation was found in the historical documentation and gave a good example. It showed an invitation to Vancouver, to the British Commonwealth and Empire Conference on
Physical Education from 26 to 28 July 1954. All preparations had been made, but at the last minute, Cabinet requested 'no action', meaning that an immediate cancellation had been forthcoming. Victorian teachers had never had an opportunity to join international dialogue before Melbourne became host city for the International Congress in Physical Education, held immediately prior to the Olympic Games.

The Commonwealth of Australia, represented by the Minister of Health, Sir Earle Page, had agreed that the National Fitness Council was to sponsor the first Australian Congress. The Organising Committee mirrored the philosophy and policies of the National Fitness movement. Representatives from the national and state education departments, the universities, the National Fitness Council, and the Physical Education Association worked together with delegates from the Olympic host city and the Australian Olympic Federation. Sir Frank Beaurepaire, former Olympian and first Organiser of Swimming in Victoria during the years 1911 and 1915, instigator of 'The Herald' Swimming Certificate, as well as former Lord Mayor of Melbourne, had been chosen for the position of Chairman of this Organising Committee. Mr. L. Hamilton represented the Physical Education Branch, and Dr Fritz Duras the University of Melbourne. Any Physical Education specialist teacher who was interested in attending the Congress was encouraged to

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80 Lengthy correspondence between the Commonwealth Department of Health and the Director of Education to send Mr. L. Hamilton, Supervisor of Physical Education, to the British Commonwealth and Empire Games between December 1953 and May 1954. Education Department Files. Victorian Archives. Reference number 10537, box 39.
participate. Melbourne witnessed its first dynamic intellectual interchange in the field of Physical Education prior to the active feast of Olympic competition.

The Olympic Games were to leave a strong mark in the history of Sport in Australia. The exposure to many unknown sports opened up a diversity of activities to the public that promised an upsurge in the demand for participation. The Commonwealth Health Department used the International Congress in Physical Education as a technical conference. The Director-General of Health, A.J. Metcalfe, in his letter to the various state Directors of Education foreshadowed to replace the annual National Fitness Council's meeting with the Congress. The Congress was seen to give Australian Directors or Organisers of Physical Education an opportunity to meet with international visitors, such as A.D. Munroe, Head of the Department of Physical Education, University of Birmingham; Great Britain, Dr. C.H. McCloy, Research Emeritus Professor, Division of Physical Education, Iowa State University, U.S.A., and Dorothy Ainsworth, Head of Physical Education Department, Smith College, Mass/USA. Dorothy Ainsworth was also at the time President of the International Congress on Physical Education for Girls and Women. These international visitors were highly trained and greatly respected professionals in their home country. They were able to bring the knowledge they had gathered in their own country and other parts of the Western world to Melbourne to share with other professionals. For both groups, the Australians and their overseas colleagues, the interchange in experience will have been at the centre of presentations and discussions.

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The following years do not reveal any change in the Education Departments' policies and attitude to Physical Education at Primary school level. It may have been coincidental, due to the inspiration of intellectual exchange or political pressure prior to the election to be held in May 1958, that the Victorian Liberal Party, under the leadership of Premier Henry Bolte, constituted a Committee to report on the status of education in the state in September 1957.\textsuperscript{83} The Report was released in 1960. It is commonly known as the Ramsay Report, as Major-General A.H. Ramsay, the Director of Education, had been appointed to head the Commission and prepare the Report.

The Report has to be viewed in conjunction with the new Education Act for which the Governor of Victoria had given assent on the 30th September 1958, and which came into operation on the 1st April 1959.\textsuperscript{84} The previous Education Act had been approved by parliament in 1928. Only amendments had been incorporated in the ensuing years. The modernisation of regulations within an Education Act and concerning Physical Education had never taken place until thirty years later. In the 1928 Act no mention had been made of physical activity for students. Only health attracted the attention. The Act had decreed that

\begin{quote}
the secular instruction to be given in every state school shall in the case of children over nine years of age include the teaching of lessons from some recognised lesson books on the laws of health and some recognised temperance lesson books.\textsuperscript{85}
\end{quote}

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\textsuperscript{85} Victoria. Education Act 1928. Laws of health and temperance lessons, 1b, s.22, p. 6.
Accordingly, the Education policies reflected the tenor of the Act that was strengthened by the National Fitness Act 1941. The policy framework 1939, as presented on page 113, started from the policy aim that national health had to be achieved. The attitudinal stage, as the testing stage for evaluation, stipulated the health of the population and the passing of the Military Entrance Test, as indicators of success. Temperance, or aspects of abstinence and self-restriction, especially in the consumption of alcohol or tobacco, was never covered in the Victorian textbook, 'The Grey Book'. Yet, in the Commonwealth Government National Fitness Policy Framework 1939, the internalised stage was to include three aspects, self-reliance, self-respect and self-restraint. As self-restraint is part of the notion of temperance one would assume that the policy had aimed for children to be taught about temperance. In the Physical Education classes temperance was not part of the syllabus. The Victorian School Magazine took over the role as educator in this delicate subject and published numerous articles over the years. Anti-smoking and anti-drinking were at the centre of discussion and were meant to prepare the children for a substance-free life in which self-restraint was at the centre.

The National Fitness Act 1941 could be identified as the overriding Act in regards to Physical Education teaching in the state. Health and temperance are at the nucleus of the Act. Fitness may be seen as a spin-off from health. The three segments of the Act provided the opportunity to maintain or gain health, and with it, fitness. Temperance would have been valued as behaviour that secured health, as no social or non-prescribed substances would endanger health and fitness. The tertiary courses trained the teachers to understand and internalise the concept of health and temperance, the

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86 Ibid
schools would promote it and the National Fitness Council, provided the practical promotion outside the school hours.

In 1958, the new Education Act did not move away from the notion of health, and again included the teaching of health and temperance as the prime aim.

The instruction to be given in every state school shall include the teaching of health and temperance.87

The Ramsay Report reiterated the sentiment and offered a workable direction to administrators and teachers. Section 85 (g) focused on the personal attributes and read

education will develop the type of character, based for most of us on our religious heritage but for others on high ethical standards derived from other bases...to improve in the future- including such traits as physical and mental courage...88

while subsection (d)(iii) concentrated on basic educational characteristics and personal attributes of an individual that education hoped to foster. It included some appreciation of the nature of physical and mental health, and the will to develop these both personally and in the community.89

89 Ibid
'Physical and mental health and courage' together could only be developed as part of the curriculum in the Health and Physical Education classes. No other subject was intended to foster and develop appreciation of the psycho-motor domain. Ramsay firmly implanted into his report the necessity for the inclusion of the psycho-motor domain into the teaching programmes. He paved the future direction of the Education Department for the Health and Physical Education curricula in Victorian Primary schools.

The Ramsay Report enlarged and detailed the foundation of the National Fitness Act 1941 and the Education Act 1958 and thus renewed its partnership. For the first time in the history of education, physical education was seriously discussed in an Education Department document. That may be interpreted as a sign that the education authorities started to accept the responsibility as a curriculum direction setter, and considering the operating policy guidelines, with the Commonwealth as the advising and collaborative force. The outline of the present conditions of the administration, and teaching, followed by the problems facing the present system included the very essence of the Health and Physical Education syllabus as seen from the Commonwealth perspective. After all, over the years, the Commonwealth had not abdicated its influence in Physical Education. It would not do so for many years to come. All the Department Regulations, the new Education Act and the Ramsay Report all seemed to accept the status quo and built their laws, regulations and recommendations on the partnership between Victoria and the Commonwealth in which the federal government exerted the overriding power.
The Ramsay Report would support the Commonwealth policy and guide the
direction of education for at least the next twenty years, when, after this extensive
time, the Ministry of Education commissioned new Reports during the 1980s. The
study revealed so far that the general objectives of state education opened the way
for a more diverse and individual syllabus in the state. The clarity of the objectives
and the certainty that all of them must be included in the education of every child
within the ages of compulsory schooling made it imperative to include Physical
Education into the educational programme. The states strengthened their influence
in curriculum planning and implementation over time and the subsequent upgrading
of the professional qualifications in the Department Regulations in 1962,\(^90\) may well
have been one revised outcome of the Report.

The Education Act 1958 also set out general provisions for the instruction in various
subjects in schools at all levels. L.G. Hamilton, the state's Organiser in Physical
Education, summarised the policies and conditions in the primary school sector in an
attachment to a letter by the Secretary to the Prime Minister's Department, E.J.
Bunting, to the Embassy of the Republic of Korea.\(^91\) These conditions prevailed to
the end of the decade and were only partly revoked in 1971.

The provisions, as outlined in the instructions, catered for each child to have access
to Physical Education. Depending upon the age of the child, the time involvement

\(^90\) In the Education Department Regulations 1962, a new standard for Primary Physical Education
teachers was announced. A Trained Physical Education Teacher's Certificate (Primary) had been
devised by the Education Department in conjunction with Melbourne University. The two year
Diploma of Physical Education and one years primary teacher training entitled the successful
graduand to the Certificate. See Education Department of Victoria. Regulations, general Instructions
and Information 1962, regulation XXXIII.(H), pp. 124-25.

\(^91\) Letter by E.J. Bunting to Mr. Coulthard, Secretary, Premier's Department, Melbourne, requesting
Education Department Files. Victorian Archives, File no. 10537, box 39.
would vary. Children in the Infant Department (6-8 years) were to have 100 minutes
time-tabled per week. Children in the middle and upper primary years received 120
mins, or around three 40 minutes periods of Physical Education per week. As soon
as children entered the secondary or technical schools, the time frame for the subject
would fluctuate, ranging from 45 minutes to 135.\footnote{Cited in Mr. L.G. Hamilton's response, dated 9.9.1965. Education Department Files, ibid.} The increase in hours at middle
and upper primary level is well in line with the findings of the Postural Defect
Survey (1950), where it had been statistically proven, that corrective exercises are
most effective for girls between 10 and 11 and boys between the ages of 11 and 12.
The Education Department of Victoria had acknowledged the findings of the
Commonwealth investigation and put into practice recommendations to correct the
posture. The 100 minutes per week also supported the notion that postural defects
were often present at an early age. The general trend to devote more than 2 class-
hours to Physical Education per week may have been a reaction to the remark by the
researchers that "teachers expressed the opinion that the mental alertness of the
children increased with physical exercises".\footnote{Commonwealth of Australia – Department of Health, op.cit., p.16.} The educators reading the statement
would have inevitably appreciated the comment.
4.6 Summary

By the time Victoria moved into the 1970s the Commonwealth policy for Physical Education in Primary schools had been firmly realised. The period of reconstruction in Education had become a period of construction for Physical Education in Victoria. The fifteen years post World War II witnessed changes in, and strengthening of, the subject that may never be repeated during any other future time frame.

The Commonwealth Fitness policy had sparked off a variety of activities from three separate, but interlocked, organisations and approaches. The financial stronghold had been created and maintained by the Commonwealth Health Department. The financial accountability and restraints experienced by the tertiary, primary and community sectors guided each organisation in their endeavour to reach the implementation stages of the policy, as directed by the federal Health Minister.

The Education Department, Melbourne University and Teachers' College collaborated successfully with the National Fitness Council in Victoria, but their links were restricted to a close working relationship. Each organisation had its own management working towards a common goal, namely the health and fitness of the Victorian children.

The period under investigation demonstrated a steady progression in the strengthening and acceptance of physical activity in Victoria. Before and during World War II, a shift in attitude to the subject had taken place. The result evidenced the first culmination in integrated thinking. The attitudinal change happened at
policy level, within government departments. To achieve the governments' goals, the new syllabus, in collaboration with programmes conducted by the National Fitness Council, was to change the attitude of the general public, children and adults alike. The infiltration of the policy therefore had to be initiated from as many angles as possible, hence the integrated approach.

Victoria's first attempt to integration was by no means unsuccessful. The Physical Education Branch's new curriculum was all embracing. The forward planning included girls as equal partners visibly taking part in Physical Education. The curriculum visually promoted a co-educational approach. The teaching of Physical Education moved children's health into the centre of interest. With the help of professionally trained staff, the medical section of both state and federal governments strengthened the Physical Education policy. The implementation included children with postural defects, resulting in the first national postural survey.

The partnership between the Teacher Training institutions, the Education Department and the National Fitness Council, as well as experience of different professional practices overseas, had an influence on decision-makers in Melbourne. The Ramsey Report, highly respected for its detail, had been constituted to critically evaluate the position of education in the state and to provide educational decision-makers and specialists with a position evaluation from where modifications were initiated. Its impact on Physical Education would be reflected in the succeeding decade when policy changes would be continued and the state would become a stronger more dominating and vocal partner in curriculum matters.
CHAPTER 5

INCORPORATING THE FEDERAL INITIATIVE:

NEW SOUTH WALES 1945 - 1969

As discussed in the previous chapter, the Commonwealth of Australia had assented to a National Fitness Act in 1941 to enable the federal government to establish a National Fitness Council. A policy had been developed to initiate several programmes across the country. The aim was to improve the fitness level of young Australians. Victoria, and all other states, would interpret the regulations and directions associated with the programmes and grants. While Victoria’s relationship with the Commonwealth and the resulting programmes were researched in the last chapter, this chapter will concentrate on the New South Wales conditions.
5.1 Physical Education status during WWII

By the time World War II had ended, Gordon Young, the Director for Physical Education in the state of New South Wales had established his position. A number of improvements and changes to the '1933 English Syllabus'\(^1\) had been put into operation. The intentions of the 1941 National Fitness Act slowly started to penetrate. Young had established National Fitness Centres throughout the state to create the base from which the work was to be infiltrated.

When Young had taken up the position as Director for Physical Education, the general framework for the Commonwealth Fitness Act was already in place. The New South Wales government had agreed with the Commonwealth to set up a symbiotic relationship and thus had advertised the position to be two-pronged, one part to be devoted to National Fitness and the other to Physical Education. In the Statement of Duties of the Director\(^2\), the policy of the Commonwealth became very clear: the Director carried a dual role. He represented the highest office with regard to Physical Education in the Education Department and as Executive Officer, he was responsible for the efficient organisation, conduct, management and development of all aspects of the work of the National Fitness Council. The Commonwealth National Fitness policy was perfectly embodied by one person and administered in one office. The levels of responsibility covered the full range physical activity: from the

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1 Board of Education, *Syllabus of Physical Training*, London, 1933 referred to in this locally used term. The literature at hand does not indicate the changes which had been undertaken und distinguish the so called 'English syllabus' from the Australian version.

2 Unsigned document, November 1938. NSW Archives: Special Files, Education Department, box 12/1422.
school/community level to state and moved on from the intermediate point to the national level. There was not one aspect that the Director for Physical Education could not directly approach or tap.

Table 10: Areas of Responsibility of Director for Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Director for Physical Education</th>
<th>Executive Member National Fitness Council</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Training</td>
<td>Training courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Programmes</td>
<td>Recreation Programmes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table number eleven explains the cooperation between the National Fitness Council and the Education Department and how Community programmes were interlinked with school programmes.

Part of the more detailed job explanation of duties revealed the additional responsibility the National Fitness Campaign incorporated. Young was to co-operate with officers of the Sydney Teachers' College and the University of Sydney in directing the study of Physical Education, and work towards the acceptance and accreditation of a degree in the new subject. Last, but not least, his responsibilities included carrying into effect and supervising a comprehensive programme of Physical Education and recreation within the school system and throughout the community. Fitness for children was to be instigated at school and community level, as the Commonwealth Government had envisaged. The state responsibility for
Physical Education was thus not determined by the New South Wales Education Department but controlled by the Health Department in Canberra. The job description for Gordon Young’s position was blunt in its wording, constantly referring to the blending the school and community responsibilities.

By the time World War II was declared over, the groundwork for the development of the Physical Education programmes and the setting up of National Fitness centres around the state had been laid. The Commonwealth policy to promote Health in the state of New South Wales at school and in the community had been practised. The grants the Commonwealth had made available for training of teachers, education programmes and commitment to community recreation, had been put to full use over a number of years.

When Young had been appointed to this almost insurmountable job, he began with the training of teachers. In 1938, there were no Physical Education teachers employed by the Department. Young immediately arranged a special course for six weeks during 1938. Ten men and twenty women teachers with at least four years training experience were chosen as participants. These teachers represented the first ‘itinerary’ Physical Education staff in New South Wales. Brave enough after only limited training opportunities, these men and women travelled around the country, visiting class teachers and ‘sharing their expertise’ with them. For a number of years, until the first cohort of Physical Education students had graduated at the end of 1942,

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3 Cunningham et al., op. cit., p. 164.
"flying squads" were appointed at the beginning of every school year. Most members of the previous team were appointed to larger post-primary and secondary schools as Physical Education specialists. In other words, the experienced Primary school teachers with the additional training in Physical Education were taken out of the Primary system after 10 months and formed the beginning of the new breed of post-primary Physical Education teachers in New South Wales. During a span of 3 years though, all 'flying squad' members were acknowledged as the only recognised 'specialist' teachers in the Education Department who travelled the state, demonstrating methods and techniques. The limited number of personnel and the constantly expanding number of schools in the state made short visits inevitable.

In addition to the short course, Young conducted a teachers' Physical Education camp during the summer vacation in 1939. This camp would become the first official camp organised by the newly appointed Director and would set the benchmark for vacation schools for teachers around the nation. A significant number (140) of teachers attended the ten day in-service course to obtain a working knowledge of the 1933 Physical Education Syllabus with the addition of an extensive games programme, and, in the case of training for girls, some folk dancing. At this point, Young began with his mission to involve the practising primary teachers in the development of an all-Australian syllabus.

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4 Amongst the country people these teachers were humorously referred to as 'Flying Squad'. M. Swain, Physical Education in England, America and N.S.W. 1940-1960 and Allied Subjects. Sydney, 1988, p. 14.


6 Ibid, 310.
By 1945 Gordon Young had laid the very foundation for tackling the challenges to come. The first Physical Education teachers had successfully completed the three year Certificate course at Sydney Teachers' College and had been appointed on the staff in state schools. Young used the 1933 *British Physical Education Syllabus* as the prime resource for the very early curricula, while he encouraged input from teachers and formed various groups to modify the curricula to suit the local needs until revised curricula could be published. For the National Fitness campaign, Young had set up, as his charter required, National Fitness committees throughout the state and had motivated them to be involved in a massive fitness or recreation drive.

To follow the National Fitness Council Charter and consolidate all activities conducted by the Education Department, the Sydney Teachers' College and the National Fitness Council, a meeting of Board of Studies in Physical Education, under the chairmanship of the Vice-Chancellor, University of Sydney, resolved that the National Fitness Council recommends to the Minister the continuance of the Board of Studies in Physical Education as a basis for the coordination of training between the University, Teachers' College and the National Fitness

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7 In New South Wales, the holder of a Certificate from the Teachers' College was eligible to take up a position as a qualified teacher in Primary schools. The first two years prepared the general Primary teacher, only the third year was mainly devoted to Physical Education


9 Ibid, p.50.
Council, and as a means to plan and carry into effect a joint Physical Education building for training purposes.\textsuperscript{10}

The friction to possibly change to a new office location was resolved by the Minister, Clive Evatt, who, shortly after his appointment as Minister of Education, granted the move from the Education Building to the old public library, at the corner of Macquarie and Bent Streets. This new office would be known as the Headquarters for the Physical Education Branch and the NSW National Fitness Council.

5.2 The New Curriculum Structure

In his unpublished PhD thesis, Wilfrid Ewens alludes to Young's leadership style. His interpretation was that Gordon Young was never comfortable with the bureaucratic structures he was working in, and apparently made little effort to understand the regulations under which he was supposed to work. 11 Ewen's interpretation is not shared. The author believes that the apparent disregard for regulations and procedures could have had other properties, both belonging to an autocratic leader. Firstly, the Fitness Council structure included, among other branches and subcommittees, eight state level Advisory Committees, all established by Young under the National Fitness Council's charter. Secondly, the National Fitness Council structure in NSW was tightly intertwined with the Physical Education Branch's. Some of the Council's Advisory committees were directly concerned about activities and programmes in schools, additionally branching out into the communities. 12 Young was in charge of every activity and was the only person who was in tune with the administration of both organisations. Young's reported ignorance of bureaucratic protocol 13 could be judged as administrative necessity. The chosen autocratic leadership style would have been a way to keep control and/or a signal to every subordinate that he was the only person in these two organisations who was in possession of the total picture, and had been given the authority to request action. Young, as will emerge throughout the chapter, was a highly task oriented manager who had to cope with two demanding 'masters', and

12 Ibid, p.32.
13 Ibid.
who became the driving force behind the development of Physical Education and Recreation in the state.

Physical Education for children was high on the department's agenda and Young placed equal attention to the task. Yet his primary interpretation, and therefore emphasis, had moved to the older age group of students. Secondary Physical Education received far greater attention in New South Wales than Primary school Physical Education programmes. Limitations to the training facilities at Sydney Teachers' College had led to the decision to staff only Secondary schools with specialist teachers. L.G. Hamilton, Organiser of Physical Education in Victoria, in his report on a ten day visit to the New South Wales Education Department, was duly impressed with the extensive staffing in secondary schools. He had been sent to New South Wales for the purpose of studying the general policy that governed the activities of Physical Education in the neighbouring state. Hamilton enthusiastically detailed that all post-primary schools were staffed with specialists and some schools had even two specialists.\(^4\) In Primary schools 'specialists' were the class teacher with additional PE training of various duration supported by itinerant teachers from the Physical Education Branch. Within the boundaries of this dissertation, the author is concentrating on Primary School curricula, and related recreation innovations, and therefore had to limit the focus on Young's achievements.

It took Young ten years before he was able to secure a team of three senior officers in the Physical Education Branch. Lieut-Col. H.H. Hardwick was promoted to

\(^4\) Mr. Hamilton's report on Physical Education in N.S.W., March 1950, Victorian Education Department. Classified Correspondence 1853-1976. VPRS, Special Case Files. 892/96/1380A.
Deputy Director and Eunice Gill as Assistant Supervisor (Female) in 1948. An official memorandum to Education Department and National Fitness Council members\textsuperscript{15} outlines the duties of the new appointees, streamlining their duties and allocating areas of responsibility. A communiqué summed up the areas of responsibility:

The efficient conduct of the Physical Education programme requires that close co-operation be maintained in the conduct of the supervisory functions of these officers. This is also true in regard to the comprehensive programme of National Fitness and Physical Education activities.\textsuperscript{16}

Clearly, these officers, employed by the New South Wales Education Department, had to form a strong support base for Young, and faced demanding daily challenges to satisfy the requirements of the job. These tasks fluctuated between the Physical Education Branch and the National Fitness Council's responsibilities, or combined both interests.

Physical Education generally, but in Primary schools particularly, received little visible attention in the late 1940s and early 1950s. Only behind the scene groups of parents, administrators and inspection staff, Teachers' College lecturers and teachers, considered, prepared, consulted and refined a new Physical Education syllabus for Primary school children. The 1952 Physical Education course, published in a total

\textsuperscript{15} NSW Archives, Physical Education Branch, Correspondence File. Reference Number 12/1421, Document number 47/NF72/5851, 15.4.1948.

\textsuperscript{16} Ibid.
curriculum programme for Kindergarten to grade six, generally referred to as the 'Blue Book,' 17 was incorporated into the Health Education course. The very fact that Physical Education and Health Education were amalgamated into one course, where health was at the very centre of the teaching, pointed to the philosophy of the original power behind the programme. The Health Education course was tailor-made to express the Commonwealth policy. A curriculum statement could not have been made more explicit. In this subject area, also the New South Wales state government had abdicated its responsibility to the Commonwealth. Contrary to claims by educational writer-historians and politicians, the federal government had asserted its power on state education authorities to achieve its own goals. (Birch 1975, Spaull 1986).

Physical and Health Education was offered as one course, but taught as two distinct subjects. The structure, as presented in Table Eleven, depicted the total integrated nature of the syllabus. Health, its teaching, its personal significance, was at par with Physical Education. The equity between the two subjects in the new syllabus is distinctly a New South Wales feature. It sets both states apart, as Victoria concentrated on the extended Physical Education programme and 'softly' set the scene for equity between the two genders. New South Wales focused also on the equity issue, but with an emphasis on integration. This two-subject integration approach continued with the philosophy practised in the state where health and physical education were seen to lead to the fulfilment of the nation-wide policy to increase fitness levels of young Australians.

17 The blue binding, and reference to the Victorian 'Grey Book', identified the publication quickly amongst teachers.
The reviewed Primary Physical Education syllabus was the first Australian based programme in New South Wales. The first section was the most elaborate and concentrated on general basic skills and their attainment at each individual grade level. Teachers were able to choose the activities from a range of suggestions. The Department had equipped most schools with basic facilities and equipment. The syllabi reflected the range of available small equipment in gymnasia or in the schoolyard and made use of it. Teachers only had to follow the suggestions and notes, and by doing so, were guiding their pupils through the progressive stages of skill development. The section on games lesson referred back to the Skill section and added a number of lead-up activities for a few games, such as rugby league, Australian rules football, basketball and softball, to quote an example from the grade five and six games skill practice part. The material for traditional folk dancing, rhythmic activities, athletics, swimming and camping were inadequate, as they only made a general comment about the value of the activity, and offered a few 'topic

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suggestions'. The curriculum basically was a document from which the school could have developed a working syllabus from which the class teacher with extended knowledge in Physical Education would have been able to develop a lesson plan.
5.2 The Revised Physical Education Policy After 1945

The National Fitness Council's policy (1938), endorsed by the National Fitness Act 1941, was to improve Australians' fitness levels. The Physical Education programmes were the first stage of implementation at school level. The policy did not specify the approach to the subject, but it should not be forgotten that the National Health Department had formulated the policy under the National Fitness Act. In the case of New South Wales, the bond between the Education Department and the National Fitness Council did not only appear to be very close, the dual role was declared with most documents signed by Gordon Young. Whether corresponding as the Head of Physical Education or as Executive Member of the National Fitness Council, both titles would be listed under his signature. By signing in both organisations' name, Gordon Young confirmed responsibility of the sentiment of the document or decision being made between Fitness Council and Education Department.
The policy model in operation in New South Wales was the same as in Victoria. Both states built their Physical Education on the same foundation. While the Discussion chapter will elaborate on the vast differences which marked both interpretations, it is important at this point to mention that the New South Wales' model of implementation placed enormous emphasis on the community sector. The application of the school curriculum pointed to the marginalisation of Physical Education in small schools. A small school had not been defined in the curriculum document, it is assumed though, that most schools outside the Metropolitan area or
larger regional centres, would have classified themselves as a small school. By allowing small schools to reduce Physical Education time requirements from 110/135 minutes per week (depending on the grade) to twenty minutes, it provided an invitation to many schools to rationalise their intention to reduce the Physical Education time. Such a loop-hole gave almost every Primary School Principal in the state an opportunity to limit the physical experiences of the children.

It is interesting to note that Health Education featured prominently in the proposed curriculum for small schools.\textsuperscript{19} Practical Hygiene was part of the general Assembly. Every morning, five minutes were allocated for that task. In addition Health Education was instructed for thirty minutes once per week. The balance between Physical Education and Health tuition was therefore twenty minutes against fifty-five minutes, where Health Education enjoyed more than twice as much time. The philosophy of an educational programme cannot be more clearly expressed. No words can substitute the true attitude to the programme that is explicitly expressed in the actual time allocation to the curriculum area on the daily time-table.

The small school situation may have been the worst scenario the Education Department had to cover in its Primary curriculum document. After all, Physical Education in the state had a greater visibility in Secondary schools. The Diploma courses were directed towards secondary school teachers. Although Primary class teachers were trained in Physical Education in the vacation school programmes and

\textsuperscript{19} Ibid, p. xiv.
the interest in these short courses was high, Young and his staff would have been aware of some hesitation and uneasiness among the generalist teachers to instruct in a relatively unfamiliar discipline. Thus the suggestion by him to introduce a Physical Education Bulletin to be prepared by the Assistant Supervisor-Training (Mr. J. Denham), and issued regularly to teachers, who specialised in the subject, at secondary, not primary level, can be viewed with some surprise. The intent to reach the specialised practitioner, the Physical Education teacher in Secondary schools, administratively could not necessarily be explained. The secondary specialist had been catered for in the past. The Physical Education Association produced its own publication, the Physical Education Journal to inform and provide professional development for its members. The real need rested with the Primary school teachers who looked for increased guidance, ideas and explanations.

In 1953 an intensive learn-to-swim campaign was launched in the metropolitan area, especially in North Sydney, Kogarah East Hill and Burwood. Teachers were seconded between the first of October and first of April every summer season, to provide intensive swimming classes over ten days. Children could attend weekly, vacation or special classes to learn the skill. The swimming programmes also fitted into the Education Department - Community activity - professional training triangle. Parents could choose between school activity and after school programme, or, if

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21 The Australian Physical Education Association was founded in 1954. Its first Federal Council meeting was held in Melbourne on 6 and 7 November under the chairmanship of Associate Professor Fritz Duras from Melbourne University. The establishment of a national professional association had been put forward at a meeting in May 1951 which was attended by delegates from all states. In: G.F.Kentish, Fritz Duras. The Father of Physical Education in Australia, Kingswood/SA, 1984, pp. 70-71.
needed, enroll the child in vacation classes. Everything was done to prevent children from drowning. A statement by the Hon. R.J. Heffron, Deputy Premier and Minister for Education highlighted that ten thousand third grade pupils from Sydney Primary schools were taught to swim within one year. Swimming lessons were extremely popular as part of the school curriculum and outside the school, conducted under the auspices of the National Fitness Council. In New South Wales, children at the end of third grade were targeted for swimming lessons, while in Victoria, the Education Department insisted in statements to parents and swimming personnel, that professional opinion agreed that children before the age of nine or ten year were too immature to learn effectively. In the meantime, the programme was extended to country centres in New South Wales and thousands of children were moving through a learn-to-swim programme for the next ten and more years. Every year, until 1965, twenty-four teachers were seconded to the Physical Education Branch for two years. The seconded teachers returned back to schools in two groups to retain expertise and train new teachers. The last new intake was 1964 when the Education Department admitted that it was no longer able to take teachers out of the schools, as it faced an acute teacher shortage. A memorandum from the Physical Education Branch on 13 August 1965 substantiated the claim and offered some specific regional detail for the Primary school sector.

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22 Education Department Files. NSW Archives. Central Records Branch. Reference Number 18/4385.16. General Correspondence File Number PE 000158: only year 1957, no other detail, was recorded.

23 Gordon Young’s response to the Director of Primary Education, 4.8.64, referred to extreme shortage of staff. Education Department Files. NSW Archives. Central Records Branch. Record Number 18/4385.16. General Correspondence File Number 55/615/51761.

24 Education Department File, ibid. General Correspondence File Number 57/PE58/14802.
Table 13:  Physical Education staff - regional placements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary staff available for swimming</th>
<th>PE specialists available</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newcastle</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff shortage</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wollongong</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Young's solution to the problem fitted well into his thinking and the philosophies of the two governments he served, the Federal and the New South Wales. Once the predicament of lack of Physical Education staff became known, he offered to create twenty new positions for Recreation Officers during 1965 and 1966.\(^{25}\) How much Young would have been aware of union reaction was not known. No document in the files referred before to the New South Wales Teachers' Federation. Young soon became the centre-point for union response. A letter by the General Secretary, Mr. Lancaster, to the Deputy Premier and Minister for Education, C.B. Cutler, dated 17.12.1965, applauded the move by the Director of Physical Education to appoint twenty Recreation Officers as 'cheap teachers'.\(^{26}\) Cutler, in his reply, eased the conflict by re-arranging the teaching structure. Instead of placing the Recreation officers as independent instructors into the swimming programme, he classified them

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\(^{26}\) Education Department Files, ibid. General Correspondence File Number 62/614/51968.
as 'officer aids to Physical Education'. At the same time, the issue became nullified for Primary school parents with the launch of the new syllabus.

The departure of so many Swimming teachers from after school and vacation schools was particularly severe since the new Physical Education Curriculum for Primary schools, 1965, totally excluded swimming. The sport was moved under the responsibility of the National Fitness Council. No reference can be found indicating that the omission of one of the most important sporting activities in the country was due to the lack of Physical Education teachers. Only assumptions can be made from the existing documentation. Perhaps the Education Department intended to narrow down the activities for two reasons. Firstly, the shortage of teachers was a political embarrassment, because the Education Department would have had projected figures for student numbers and teacher retention and training. With a greater vision and a willingness to spend money on tertiary training, more teachers could have been trained to avoid a crisis. Secondly, the Department deliberately waited for the moment where staffing became an issue and then saw fit to move areas of responsibility out of its portfolio into another department. Many Swimming programmes had been conducted outside school hours as after school or vacation classes, but had been staffed and paid for by Education Department officers. Excluding swimming from the integral part of the syllabus was a major step, because it excluded a traditionally highly esteemed activity from the syllabus, and secondly it placed the responsibility to learn the particular motor skill into parents' hands. Realistically parents were left to choose from two options, either to teach their own

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27 Education Department Files, ibid. General Correspondence File Number 55/615/51761 General Correspondence File Number 62/614/51968.
child or to enrol the child into courses conducted by the National Fitness Council staff. A user-pay system was created.

Many parents did not take kindly to the change in the Physical Education programme. Amongst the documents kept in the New South Wales Archives there were a number of letters written to the Physical Education Branch seeking the re-introduction of swimming for their children. The members of the Graziers' Association of New South Wales, for example, had judged the situation so alarming that they had voted to send a letter to the then Minister for Education and Science, C.B. Cutler. The General Secretary, J.H. Frazer, had written:

that it had been the Association's resolution that the Primary school curriculum should include lessons in swimming and elementary life-saving to reduce drowning.28

The reply by the Minister to the concerned country parents was swift and down to the point: '...your suggestion that swimming and life-saving become an integral part of the syllabus (and thereby compulsory) is not considered feasible at this stage'. He continued to refer to the inclusion of Physical Education in the syllabus and that swimming could form a part, if facilities and competent instructors were available.

The letter concluded with the remark, that vacation schools were available.29

28 Education Department Files, ibid. General Correspondence File Number PE000158.
29 Ibid.
The second National Fitness Council involvement in the previous Health and Physical Education curriculum precluded camping from the new syllabus. Such amendment may have come as a surprise as camping had been an innovation into the 1952 curriculum. Ewens called it the most significant event that the Board of Studies had approved the camping programme into the school curriculum. Ewens cited the most important reasons for the inclusion into a school programme at the time:

to provide some essential experiences which the normal school situation and modern social conditions do not always give.

to improve the health of campers through selected activities such as gymnastics, games, swimming and bushwalking and through observance of the rules of health respecting sleep, cleanliness, diet, sunshine and fresh air.30

The rationalisation given in 1952 referred to, as previously mentioned, an integrated syllabus. Physical Education and Health supported each other. The integrated application of two disciplines could be experienced by students of all young ages in different settings. With this direction in mind, camping was developed to, what Ewens called, Young's most valuable contribution.31 It had been nourished and supported by school programmes for years. Now the new curriculum changed its educational objectives and excluded the activity from the curriculum. The dual function of outdoor education had ended. Camping became the sole responsibility of

30 Ewens, Gordon Young..., op.cit., p. 71.
community recreation. Gordon Young would continue to establish more National Fitness camps, but they would only be used under the banner of the National Fitness Council.

A general statement on standards of Physical Education in Primary schools in New South Wales, in 1966, noted that the quality depended entirely on the attitude of the District Inspector. The status of three of the five inspectorates was classified as 'very good', while in the other two, the standard was assessed as 'very poor'.\textsuperscript{32} It was generally agreed upon, that Gymnastics was well received by the Primary school teachers. The demonstrations by Physical Education staff supported the generalist teacher well with additional short term training. The attendance rates at visitations and demonstrations were extremely high. The new syllabus had sparked off a new wave of enthusiasm with the emphasis on Gymnastics and Dance.\textsuperscript{33} Most inspectorate reports concurred that Physical Education was in the majority of schools in a very sound state. The concern was mostly placed in regards to equipment. Although Gordon Young had made widespread improvement in the building of facilities and had secured massive funds for the purchase of equipment, country schools particularly voiced concern about faulty equipment and lack of funds to rectify the situation. In all, one could summarise the prevalent conditions for the children's Physical Education: 'There were many factors such as climate, facilities available, time allowed, numbers and training of staff, school policy, health of the

\textsuperscript{32} Annual Report, 1966, on Physical Education and National Fitness, by F.R. Frame, North West Area.

\textsuperscript{33} Ibid.
children, which influenced and often determined the programmes in Physical Education.\textsuperscript{34} In other words, the quality of programmes, and the opportunities given to the children, fluctuated immensely. As long as the curriculum was only to be used as a guideline, and not as a mandatory syllabus, such a diversity of delivery and acceptance would prevail.

5.4 Physical Education Moving towards the 1970s, the Decade of Change

The years between 1955 and 1964 were relatively uneventful in Primary Physical Education. Even the Olympic Games held in Melbourne in October 1956 (or the Commonwealth Games held in Perth in 1962) did not leave any noticeable traces. New South Wales' involvement seemed restricted to a minimum. Gordon Young's membership on the Organising Committee, where he represented his state's interests between 1954 and shortly before the Games, appeared to be the sole crucial representation and viable voice of the Education Department. But apart from such individual responsibility, the education system was not affected.

During this time span, the education policy was in place, a new curriculum was provided to the teachers and the time-table was to be flexible enough to guarantee practical lessons to the youngest students in the education system before they would transfer to a post-primary school. The only area of Primary school activity which attracted attention by education authorities, as well as the National Fitness Council in New South Wales, was camping. Outdoor recreation was an innovation in the children's curriculum. Its inclusion into the school programme was the result of collaboration between the Education Department and the National Fitness Council. One may surmise that Young's unique paired position made such a symbiosis possible and demonstrated that such a set-up can be successful under certain conditions. In the case of camping, it will become convincing that the children benefited by the mutual programming, equipping and staffing of the facilities.
Once the curriculum implementation was in place and the monitoring of the new course indicated that there was a marked upsurge of interest in Physical Education, the Education Department prepared for changes within its own organisation. An agenda for a supervisory staff meeting in the Physical Education Branch alluded to several problem areas that were addressed and discussed over the next number of months. One of the major questions raised was the relationship between Physical Education and Health. This issue had been in the foreground since the formation and legalisation of the National Fitness Council and its intervening influence on the Physical Education of the children. Yet, as far as documentation indicates, the probing questions were never openly asked. The proposal to place the National Fitness Council under the jurisdiction of the Education Department and to separate Physical Education from National Fitness opened the doors for general discussion and a wider framework. By the end of the decade, Physical Education in Primary schools was at a cross-road. Lengthy discussions about re-organisation of structure of the Physical Education Branch, including an independent Primary Director of Physical Education, philosophy of the subject, and question of status, were taking place. A new subcommittee under the chairmanship of Errol Ingram led the new organisation into the new decade. Gordon Young retired at the end of 1969, leaving policy and structural changes in the hands of his successors.
5.5 The Commonwealth Fitness Council and its New South Wales Branch

as Part of the Physical Education Branch in the 1950s to 1969

Existing archival records provided the researcher with primary documentation from the two other areas of responsibility Gordon Young faced during his career as Director of Physical Education. These two were part of his responsibility as Executive Member of the National Fitness Council. One was recreation, as mentioned above, and the other the training of personnel in recreation or outdoor activities. As in several instances before, an obscurity of the total policy setting will again become evident. It could never be ascertained in full who and what level of government would make final decisions.

Gordon Young's strength as an exceptional administrator was well demonstrated in the field of outdoor recreation. It may be remembered at this juncture that Young's Canadian background experience was the specialisation in recreation. His appointment was made with the vision that Young would be well primed in establishing and building up the national interest in outdoor leisure activities. Children were socialised from early years on. The love for the bush would be cherished over the post-primary years in the hope that the Australian male and female would continue to spend some leisure time outdoors.

The blending of Physical Education Branch and National Fitness Council responsibilities could have confused teachers and parents alike right from the first years of joint operation. Prime examples for the blurring of boundary lines were the
Radio Broadcasts transmitted in September and October 1943. There were two announcements made about the same radio sessions in The Education Gazette, one on Physical Education Broadcasts and one for National Fitness. The six broadcasts were explained in different words, but referred to exactly the same programmes. The National Fitness announcement actually offered the more detailed outline of the proposed sessions. The first two broadcasts were given in the form of talks, given by Gordon Young, and explaining to the educational audience, students and teachers, "how Physical Education is bound up with National Fitness". The second session elaborated on the interrelationship of the two organisations and progressed by dealing with proposed school camps. The four remaining radio lessons were devoted to actual teaching in physical activity, highlighting rhythmic exercises for boys and girls at primary and secondary level. Unfortunately, the broadcasts are no longer available to assess the content. If the explanation was very clearly presented, educational historians and policy evaluators would not have overlooked the importance the National Fitness Council played in the educational philosophies and practices in the only subject concerned with the physical well being of the child.

It was not until the early 1950s, that the National Fitness movement made a strong impact in the Primary schools. It took Young more than a decade to build up the recreational facilities and activities in which schools could fully take part. When in 1950 a Camp and Syllabus handbook was published, teachers could make use of the expertise and follow instructions and conduct or assist in camp activities. The National Fitness Camp in Broken Bay provided the ideal facilities for the handbook.

35 2nd August 1943, p.209.
A major emphasis on swimming instruction could be noted. The teaching technique, for example, was that of the Education Department in its 'learn-to-swim' classes conducted during the Christmas holidays.  

Camping had been well accepted into the school activities by the time the 1952 syllabus officially acknowledged its place in Physical Education. Supporting literature was immediately offered by joint publications between the Physical Education Branch and the National Fitness Council. Most addressed the secondary student, although introductory texts into bushcraft were written for the Primary school educational setting.

With the abolition of the camping component in the state Physical Education syllabus (1965), the National Fitness Council had to address the question of leadership at community camps. The dual partnership Education Department and National Fitness Council could look back to an enormous growth of camp sites in the state. No other Australian state could record such an ambitious facility expansion. Yet the increase in sites did not reflect the increase of trained personnel. Teachers had been seconded in the past to leadership positions, now elimination of the subject component and the acute shortage of expert teachers, threatened to leave positions during vacations unfilled. The National Fitness Council had to resort to training courses, which were conducted under Young's guidance. Although the

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36 John McClymont, Camp Supervisor, had written the *Camps and Syllabus Handbook* for a 'normal' school camp of fifteen days duration.

37 A song book for children and a book on camping activities, including nature studies are two examples.
National Fitness Council no longer played such a visibly prominent role in the classroom, the administration was as closely linked as ever.

The National Fitness Councils in all states worked closely together and supported each other as much as possible. Chuck Hamilton's visit to New South Wales was one example cited before (page 195). Now an even stronger example emerged when the Commonwealth Council for National Fitness recommended at its fifteenth session on 8th and 9th April, 1963 to facilitate a national training course to serve all states. A letter (no date) written to the Minister for Education, E. Wetherell, the New South Wales Department of Education, confirmed the sincerity of the recommendation. All states had been placed under the same trying conditions. All were suffering from a universal shortage of recreation staff and youth leaders, both full time and voluntary, which was seriously limiting national fitness work. Harry W. Wade, Minister for Health in Victoria, in his letter, urged his ministerial colleague to support the national strategy and authorise the National Fitness Council of New South Wales to take the necessary action to implement the recommendations.38 Theoretically, it was within the Education Minister's authority to reject his Physical Education Branch Director's involvement, but the agreement between Commonwealth and the states made the request by the Commonwealth a token one. The etiquette between the various departments and the hierarchy had not changed over all these years either. Recommendations had to be made under the chairmanship of the Commonwealth Health Minister who in turn would, in most cases, approach his Health Ministers at state level and only then seek support from the Education ministers.

The last five years of Commonwealth and states' cooperation saw a rapid development in the preparation of leaders in the recreation and fitness area. Upon request by the Commonwealth, the National Fitness Council of New South Wales undertook the course development and implementation on behalf of the federal Health minister. On file is a letter from the Chief Executive Officer of the National Fitness Council of Victoria, Mr. N.D. Anderson to Mr. John Morey, National Fitness Officer, Department of Health. In it he reiterated the strong view, originally voiced at the last joint state-meeting, that 'the control of the course be subjected to the Director of the National Fitness and Physical Education Department in New South Wales...to an officer...quite independent of the Commonwealth'.\textsuperscript{39} It had also been suggested elsewhere, that the proposed Leadership course should include components relevant to youth leaders. N.D Anderson, in the same letter, expressed the Victorian viewpoint to exclude youth leaders from taking part in National Fitness leadership courses. He argued that there was no longer a need to cater for other than recreational and fitness leaders, as the Professional Leadership Training courses conducted by the Training Division of the Social Welfare Department in Victoria had opened up training opportunities for Victorians and residents of all other states.\textsuperscript{40} While there had been a threat for a few years of having to take youth workers into the training scheme, the initiative by the Victorian Social Welfare Department seemed to have solved the problem for all departments concerned until

\textsuperscript{39} Ibid. Letter dated 29.7.1965.

\textsuperscript{40} Ibid.
July 1970. It may be that the Welfare Department in Victoria was not very interested in forming an alliance with the National Fitness movement and lose its autonomy to Health departments at federal and state levels. A pilot Youth Leader Course (a course for volunteers) in New South Wales, under the combined auspices of the Education Department and the National Fitness Council, could have alarmed the Victorian Welfare authorities. The course had been commenced at Fort Street Girls' High school and experienced a heavy and increased demand, with a requested option of night classes and deeper course content. The Victorian course ensured that the triangle between the Commonwealth Department of Health and the respective state Health and Education Departments would not be disturbed. National Fitness Recreation Leadership course would be conducted with only the fitness and health perspective in mind.

John Butt created a Report on the Training Activities in New South Wales between 1965 and 1966. Three different courses had been conducted during the time span. The Australian Recreation Leadership course had commenced in February 1965. As Butt wrote, 'six sessions of the ARL course have been completed. A total of 48 subjects have been offered and 103 different students attended.' No further explanation or breakdown of student numbers on individual units etc. was offered or could be obtained from any other source. Only Butt's own elaboration on the aim of

the course gave some more direction to the educational objectives. He registered that the course intended to parallel as closely as possible a tertiary training course for Recreation and Youth Leaders of three years duration. At the time the report was filed, the actual time allowed for the ARL course was seven months, with an additional two months field work.

An attempt to fill the positions of Recreation workers was aided in July 1965 when a National Fitness Recreation Scheme was put into place. Ten lecture sessions of one and a half hours duration at night plus ten hours in residence over one weekend at the Narrabeen National Fitness Centre gave interested students an opportunity to gain a certificate; to work as Recreation officers. Two years later, the name, referring to the National Fitness component, was altered to Australian Recreation Leadership Extension course, giving credence to an Australian wide certification and aligning the two recreation leadership courses with each other. Although the National Fitness Council had aspired to raise the original Australian Recreation Leadership course to Diploma level, even the addition of the extended course did not give the course accreditation for tertiary level. The total duration of the classes was far less than twelve months, and that included the practical experience under supervision. Such a restricted time frame gave little opportunity to reach the Diploma standard offered at the Sydney Teachers' College in a three year course.

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44 Ibid.
The third scheme John Butt (identified earlier), referred to in his Report on Training Activities during 1965 and 1966, was the National Fitness Sports Coaching Scheme. Although this scheme had been conducted by the Physical Education and National Fitness Branch for many years, and therefore was another combined fitness involvement, it was set up generally for secondary school children and therefore outside the general discussion of this research. Yet it is worth mentioning at this point that the scheme was designed for children undertaking sports coaching. The programme gave volunteers an opportunity to be trained in the coaching of a particular sport under the supervision of expert teachers and coaches.46

Another issue should be mentioned, namely that all the planning and negotiation between Education Department and National Fitness Council focused on able-bodied children. Not one discussion or budgetary item over all the years alerted to the recreational and fitness opportunities of disabled children. In John Butt's Report, he made the reader aware of the needs of the mentally handicapped child by simply providing a column for this group of children. The 'nil amount' set aside for these children at least acknowledged for the first time the need to cater for a special group as well. In the past, reference was only made to one group of students. Whoever did not fit into mainstream teaching was left out. John Butt's Report benchmarked the first tentative step to an awareness that there are children in the school system who had not been catered for over all these years. Although the training for special swimming staff and recreation opportunities for the non-mainstream children did not

46 Ibid., 7 July, 1966.
receive any funds from a total budget of $10,253.00, at this point, the budget entry remained important.

The 1960 decade concluded with a brief attempt by the Commonwealth government to change leadership in the quarter of a century long National Fitness campaign. Since its inception, the federal National Fitness Council had empowered the states to initiate programmes to address local needs. The Council set the policies under which the states could only tap the grants if they followed the strict rules and thus accepted the intervention into state education territory.

On 21 July 1967 the Prime Minister of Australia, Harold Holt, made a radio and television broadcast from his study, launching the first nationally coordinated fitness campaign in Australia.⁴⁷ Announcing the campaign, the Prime Minister said:

As a nation we are becoming soft; our levels of fitness are deteriorating...fitness is the missing element in the lives of many Australians...we cannot stay strong as a country if we go soft as citizens", and he urged every Australian to budget ten minutes a day 'to get fit and stay fit'.⁴⁸

The Minister for Health, Dr. Forbes, elaborated on the sentiments in a Press release, stressing the aspect of national fitness:

⁴⁸ Ibid
the Commonwealth government is keenly aware of the need for a vigorous nation that is physically fit...fewer than half of our children- and even fewer adults- get the 10-15 minutes of planned, vigorous activity daily which is basic to physical fitness.49

In its introduction statement to the campaign *Fitness Australia* the Commonwealth acknowledged a lack of physical activity in schools. On one hand, the National Fitness Council had taken over the responsibility to physically educate the children at school, but on the other, it regulated the motor domain aspect to such an extent, that the children were classified as unfit. The political motivation of the Commonwealth could be questioned at this point. As Jeffrey Miller in his research report on the fitness level of children argued, the findings of two studies, carried out in 1958 and 1965, could not support the claims of relative decline of youth fitness.50 The postural defects, assessed in the 1950s nation-wide survey, were addressed by the medical service attached to the Education Department. Therefore other motives may have instigated the federal government 'to strengthen' the nation.

Gordon Young, as the National Fitness Council Executive member, was organising the state's public relations and promotion for the campaign.51 The AMP Society promised to finance the campaign as their community service and as a health promotion exercise.52 Over a few months several projects were launched to attract

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52 Ibid, 27. 7.1967.
the attention and enthusiasm of the public. Especially families and other groups were
targeted by newspaper advertisements. The 2UE Radio station sponsored the
'Challenge of Fitness Walk' in support of the state government's fitness campaign.
The aim was to entice the Sydneysiders into walking the full length of the Sydney
Harbour Bridge, a distance of 5,002 feet (or 1,997 1/3 yards). A Physical Fitness
poster competition was set up for the school children to combine their artistic talents
with an awareness of the importance of physical wellness. The prizes were granted
in age-groups. In the eight years and under category, the winner and the school
received $50. In the second category (9-12 years) the prize money was raised to $75
each, and in the 13 to 16 age bracket, the winner attracted $100 for him/herself and
$100 for the school. A Fitness Biathlon was also planned. An eight hundred meter
run and a one hundred meter swim were the distances suggested. The event could
have been entered individually or in a team of 6, attracting gold, silver and bronze
awards. Children up to thirteen years were given a bronze award, fourteen to sixteen
year olds a silver award, and school students seventeen and older aimed for the gold
prize. This Biathlon attracted an entry fee of 20 cents per person or $1 per team
entry. The funds were to cover administration costs and awards. While all these
activities were planned, the Commonwealth printed thousands of Keeping Fit
booklets to market their fitness initiative.

The preparation for the promotion of the Fitness Australia campaign came to a
unexpected and unplanned halt with the sudden disappearance of the then Prime
Minister, Harold Holt, in December 1967. No further explanations could be found.

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for the ceasing of any promotional activities for the nation-wide campaign. The new McEwen, and one year later, the Gorton, government would have been pre-occupied with pressing political issues, side-lining the national fitness campaign until 1971. Only in December 1970, the concept and promotion of *Fitness Australia* were re-captured at an National Fitness Council Executive meeting. In a letter written by W.D. Refshauge, Director-General of Health to Sir Adrian Curlewis, Chairman of the National Fitness Council (New South Wales), the process for the re-introduction of the national campaign was outlined.55 Due to lack of sponsorship, the Commonwealth Health Department had decided to abdicate its right to be in control of the first national Fitness campaign. The unified programme, and with it the Commonwealth actively taking the leadership, was no longer discussed. On the contrary, the Executive Officers at their meeting in December 1970 had agreed that the campaign should be launched by individual State Councils wherever possible. New South Wales and Victoria took up the commendation by Refshauge. In 1974, New South Wales inaugurated its *Fitness Australia* campaign; while Victoria followed in 1975 with its own *Life. Be in it!* Campaign. The threat of total intervention had been reversed to the lesser control over state initiated programmes.

5.6 Summary

By the turn of the decade, Physical Education in Primary School and the Fitness movement in New South Wales had changed dramatically. The policy position the Commonwealth had taken at the end of the 1930s had been maintained over forty years during which time many initiatives had been undertaken. For over thirty-five years, the National Fitness Council worked side-by-side with the Physical Education Branch, mostly steering the policy direction and the implementation of the same. Yet, Physical Education in the Primary school curriculum gained momentum over the decades. In 1966, the power base of the Commonwealth appeared to be severely weakened, if not broken. It was the first year in which the Recreation Section of the Physical Education Branch became fully operational. That meant that Recreation was no longer answerable to the National Fitness Council. The Education Department had taken over the role and determined the responsibilities.

During 1969, Primary Physical Education services became a widely discussed concern for Primary personnel. The re-organisation of Physical Education in the state had the potential to benefit particularly the discipline of Physical Education. As the Assistant Director-General of Education called for discussion in a memorandum, he foreshadowed an opportunity to establish a Physical Education Branch in its own right for the Primary sector, with the Director of Primary Education in control of Primary Physical Education. In the past, the Director of Physical Education was in control of both, Primary and Secondary Physical

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56 Ibid., Memorandum: discussion points to consider prior to re-organisation of Physical Education and National Fitness Branch. April, 1969.
Education and therefore was the primary decision-maker for that subject area. Errol Ingram, the Assistant Supervisor Primary Physical Education, decided to expand the number of staff in the administration, and called in his memorandum to the Chairman of the Re-organisation Committee\textsuperscript{57} to appoint a separate Director of National Fitness and an Officer in charge of the Primary Physical Education Branch. This position should be directly responsible to the Director of Primary Education.

When Gordon Young retired he left Physical Education and Recreation in a strong position. New South Wales had become a model state in which Physical Education and the National Fitness movement had learnt to work with each other. Physical Education had gained its own distinct state direction. The Commonwealth's policy for national health and well-being, offered via three sections of the organisation, training, schooling, and community, had particularly prospered in the area of Recreation. The proposed re-organisation of Physical Education and Recreation in the state offered a new challenge to all participants involved.

\textsuperscript{57} Ibid.
CHAPTER 6

THE BEGINNING OF AUSTRALIAN TERTIARY TRAINING

Part of the brief for the overall management of the National Fitness Campaign was that the National Fitness Council had to be responsible for the introduction and maintenance of tertiary courses in Physical Education. As the first and second tiers within the three tier paradigm, in form of school syllabi and community recreation programmes, have been discussed in previous chapters, the third and last tier of the campaign triangle will be addressed in this chapter. The Commonwealth was placed in charge of all parameters to ensure the cooperation of the stakeholders and to achieve the national goals as specified in the national policy.

Again the states received the ground rules. How restrictive these boundary lines proved to be for each individual state, and how much opportunity the state departments had to make their own decisions, will be at the centre of the investigation.
6.1 The Establishment of the First Tertiary Physical Education Course in Victoria

The decision by the Commonwealth in 1931 to withdraw the Army personnel from the physical training and drill classes left boys' physical activity classes without instructors. As mentioned before, the programme coordinator in the Physical Education Branch coordinated girls' programmes. Boys' programmes received only occasional attention, but as a whole, the boys' teaching was infrequent and ad hoc.

The emergence of Physical Education as an educational discipline in schools and the call during the 1930s for Education Departments to provide assistance in the teaching of the subject opened up the awareness that Australia had been reliant on military personnel over the last 90 years. With the withdrawal of these instructors, the education authorities had turned to the British (as well as European) and United States trained teachers to teach the subject in Australian schools. Once consciousness had been raised, and the syllabus had been broadened away from the military drill, state education departments were looking for a national training scheme. In Melbourne the first steps were undertaken in 1936 to instruct Australian students in Physical Education under the combined initiative of the Victorian Education Department and the University of Melbourne. New South Wales followed in 1939, but at that stage the Commonwealth had been proactive and had established the National Fitness Council to assist the government in formulating policy to introduce a National Fitness Act into parliament. Physical Education would not be taught in Australian schools without the influence of the federal government. The Commonwealth National Fitness Council grant included financial assistance to
universities to create courses and implement teacher training in Physical Education. The federal government's control over the national fitness necessitated the influence on the teacher who would then carry his/her knowledge and philosophy into the classroom. The National Fitness Council worked at varying degrees with the state Education Departments. In Victoria, the impact of control had been reduced to quite an extent. How much collaboration between the Physical Education Branch and the National Fitness Council (Vic) had been sustained over the years and/or for part of the programmes, could not be confirmed, thus policy parameters became blurred. However, education authorities had made decisions that altered the Physical Education pathways into a different direction. Health became a strong focal point. Although Victoria relied heavily on Commonwealth subsidy and may have been more inclined to follow the stringent rules set in 1941, by 1969 definite signs of independence and decision making power were discovered in the research. In New South Wales where one person concurrently held the positions of Director for Physical Education the Executive Officer of the National Fitness Council (New South Wales), the dependence was assumed. Nevertheless by 1969 the state Physical Education Department had gained strength and was ready to be separated from the National Fitness Council partners.

In Victoria, during the 1930s, the three members of the Physical Education Branch trained primary teachers interested in teaching in the discipline of Physical Education. Two members concentrated on Physical Training and the third was in
charge of Swimming. The courses for student teachers were short and therefore insufficient, and the refresher courses did not offer any greater depth.¹

In 1934 the new syllabus for Physical Education was introduced. While the new document assisted primary school teachers in their teaching, it also highlighted the fact, that the system lacked well-qualified Physical Education teachers. G.S. Browne,² Professor of Education, University of Melbourne, wrote in the foreword of the publication *Physical Education in Victoria*

In Australia little attention had been given to a comprehensive scheme of Physical Education with the direct aim of improving the health and physique of her people, and to be taught by well trained teachers.³

The absence of Physical Education teachers would have become more apparent to 'outsiders' with the new, far more comprehensive, British syllabus. The teachings in hygiene and physiology alone presumed knowledge in the subject area which was only present in specialist teachers who had been trained overseas.⁴

Addresses given to the meetings of the National Council of Women on health aspects and Physical Education abroad,⁵ inspired the Council to respond to the new demands

¹ Victorian Education Department. Classified Correspondence, op. cit., Reference Number 892/81/1359.
² G.S. Browne had previously, in 1932, criticised the Education Department's insular thinking and had publicly called for "the discarding of outworn and formal material and the infusion into the curriculum of more reality and activity". In: Cole, P.R. (ed)(1932), *The Primary School Curriculum in Australia*, Melbourne: M.U.P., p. 245, the change in curricula were a result of the outrages.
⁴ Ibid, p. 10.
placed upon the class room teachers in the primary schools, and the lack of specialist teachers in schools. A sub-committee was formed to explore the possibility of establishing a course of training for Physical Education teachers. A letter to Dr. Cunningham, Executive Officer of the Australian Council for Educational Research sought sponsorship for an inquiry into the possibility of establishing an adequate course of training for teachers in Physical Education. The Australian Council for Educational Research joined the sponsorship by meeting the costs for the research. Colonel Alan Ramsay and Meg Johnson were hired by the National Council to lead the investigation. Both researchers were professionals in education. Alan Ramsay worked as Master of Method at the School of Education, University of Melbourne, and Meg Johnson, a graduate of the well regarded Bedford College in England, taught Physical Education at the Emily McPherson College. The report was published a year later, in 1936, after over fifty Headmasters, Headmistresses, doctors, and Physical Training experts had been interviewed. The findings of Ramsay's first Report confirmed the known:

1. Physical Education in state controlled Primary schools was in the hands of the general classroom teacher.
2. The generalist Primary teacher had some training during Teachers' College years.
3. Only three specialists in the Physical Education Branch guided all classroom teachers in all activity areas.

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* Dated 19 August 1935, reprinted in Kentish, Fritz Duras, p.3.
7 Ramsay and Johnson, Physical Education in Victoria, p. 5.
8 Alan Ramsay was commissioned to chair his second Committee in 1957. The Ramsay Report as it became known, was to analyse the Education Department’s administration and to come forward with recommendations for improvements.
4. A dozen female teachers had been trained in Physical Training, but most of them were recalled by their school to ordinary teaching duties.

5. The research team detected enthusiasm towards Physical Education and many Headmasters/mistresses expressed a willingness to include the subject into the school curriculum.

The recommendations were all in favour of the introduction of a specialist teacher training course which could prepare students to take up positions in schools as specialists in the various branches of Physical Education. The areas of activities were stipulated as gymnastics, dancing, games coaching, and posture work. The two consultants disclosed their leaning towards overseas trends, particularly the British and the American systems, and indicated the major changes which had taken place in these countries: '...greatest advances have been made in the primary schools..."drill" has been superseded by work of a wider nature, comprising physical exercises, swimming, dance, games, athletics and camping..." Only five years after the Army had stepped away from the physical training of school boys, Colonel Ramsay, an officer of the Army and a distinguished war veteran from WWI, recommended a broad curriculum, as had been argued since the turn of the century. As the relationship between Education Department and Health authorities was very close, it was not a surprise to detect the link between the two interests in the recommendations. As Ramsay and Johnson wrote: '...this teacher should be required to undertake simple remedial work, under the guidance of the school doctor...'. The concept of remedial exercises to be offered to children with postural defects was

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10 The Brits and Americans had retained the name of 'elementary school'.
11 Ramsay and Johnson, Physical Education in Victoria, p. 12.
later, in 1944, incorporated into the overall Physical Education syllabus. Yet with a variation, remedial exercises were taught in specialised centres, not as a general activity within the Primary classroom.

Johnson and Ramsay pinpointed one major obstacle as being the classification system of the Education Department. The Committee of Classifiers held the control of qualification recognition. It was within its brief to recognize or reject teacher qualifications and judge them as suitable for teaching, and thus make recommendations for appointments. The placement of specialist teachers without recognised qualifications was impossible. As pointed out earlier, at the time of publication of the report, there were no official training courses outside the short courses offered by the PE Branch and the Teachers' College. The main non-Education Department institutions that offered facilities and programmes for advanced work were located in Sydney. The Swords Club offered a two years' course for women, and the Dupain Institute prepared men and women in recreational leadership. Ramsay and Johnson acknowledged that for the Education Department to accept one of these interstate courses, the bureaucrats would have to do some rethinking and problem solving to overcome the obstacle of pre-requisites for classification to admit non-matriculants who had successfully completed non university accredited courses. To accommodate other than diploma or degree courses, so the investigators argued, the Education Act would need to be amended to prepare the opening for graduates with up to two years' qualifications from private

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institutions. The concept of classification, including length of course, academic rigor and accreditation, became the centre of concern.

The Ramsay and Johnson Report very clearly and extensively detailed several options for courses, their content and implementation, direction and necessary and available facilities. The rationalisation of each was excellent, making the justification for choices easy to understand to a non-specialist who may have had to make a decision for or against the establishment of a Physical Education course. At the very centre of discussion was the need to prepare specialist teachers and teachers for departmental and other schools, playground supervisors and social workers who desired some knowledge in Physical Education. The different degree of knowledge required was taken care of in the duration of the course. The suggested three year course was aimed as a degree course of international standing to prepare Physical Education specialists with a thorough knowledge in science and advanced remedial work to realise postural deformities. Graduates of a two years' course would receive a Diploma. The content material would be scaled down to a two-year workload with the retention of *Body Mechanics*, an instruction in the detailed methods of correction of poor body mechanics, as a core subject and essential for graduation.

The medical and educational aspects in the courses were highlighted and integrated throughout the Report. The authors would have been keenly aware of who were the expected readers of their report and the aim and objectives of the inquiry. The Education Faculty at the University of Melbourne sought the innovation in education,
but the non-faculty interest and political motivation came from the health sector at federal and state levels.

The medical focus of the Report may have been the crucial element in the decision by the University of Melbourne to introduce a two-year course leading towards a Diploma in Physical Education. The University followed the recommendations made by Ramsay and Johnson, who had defined Physical Education within a health model, and had claimed the inclusion of the health focus as the best feature within educational reforms:

In the past, Physical Education has sought simply health values. It is most desirable that Physical Education should occupy itself with a programme of activity for the young, which would secure these physical benefits without fail, as by-products, as it were, while the pupil is being guided in the acquirement of mental, moral and social benefits.\(^14\)

After the publication of the Ramsay and Johnson Report either in 1935 or 1936,\(^15\) the establishment of the first tertiary course in Physical Education in Australia progressed fairly rapidly. Professor G.S. Browne, Professor of Education at University of Melbourne, had committed himself to the course by following the invitation of the National Council for Women to become the Chairman of the newly formed Committee on Physical Education. It was Professor Browne's own faculty

\(^{14}\) Ibid, p. 16.

\(^{15}\) The publication by ACER was undated. The year is generally marked in library records as 1936.
that would later benefit by the expansion of subject offerings and the high demand for places in Physical Education.

Professor G.S. Browne held the ideal position within the university to advocate the introduction of Physical Education into universities. Several coincidences came together at the right time, which assisted the inauguration of the first course. Firstly, the Head of the Education Faculty at University of Melbourne was extremely enthusiastic. He lobbied and planned and contacted as many interested parties as possible. He used his knowledge and influence whenever he saw fit. Browne even inspired the Pro-Vice Chancellor of the University of Melbourne, Dr. Priestley, to investigate the work in Physical Education in the leading American universities during his visit to the United States in 1936. Secondly, as an educationist and Dean of the Faculty of Education, Prof. Browne immediately secured the discipline for his Faculty. After all Physical Education was to be professionalised, a task the tertiary education level is trained to accomplish. With the bias on health and fitness and the sciences it was a natural conclusion that another faculty may be interested in offering the course. As the Education Faculty Board minutes of June 1936 disclose, the Anatomy Department of the university was unable to undertake any additional courses in Anatomy, as the staff was fully occupied. Hence Browne moved swiftly in the meeting to resolve that the Faculty supports the proposal to offer the new Physical Education course. Thirdly, The Carnegie Corporation in New York\(^6\) was

\(^6\) The Carnegie Corporation is a Philanthropic foundation which had been set up in 1905 for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and advancement of teaching. The grants made available by the Corporation are to enhance the understanding amongst people of the United States and the British Dominions and colonies. Scholarly institutions, like universities, were targeted as recipients of the grants, or would benefit by the grants handed over to scholars. In: *World Book*, vol. 3 (C-CH), Sydney/Chicago, p. 178.
endeavouring to find suitable academic positions for German exiles. The Corporation offered the University of Melbourne to finance the first two years of appointment for one of their expatriated German scholars. The University, and particularly Browne, was not only positively inclined towards such a proposition, but also later took up the offer and approached the Corporation to finance the fare and the new post. The secured financial support for two years helped the university bureaucrats to make the decision to launch the course and appoint a Director.

Dr Fritz Duras brought all possible prerequisites to the position. He was a medical doctor, a specialist in sports medicine, an athlete, an educator and a scholar. He had lost his teaching position at the University of Freiburg in the anti-Jewish purges of 1933. Consequently he had left Germany for Britain in fear of his life. While he and his family lived in Birmingham, they were supported by British colleagues who brought Duras' qualities to the attention of Prof. Hancock, a former academic at the University of Melbourne who consequently would meet Duras in Birmingham. Duras' professional background perfectly suited the requirements for the Melbourne position. Trained as a medical doctor at one of the finest medical schools in Germany at the time, he had specialised in sports medicine and as such had practised medicine at many sporting institutions and had supervised many sporting teams. Since childhood he had cherished a love for sport and the outdoors. His experience in physical activities was wide and intense. Fritz Duras had been also appointed Director and Senior Physician at the University of Freiburg's Sports Medical Institute

18 Minutes, The University of Melbourne, Faculty of Education Board meeting, 30 June 1936.
and had published widely in reputable journals. As far as one can ascertain from documentation published, Duras was the only candidate who was considered for the job. His appointment was made very quickly. In May 1936, Browne made it known that he had the opportunity to secure the services of a German physical training expert. The proposal for the recommended appointment was put before the Registration Committee of the National Council of Women on 9 June 1936. Already on 12 June 1936, the then Acting Pro-Vice Chancellor, Prof. Bailey suggested to the Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Priestley who visited Britain at the time, to meet with Dr Duras and appraise his suitability as the future Director for Physical Education. On 31 August 1936, the Faculty of Education passed the resolution that The University of Melbourne establish a short course of instruction of one year's duration for teachers of Physical Education under the auspices of the Faculty of Education. It was proposed to invite Dr Duras to Australia to undertake the development of a proposed new course. The University was very cautious with the invitation. There was little risk undertaken by the University of Melbourne. If the candidate should not fulfil the expectation of the Faculty of Education or the Professorial Board, and places were not filled by prospective students, then the University would have no obligation for further employment, as the Carnegie Corporation had underwritten the costs for fares and salary for a time period of two years:

In issuing an invitation under the scheme inaugurated by the Carnegie Corporation, the University does not bind itself to find the scholar invited permanent employment in the University or elsewhere. The university is expected,

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19 Minutes, The University of Melbourne, Faculty of Education Board meeting, 30 June 1936.
however, not to invite a man unless there seems a strong prospect of his finding useful employment, either in the University or in the community, at the end of the two year period...and the Council accepted the view that the prospects were sufficiently good to justify an invitation being sent.20

The Professorial Board minutes elaborate on the apprehension some of the members seem to nurse to commit the university to a continuous appointment in Physical Education. The records summarize the discussion to the memorandum by the Acting Vice-Chancellor, Prof. K.H. Bailey, and the Report by the Faculty of Education in conjunction with the Faculty of Medicine in support for a Physical Education course of one-year duration. The concern that the contractual appointment may falter is evident:

Dr. Duras appears not to be qualified for medical registration in England, and therefore could not, on his present qualifications, be registered here. The Faculty of Education is of the opinion, however, and the Council adopted the view, that if only by reason of the rather backward state of Physical Education in Victoria, Dr. Duras should have a reasonable chance of private work in that direction, independently of his teaching work or of any researches he should be able to prosecute,

but yet, the urgency to secure a highly qualified professional in the Physical Education and Health areas in the state

the case for such a course is grounded broadly on the rather backward state of Physical Training in Victoria.21

20 Minutes. The University of Melbourne. Faculty of Education Board meeting. 30 June, 1936 and reinforced fifteen months later in the University Council minutes, 6 September 1937.
21 Minutes, The University of Melbourne, Professorial Board meeting, 15 September 1936.
let the Board resolve that the recommendations to establish a one year Certificate course in the Faculty of Education. At the following meeting of the Professorial Board Professors Browne and Bailey presented a draft for a statute to established a Board of Studies in Physical Education, and the outline of a one-year course in the subject. An amended version was referred to a special committee (consisting of the Chair of the Professorial Board and the deans of the Faculty of Education and Science) with the authority to revise it, and subject to their revision, that it be approved.22 The University Council finally placed its seal on the statute on 21 December 1936.23 The first tertiary course in the history of Physical Education in Australia was constituted into the Faculty of Education. Fritz Duras arrived in Melbourne on 1 March 1937 to take up his post as Director for Physical Education.

At the time the University of Melbourne was negotiating the contracts with Dr Duras and the Carnegie Corporation in New York, little was known of the Commonwealth financial initiative that would ensure the continuation of the course. In 1939, exactly when the University had to commence the salary payments to the Director and his staff, the National Health Department commenced to supplement the incurring costs with a grant of £2,000.24 The University entered the 'triangle of mutual support and cooperation' between universities, Education Departments and the National Fitness Council, fostered and guided by the federal government. The Director of the Department created the link between all three bodies: he negotiated with the Education department in terms of training accreditation and student enrollment, and also became an active member of the Victorian branch of the National Fitness Council.

22 Minutes. The University of Melbourne, Professorial Board meeting, 8 December 1936.
23 The Council attendance in the minutes record Dr. Frank Tate as Deputy Chancellor. His life long support in various administrative roles for Physical training and involvement in Athletics culminated in Physical Education being included into the academic ranks of his university.
24 Fritz Duras was promoted in mid-1939 to Senior Lecturer level with a yearly salary of £600. Ibid, p. 56.
Council. Victoria became the first state in which the Commonwealth policy was put into place and practised.

Although the study to investigate the needs for professional training had only been instigated in 1935, and the results published in 1936, Dr Fritz Duras took up his appointment in 1937. At the beginning of that year, the University of Melbourne assumed the responsibility for training teachers in Physical Education. The 1937 cohort began its studies for one year only. That was the anticipated length of the course for practising teachers who intended to upgrade and add their qualifications and teach the subject with the latest information in mind. Dr Duras already anticipated a second year of study for students whose aim it was to become specialist teachers at Primary level. He expressed his intention to extend the course in an interview that he gave shortly after his arrival in Melbourne. The enthusiasm of the 29 students enrolled in the course, and the recommendation by the newly formed Board of Studies, supported by the approval of the Professorial Board at their meeting on 20 July 1937, hastened the University Council as early as the 30 September 1937 to approve the upgrading of the course to a two year diploma qualification. The disappointment for all involved was the fact that the University Council and the Professorial Board would only grant the award of Diploma in Physical Education. As minutes of the Professorial Board and University Council meetings between 1936 and 1939 signal, the majority of academic staff at the

25 *The Angus*, Melbourne, 6-7 March 1937, p. 32.
26 The positions on Board of Studies, guiding the Physical Education course, were jointly filled by members of the Faculties of Medicine and Education, the Education Department, leading schools and the medical profession. The new Statute for the Board of Studies in Physical Education was passed by the University Council on 21st December, 1936.
27 Minutes. The University of Melbourne. University Council meeting.
university did not consider the discipline of Physical Education rigorous enough to recommend admission as a degree course. The struggle for recognition at university level would continue for many years to come and would slow down the progress and research in the discipline as well as the numbers of graduating students.

It is interesting to notice the enrolment pattern of Physical Education students in the first number of years. The table below has been cited in Duras' biography.

Table 14: Students enrolled in Physical Education course at University of Melbourne 1937-1939

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<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>60</td>
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The increase in number of students enrolled in the department over the first three consecutive years would have been very encouraging and pleasing for staff teaching in the new discipline and senior administrators who had actively supported the inclusion of Physical Education into their university programmes. The initial enrolment of twenty-nine students rose to thirty-seven students, a twenty-eight percent increase in the second first-year cohort. That brought the total enrolment to

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24 Kentish, Fritz Duras, p. 56.
fifty-seven students, one student short of a doubling of student numbers in that year. The third year intake of thirty-three students represented a decline in the new intake, which may have been caused by various factors, but more diploma students remained in the department, causing an overall increase of three students in 1939. The interest in the first enrolment figures for this research is locked into the argument of interest and active involvement in training in Physical Education thus making way for a new era in the general and specialist curriculum in Primary schools. The time where men and women had to travel overseas to gain training in Physical Culture or Physical Training/Education had ceased. The opportunity to acquire a qualification in Australia had commenced.

The figures published revealed additional information. By studying the gender distribution in general, and within year cohorts, the gender imbalance in favour of women was quite astonishing because the 1937 to 1939 cohorts enrolled before the beginning of the Second World War. In the inaugural year, 1937, bar one, twice as many women accepted admission to the course, although the Education Department did not grant permission for early leave to teachers studying in the course. Also in the second and third year of the course since inception, a far greater number of women commenced their training with Dr Duras and his staff. This is significant, as it clearly demonstrates the extraordinary interest in the newly found opportunity. Women earned far less at the time thus had less money available for their own training. Even if the six scholarships made available by the Education Department in

29 Duras made special provisions for teachers, placing lectures in the evening and on Saturday mornings, Moutray, op.cit., p.36.
1938" all had been won by women applicants, there still would have been twice as many female teachers as students in the course.

The interest shown by women in Physical Education may have been a reflection of the influence of women in the development of physical culture from the 1920s onwards, and the work being performed in the Physical Education Branch. As mentioned in the previous chapter, women like Anderson and Gormley provided the inspiration in physical culture and physical training as an alternative to military drill. It was their orientation to more scientific and educational advances that prompted other educationists to call for changes in the primary education syllabus. It is more than a coincidence that the National Council for Women became the instigator and financial supporter of Physical Education in the mid-thirties. No other formal non-government organisation before had placed its patronage behind this new discipline. The development and planning was placed under the sole leadership of one person, Rosalie Virtue. The tireless enthusiasm by Rosalie Virtue, to give the example of the well known Organiser of the Branch, may have inspired more women to be trained in Physical Education and become a role model to girls in their school.

The federal government had intended in 1939, to set up a National Council for a Fitness Campaign around the nation. For that purpose, personnel, teachers were essential to lead the programmes in schools. The data provided by the former Director of Physical Education have also to be read within that context. The University trained practising teachers in one year and awarded Certificates in

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31 Moutray, op.cit., p. 36.
Physical Education as a result. The Education Department recognised this qualification above any other one. From 1937 onwards the Physical Education Branch only aided with its own short courses. The official qualifications were to be obtained from the University of Melbourne. From the end of 1937 onwards, every year, new certificate holders and diplomats would go back into schools and promote Physical Education in Primary schools. In 1937 nine, and in 1938, ten students were awarded with a certificate, and in 1938 and 1939 twenty and twenty seven, respectively, became the first Physical Education students to graduate from any Australian university. At the time the National Fitness Advisory Committee was put into place in 1939, there were sixty-six teachers employed by the Victorian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort 1937</th>
<th>Cohort 1938</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>MEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOMEN</td>
<td>WOMEN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort 1939</th>
<th>year 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOMEN</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15: Cohort enrolment by gender: 1937-1939 and retention rate in%

Education Department who were ready and qualified to participate as active leaders in the campaign.
By the time peace conditions returned to Australia in 1945, the University of Melbourne had taken the lead in Physical Education teacher training in the country. The Department of Physical Education within the Faculty of Education was providing the Education Department in Victoria and other states with Primary school specialists and generalists with one-year training certificates. The National Fitness Council's grants also assisted the university in maintaining the course and in training leaders for the National Fitness campaign. In 1955 a new course was introduced in which primary physical education students first did a two-year specialist Physical Education course at the university which at that stage only offered courses for secondary teacher training, thus excluded any primary education subjects. Hence upon successfully completing the diploma in their chosen specialist discipline, students entered Melbourne Teachers College to do their teacher training. Once they graduated from the college they qualified for the new teaching requirement and were awarded the Trained Physical Education Teachers' Certificate (Primary).\textsuperscript{32} The training in specialist Physical Education in the primary division of the Education Department was suspended in 1968, apparently due to a shortage of student places in the university course. An era had come to an end. Physical Education would remain an exclusive domain for the secondary school division. Throughout Fritz Duras' leadership in Physical Education, as a professional and an individual, the 'father of physical education in Australia embodied the ideology of the University and the National Fitness movement. He provided the link between Education, Medicine and Health, between physical fitness and competence in movement, between scholarship and practice. Because of the personal characteristics that were underpinned by

position of office and demands made by the Commonwealth, the Diploma course in Physical Education was highly regarded by the time Victoria entered the period of reconstruction.
6.2 The Establishment of the First New South Wales Physical Education Course.

The offering of Physical Education as an academic field of study into the University of Sydney proved to be a very difficult task that needed many years to be accomplished.

When the Commonwealth Health Department released grants to universities in 1939, the amount of £2,000 was tagged for the introduction and support of a Physical Education teacher training course. As in Victoria and all other states, New South Wales was to have its own centre to support the National Fitness campaign and train professionals and leaders in the field. The Education Department of New South Wales lacked the expertise of Physical Education teachers. To overcome the shortage, the Education Department decided, in conjunction with the Health Department, to appoint a Director of Physical Education to the Education Department. The position created was a senior administration post, where the incumbent was directly answerable to the Director of Education. In Victoria, in contrast, the most senior position in Physical Education was the Organiser of Physical Education of the Physical Education Branch. The Organiser shared the same level of seniority as the Curriculum and Research Officer, or the Principal Psychologist and Guidance Officer. All these positions were answerable to the Assistant Chief Inspector of Primary Schools. In summary, the appointment in New South Wales was far superior to the senior appointment in Victoria, and was designed to give Physical Education a new standing. One part of the responsibilities

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was to liaise with the University of Sydney for a teacher-training course. The first reference in the university minutes can be found on 20th March 1939 where the proposal to establish a lectureship in Physical Education is discussed by the Professorial Board. The federal Minister for Health, Senator H.S. Fall in his communique to the university, alerted university administrators to the fact that the Commonwealth would want to create Physical Education courses, including specialist facilities and equipment, at each Australian university. The Senator also mentioned in the same document that it was most likely that the government would decide to make funds available for a seeding period of three years. After such period of time the lectureship should be self-supporting and become the responsibility of each university. After careful deliberation the Standing Committee of the Professorial Board recommended in the minutes that any motion in regards to the establishment of the new course be postponed until more information was available. It is also documented, that Professor Harvey Sutton foreshadowed a motion to be put before the Faculty of Medicine, to establish a Department of Physical Education within the university. The Minister of Education, D.H. Drummond, the Director for Physical Education Mr. Young, and the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sydney, Dr. R.S. Wallace, were identified as the key personnel to complete the task. But in a later meeting the Professorial Board and the University Council rejected the plan, claiming that the £2,000 were insufficient for the salary of staff and provision of facilities and equipment. The Vice Chancellor in his letter to the Minister of Education (NSW) pointed out that the university’s limited funds could not

34 Ibid.
adequately provide new resources and therefore was unable to include the suggested Physical Education course into the university programme.\textsuperscript{35}

Instead, the University recommended that the grant be offered to the Teachers' College. By that time, October 1939, the University of Melbourne had already produced 66 graduates of either Certificate or Diploma standard. The administrative hierarchy of University of Sydney made an outright objection to the introduction of a Diploma course for quite a valid reason. While at the University of Melbourne the award of a 'diploma' indicated an award of not yet degree standard, at the University of Sydney, Diplomats held postgraduate awards. The different award structure complicated the negotiations and thus the agreements. Although the Commonwealth provided the grants to the six universities and stipulated the use of it, there seemed to be no awareness of differences in course and award structures prior to the commencement of negotiations between state Education Departments and Universities. In a way that is not surprising. At the time when negotiations regarding the establishment of Physical Education training courses took place and the first courses had been approved, there was no national standardising body in place. Only in 1943, the Commonwealth Universities Commission was inaugurated\textsuperscript{36} to provide guidance to states and negotiate introduction of quality courses in Australian Universities. The incompatibility of award structures at the time prior to the Commonwealth University Commission was one reason why Young was

\textsuperscript{35} Minutes, The University of Sydney, Professorial Board meeting, 23 October 1939. The minutes also referred to the letter written by Dr. Wallace to the Minister for Education (dated 20 September 1939) which was brought to the attention of the meeting.

\textsuperscript{36} G.S. Harman and D. Smart (eds), \textit{Federal Intervention in Australian Education} Melbourne, 1982, p. 181.
unsuccessful at first with the course establishment at the University of Sydney. The second major reason was the fact, that contrary to The University of Melbourne, The University of Sydney did not have an Education Faculty as part of the university structure. At an earlier time, according to the archival material available, the Federated State School Teachers’ Association had already approached the Senate with the request to recognize the profession of teaching. To this end they had sought the establishment of a ‘Bachelor’s degree in Education’. In an ensuing meeting in April 1935 the Senate records indicate that ‘it does not see its way to establish such a Faculty’.

Hence the Teachers College remained the main supplier of education courses in the state.

Because of the very close cooperation between the Education Department and the Teachers' College, Gordon Young, immediately upon his arrival, had negotiated with the Teachers' College, and from 1939 onwards students were enrolled in a two year certificate course. Thus Sydney Teachers' College became the first Teachers' College in the country to offer units in Physical Education, and to give student teachers an opportunity to graduate with a certificate in Physical Education. While students had to undertake a one-year course for certificate level at the University of Melbourne, students in Sydney had to study for the same award for two years at the Sydney Teachers' College.

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37 Minutes, The University of Sydney, Senate meeting, 8 October 1934.
38 Minutes, The University of Sydney, Senate meeting, 1 April 1935.
39 At this time, the universities were responsible to the respective state Education Department. AAV, MF 84/1, 1832/13/40
In order to escape the obligation to establish a diploma or degree course, the University of Sydney's administration recommended to the Commonwealth to transfer the grant to the Teachers' College, since the College had a new course in the first year of operation and would need the financial support. The Commonwealth subsequently agreed to the arrangement. At the same time the university did not shed its responsibility towards the Commonwealth policy and funding. Senior management kept a close liaison with the programme management of the course at the Teachers' College particularly via the Board of Studies in Physical Education. This administrative and organisational body was set up by the Minister for Education and the Vice-Chancellor in 1939. The Committee was to assume responsibility for the standard of the Certificate and the employment of the teaching staff. The composition of the Board guaranteed a close link between the Teachers' College and the University of Sydney. The Vice-Chancellor was Chairman and the Director of Physical Education Executive Officer. The involvement of the Vice-Chancellor as the Head of the Board split the responsibilities of course matters and financial obligations into two. The Vice-Chancellor, representing the University, was to take responsibility for staff appointments and related personnel obligations. Any other financial management tasks were to be undertaken by the University. The College, in contrast, was solely involved in course and student matters.

The Certificate course commenced as a two-year course in 1939. In 1940 this course was changed into a three year Certificate course. In 1949 the Certificate was converted into a Diploma. The definitions of what constituted a Certificate in the two

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40 Minutes. The University of Sydney, Senate meeting, 1 April 1935.
states have to be clarified. In New South Wales, the holder of a Certificate from the Teachers' College was eligible to take up a position as a qualified teacher in the Primary schools. The three-year course was not solely devoted to Physical Education. The first two years prepared the general Primary school teacher, only the third year was directed towards Physical Education. For comparison with the Victorian qualification, a one year specialised course was usually rewarded with a Certificate in that subject area. Therefore, the one-year course of preparation offered in the first year, 1937, and which had been discontinued after this particular year, entitled students to take out a Certificate. Once the two-year Physical Education course that was primarily oriented towards theoretical and practical preparation of Physical Education specialist teachers, was introduced, students were entitled to receive a Diploma. The anomaly between states disadvantaged New South Wales well into the 1950s.

As Table Sixteen indicates, the number of students who took up the course was very discouraging at first. In 1940 only four students chose Physical Education as a single subject.

Table 16: Number of students enrolled in Certificate of Physical Education Course 1940-1941

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number of students</th>
<th>1940</th>
<th>1941 first year</th>
<th>1941 second year</th>
<th>1941 third year</th>
<th>Total 1941 enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41 The table was compiled from data published in the Minutes. The Teachers' College, Board of Studies in Physical Education, 18th March 1941.
The pressure of the Commonwealth could have motivated the Education Department to offer scholarships for the course. The minutes of the Board of Studies do not disclose how many scholarships had been made available. It may be assumed that the majority of students in the course were scholarship holders. The data was strikingly different from that in Victoria. No breakdown on how many men and how many women undertook the course in Physical Education is available.

In 1941, Gordon Young proposed a School of Physical Education\(^{42}\) to overcome the obstacles experienced by the National Fitness Council and the Education Department in creating opportunities for the training of Physical Educationists. Both organisations were anxious to fulfil the obligation to the Commonwealth. While students with Leaving Certificates were admitted to the Teachers' College course, Young's proposal addressed matriculants with a Certificate to proceed to a diploma or degree. Under the proposal, the Board of Studies in Physical Education would have had the control of the school. The war, and with it lack of finance, stopped the progress of the plan.

In the same year the Board of Studies in Physical Education considered a number of alternatives to improve the academic standard of the course. In the September meeting, it was suggested to write a Bachelor of Science in Physical Education degree course. The Professorial Board discussed the notion to upgrade the professional qualification at its November meeting. Professor Harvey Sutton was a strong supporter of the proposed course and particularly the scientific orientation. As

\(^{42}\) Minutes. Sydney Teachers' College. Board of Studies in Physical Education meeting, 18 March 1941.
a medical practitioner he appreciated the importance of Physical Education and the relevance of training in the university setting. He maintained that the teaching of Physiology and Anatomy should be a pre-requisite for all Physical Education teachers. His work experience extended over more than thirty years and his position as Professor for Tropical Medicine at the university gave him the authority to recommend the inclusion of the proposed degree into the Science Faculty. In that capacity he strongly advocated the Bachelor of Science in Physical Education in various Committees and as various minutes at Professorial Board level indicate, was strongly supported by Professor Vonwiller. His personal belief in the discipline and his willingness to argue for its inclusion into one of the university's syllabi will have contributed to the fact that the course was approved by the Professorial Board in November 1941.43

It is highly relevant to mention that Professor Harvey Sutton's career path is tightly linked to the health and well-being of children and the need for physical fitness and physical activity. Harvey Sutton was one of the first three medical officers appointed to the Victorian School Medical Service in 1909.44 In that capacity he was invited to be the representative of the School Medical Service on the first Conference on Physical Training initiated by Prime Minister, Andrew Fisher.45 He would have inspected thousands of children during his appointment as school medical officer in Victoria, as every Primary school child living in the cities in his/her second year of

43 Minutes. The University of Sydney, Professorial Board meeting, 17 November 1941.
44 Dr. Mary Booth and Dr. Jane Greig were the other members of the medical team working together for a number of years.
45 AAV, MP 84/1, 1832/1/220 Report of the Conference on Physical Training.
schooling was to be medically assessed. All in all each child or youth was supposed to be weighed and measured, eyesight and hearing tested and defects of teeth, throat and skin and posture noted three times during the life at school. The aim of the service was to advise the Education Department on medical problems in general and specifically on those that might interfere with school progress. His vast knowledge and experience in Victoria led to his appointment as Principal Medical Officer of the Department of Public Instruction in New South Wales. Hence Professor Sutton's apparent emotional patronage of Physical Education and particularly the scientific approach at all levels is the result of intimate first hand knowledge he had gained over many years. When he advocated that a sound understanding in Anatomy and Physiology is paramount for every Physical Education teacher he voiced his beliefs which have been formulated by his medical training, his experience and the philosophy at the time which did not consider skill and social and emotional development.

Dr. Harvey Sutton's close working relationship with the federal health authorities was as long as his professional career. Already as a young doctor he had been singled out by the organisers for the national Conference for Military Training to be the voice of his peers. At the pinnacle of his working life, as the Professor for Tropical Medicine at The University of Sydney he was still closely working with the Commonwealth Department of Health, as this federal authority provides funds for

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46 The Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1953, no 39, p. 293.
the Faculty and fosters research opportunities.48

The discussions around the proposed scientific degree course were interesting. Particularly academic staff, teaching in the Certificate course in the Teachers' College, were against the notion that only scientific knowledge was seen as academic rigour worthy of inclusion into a Physical Education degree. The Humanities or Social Sciences were dismissed as 'soft options'. Two lecturers, Miss M. Swain and Mr. R. Gray, were reported as being most outspoken about the scientific slant of the degree syllabus. They argued that this bias would be against women, who, so they pleaded, were more inclined towards the humanities.49 Their argument was strengthened by the National Fitness Council which then motivated the University Senate to stop the course from its introduction at the beginning of 1942, because, so they concurred, there may not be enough men left as civilians who could enrol in the course.50

The decision by the National Fitness Council to argue against the inauguration of the degree course at the beginning of 1942 may have come as a surprise. After all, Australian men had been in the war arena for over two and a half years. Yet, as mentioned before, the resistance to the science-based course was in tandem with the federal government's National Physical Education policy. It can only be assumed at this point that the Commonwealth decision-makers may not have been convinced

49 Minutes. The Sydney Teachers' College, Board of Studies in Physical Education, 31st October, 1942.
50 Ibid.
that the subjects offered in the degree would have led to the training of professionals capable of implementing the broader policy including the health and recreation aspects. Yet, on the other hand, other reasons within the state government or the National Fitness Council (NSW) may have contributed to the deferment of the course.

After all, a precedent had already been set in Melbourne and the rules around a new course development should have been nationally comparable. As outlined in Appendix II, the three-year Melbourne Diploma course was less science oriented than the proposed four year Bachelor of Science in Physical Education course at the University of Sydney and had a strong basis in health and in sport application.

Finally, in its April meeting in 1943, the Professorial Board received the draft for the by-laws for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Physical Education. After consideration it was decided that the draft by-laws be deferred to the Faculty of Science for clarification of certain points. In the same meeting The Board received a recommendation from the Vice Chancellor that the two Physical Education lecturers, Marjorie Swain and E.H. Le Maistre be transferred from the Board of Studies in Physical Education to the new Department of Physical Education in the university. The Board resolved to recommend these transfers for the approval of the Senate.51 The recommendation was delivered within weeks: to inaugurate the degree course immediately under the auspices of the Science Faculty. The Commonwealth may have given its consent as the grant of £2,100 to the University of Sydney was to be

51 Minutes. The University of Sydney. Professorial Board meeting, 28 April 1943.
transferred from the Teachers' College back to the University with the commencement of the course. From April 1942, two courses of study in Physical Education were offered in New South Wales and both were to be delivered from the same campus.

The new degree course accredited by the hierarchy of the University was a Bachelor of Science in Physical Education. Not surprisingly it followed the directions given by the Commonwealth Health Department: a strong base in Physiology and Anatomy which would provide the understanding in health related issues and recognition of postural defects to assist the school medical staff and conduct remedial classes under supervision. The first two years followed the path of a generic science degree, meaning that students undertaking the course had to study the natural sciences without making them relevant to Physical Education. Only the third and fourth year students devoted more time to the relevant Physical Education units. The plea by the lecturers Swain and Le Maistre for a more flexible course in which the students were able to integrate their own study preference in non-science subjects, was not included.\(^\text{52}\) The reasons for the decision to accredit a course in Physical Education, which was interchangeable in the first two years with a natural science course, will have been severalfold. Young refers to the perceived understanding of all authorities involved that the course should be introduced, and preferably should fit easily into the existing university structure. Within the university certain pressure associated with any change would have had to be resolved.\(^\text{53}\) Physical Education had not been accepted amongst high-ranking academics as an academic discipline. Professor

\(^{52}\) Young, p.239

\(^{53}\) ibid, p.243
Sutton’s solution to include Physical Education in the Science Faculty seemed to be the only way the Commonwealth and the University of Sydney could reach an agreement.

Moutray (1973), in his unpublished thesis, reports that the course did not attract many students. He relates the unsuccessful offer to two major factors which had been voiced at the time as weaknesses by some academic Physical Education staff, particularly Miss M. Swain and Dr. Le Maistre. In their opinion the course was firstly far too science oriented, and secondly inappropriate for female students who formed the bulk of the cohorts due to the war. The core units prescribed for a student undertaking a Science or Physical Education degree were identical for the first two years. Students did not have to specialise until after the completion of the second year. According to Moutray, the records indicate that after these six terms, no student chose to move into the Physical Education strand. Moutray fails to look any further than the two reasons for students to remain in their course. He didn’t consider at least two additional major motivators which may have convinced students to remain in the course in which they had obviously already passed six out of nine terms. The motivators suggested here are called status and career. Only matriculants received offers for university places, students with a leaving certificate could enter the Teachers’ Colleges, but were excluded from any university place. Moving from the university to complete the last year at Teachers’ College level may have been viewed as loss of status. Once a student had graduated with a science degree from the prestigious University of Sydney, employment would have been secured. Degree

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54 Moutray, p. 70.
holders were highly regarded in the teaching force, taking up leading positions on staff and securing higher pay. Students would have been acutely aware of these differences and would have reconsidered their career aspiration.

Secondly, it is claimed that the apparent inability to make the Physical Education degree attractive to prospective university students was not simply due to a lack of men who were unable to enrol in the course. If that aspect would have been the reason, then the course should have been appealing when the war veterans returned and young men no longer volunteered to go to war. But no change occurred in enrolments and no move was initiated to revitalise the course until 1957. The general preference of women to enrol in non-scientific units will have played a part, to some degree, but will not have been the sole contributor to the demise. The reasons will have been far more complex, including other social, economic and general preference factors. As known, students attracted to Teachers’ Colleges enrolled in the institution for the sake of education. Hence it is argued, that the unsuccessful attempt to launch an university degree course was the result of the very nature of the degree which ran counter to the essence of the National Fitness movement and did only partly meet the objectives of the Commonwealth policy on tertiary Physical Education. After all, the programmes enhancing the policy had been implemented for a number of years. The health orientation may have been well known in the community and therefore attracted prospective students with different educational backgrounds, or different personalities, and varying job expectations.
The Commonwealth had its own agenda when it made annual grants available to a university in every state to finance minimum staffing for a degree course in Physical Education. At the same time it empowered the National Fitness Council to manage the money and oversee the progress in the courses. The objectives of the National government were to secure an acceptable fitness level of young Australians and improve the general health standards of children. The outcome of this initiative was to train as many professional teachers or leaders in Recreation and Physical Education as possible. Candidates for both types of courses, recreation leaders and physical education teachers, were attracted by the same message: the general state of health was unsatisfactory and more physical skills should be taught to give children more access to physical activity. The National Fitness Council and the Education Department echoed these same sentiments and worked closely together to overcome the shortage of their respective, trained personnel.

The Diploma course at Sydney Teachers' College had been inaugurated in 1939. It had been one of the first tasks of the newly appointed Director of Physical Education to secure teacher training for the Education Department in New South Wales. The two-year course was directed towards the skill acquisition in Dance, swimming and games and additionally focused on Teaching Methods. Health and Healthy Lifestyle were part of the knowledge and philosophy taught throughout the two years. Students entering the Diploma program would have felt in tune with the teaching of the subject and the philosophy marketed by the partnership of the National Fitness Council and Education Department.

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It may be argued that the success of the Teachers' College's Certificate, and later Diploma, course may be due to the harmony between policy direction set by the Commonwealth and the training course. The study program equipped the students with the tools to gain the skills in activities, theoretical knowledge in health and related/medical areas. The methodological units embraced subject knowledge, skill and the best way to teach groups of people of varying ages. The major objective, to instill lifelong health-consciousness and enjoyment of activity, thus could be achieved. The guiding questions a teacher may follow, the 'what, when, where and how'\textsuperscript{56} had been addressed. The culmination of policy objectives, the ability of students to implement the knowledge, followed by positive outcomes could be accomplished.

\textsuperscript{56} What to teach, when to teach it, where to teach it, and how to teach it.
6.3 Comparison and Summary

The University of Sydney, like Melbourne, had its supporters for the introduction of a degree or diploma course. The Vice-Chancellor, Professor Wallace, and Professor Sutton from within the University, and the Minister for Education, represented by Gordon Young, played a primary role in the four year long battle to have the course accepted by the University hierarchy. Professor Wallace chaired the Board of Studies himself to exert some influence on the preparation for the course, and the progress to move the new field of study into the academic areas taught within the university. Both academic administrators had to be acknowledged for their contribution and their final apparent success when the new Bachelor of Science in Physical Education was admitted into the teaching calendar.

Two of the three men, prominent in the fight for a degree course at University of Sydney came from different 'vantage points'. These were Gordon Young and Harvey Sutton. Their Victorian counterpart would have been one person, Professor G.S. Browne, because Fritz Duras was appointed as a result of the struggle for inclusion. There was no equivalent position to Gordon Young's Director of Physical Education in the Victorian Education Department. The Physical Education Branch Organiser constituted the highest position in the hierarchy of the Education Department. The position was answerable to the Director of Primary Education, not as Gordon Young, to the Director of Education NSW. The Victorian Organiser of the Physical Education Branch was responsible to programs and staff directly linked with the Branch. There was no official brief to negotiate with the University of Melbourne for
the creation of a Physical Education course. The Education Department together with
the Commonwealth National Fitness Council directly negotiated with the University
of Melbourne. New South Wales and Victoria started the professionalisation process
within Physical Education at opposing points. Melbourne had the push from an
influential 'outside' organisation, the National Council of Women, which co-opted
Prof. Browne, the Head of the Faculty of Education, to chair the organising
committee for the degree. G.S. Browne, therefore, was able to work from within,
because he volunteered to offer the establishment of the Physical Education as part of
his Faculty. It was in his and his colleagues' interest to introduce sound modern
teaching methods in a school subject that had been neglected in the past.

Professor Sutton's situation at the University of Sydney could be compared to
Professor Browne's in as much as both men headed a Faculty and were able to exert
influence on the close academic community of their respective university. Tertiary
Physical Education training is indebted to both academics who used either his own
Faculty, or in Harvey Sutton's case, his prestigious and efficacious position as head
of the Institute for Tropical Medicine to professionalise the academically non-
accepted area of Physical Education. Browne had an advantage over Sutton though
thinking in terms of the process model and the steps which had to be followed to
fully execute the establishment of the first tertiary course in each university.
Browne's Education Faculty in Melbourne, as the provider faculty, was empowered
by the Senate to develop the course and offer it to the prospective student population,
thus policy implementation stages. Thus, referring back to the policy evaluation
model, the Education Faculty under Browne's leadership created the implementation

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stage as well as the internalised stage. The second stage, as mentioned before, incorporated the ability to teach the content and the philosophy agreed upon between university and education/health authorities. Inevitably the Education Faculty took charge of all steps to be undertaken: implementation, internalisation and evaluation. That means that the education aspect within the Physical Education qualification had to be addressed and satisfied. The University of Sydney in contrast, as mentioned previously, did not offer education as a first degree at that time. Physical Education students enrolled for education units in the Teachers' College programme. In other words, the University of Sydney was unable to provide similar conditions and consolidated an approach to cater for this important aspect of the professional preparation. Or, as mentioned before, given the status differences of these institutions there may have been a sufficient disincentive to block progression from Science to Physical Education. Professor Harvey Sutton was the most outspoken supporter for a Physical Education degree. He had some crucial support from other members of the academic hierarchy. According to the archival documentation available, the Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Wallace was one of a few strong allies responding to the request by the Commonwealth to introduce the degree course into the university. Dr. Wallace after all has to be seen as the custodian of university, state and Commonwealth interests and policies. In this role he had to satisfy all parties concerned. Harvey Sutton's second most influential colleague and supporter of a professional Physical Education course was Professor Oscar Vonwiller. As recorded in the Professorial Board minutes the Dean of the Science Faculty37 seconded all Sutton's motions which finally led to the approval of the B.Sc. in Physical Education in 1943. It

37 During 1939 and 1941, Vonwiller was Dean of the Faculty of Science and member of the Senate. J. Ritchie (ed), Australian Dictionary of Biography, Carlton/Vic., 1990, pp. 333-334.
should also be mentioned here that Professor John Anderson seemed to be a
colleague sharply opposed to the introduction of Physical Education as an academic
discipline and the inauguration of the Department of Physical Education. The holder
of the Challis Chair of Philosophy opposed any notion which would in his opinion
diminish the status of the university. In addition he despised any kind of patriotism
and war kind activities.\textsuperscript{58} All Professorial Board minutes between 1936 and 1943
clearly identify him as an opponent whose strong view is put on record. Yet, the team
of Sutton and Vonwiller win most discussions during the Board meetings. Sutton’s
influence is particularly strong. His background was providing him with the
knowledge of the discipline and a passion for sport. His career path had exposed him
to a wide variety of medical endeavours: since September 1909 he had been involved
in anthropometric measures of height and weight of school children and other health
check-ups when he became part of the first school medical service team. In 1920 he
was appointed Principal Medical Officer in the New South Wales Department of
Public Instruction. As an officer of a medical corps he served during WWI and saw
men performing under harshest conditions. All experience together will have
consolidated his firm belief that a strong fundamental knowledge in Anatomy and
Physiology was mandatory for every Physical Education teacher to teach effectively
in any classroom setting. Yet, Sutton will have also responded to the political climate
in the university. A career and competition oriented man like him\textsuperscript{59} would have
carefully prepared the path with the Vice Chancellor and the Education Department

\textsuperscript{58} B. Nairn and G. Searle (eds), \textit{Australian Dictionary of Biography}, vol. 7, 1891-1939, 1979, pp.57-
59.

\textsuperscript{59} Sutton was also a highly successful athlete. For example: he represented Australia at the 1908
Olympics in Paris in the 800m run. Ritchie (ed), \textit{Australian Dictionary of Biography}, op.cit., pp. 143-
144.
and hence the discussions at Faculty, Academic Board and Senate level. His own conviction and the alliance with the Science Faculty will have guided him to develop a science-oriented course. He would have known that any other Faculty would have denied access and the academic hierarchy would not have given the seal of approval to the course.

The Bachelor of Science in Physical Education course was designed to attract prospective students to study Physical Education at the University of Sydney. The course was far removed from its alleged aims and objectives to pass on knowledge in body mechanics, in motor skills and health issues, like the effect of diet and hygiene on the human body, particularly in relation to human performance. The Science course had very little in common with the Commonwealth Physical Education policy that was decreed to the states to provide the framework and justification for the grants to universities and Education Departments. Yet, the equivalent to a generic science degree with a major appended in the last year may have been the only chance to introduce a Physical Education degree into a university.

In contrast to the University of Sydney, the University of Melbourne course required the students to undertake a more ‘balanced’ course, including the sciences, social sciences, education and arts. Studies in the anatomical and physiological basis of Physical Education, body mechanics, history principles and methods of Physical Education, hygiene, diet and first aid, teaching practice and observation all were part of the training. A unit in practical exercises was similar to the one prescribed in the
Sydney course. The second year structure was a continuum of the first, and furthered the consolidation of knowledge and practical experience. No post graduate diploma was offered at the University of Melbourne either, as students graduating only with the Diploma did not qualify for a post degree diploma.

A further difference of approach by the universities of Australia's two most populated states was the proposed staffing of the new course and the expertise sought. The Victorian senior administrators started with the engagement of the top position in the hierarchy, filling the position of head of department first, while in Sydney, the bottom to top approach was chosen. The first appointments were finalised in early 1940, three years later than Melbourne, calling the Director of Training, E.H. Le Maistre and two Assistant Lecturers, M. Swain and R. Gray to the University lecturing staff. Once the College course was in place, all lecturing staff were 'on loan' to the Sydney Teachers' College. This later move was critical, because by lending staff to the Teachers' College, the University was not willing to accept these appointees as equal academics, because they were from then on employed by the Board of Studies, not the university. It was only at the beginning of 1960 that Dr Le Maistre and Miss Swain were transferred back to the university.

It had to be a 'lucky coincidence' for Melbourne, and also to Australian Physical Education, that three circumstances came together in the person of an academic,

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60 Kentish, op.cit., p. 50.
51 Moutray, op.cit., p.65.
52 Ibid.
specialised in Sports Medicine, a refugee living in Britain, and a man looking for a job anywhere in the world. On the other side of the world was a university, ready to follow a request to introduce a course in a new discipline. Physical Culture or Training had expanded to such a degree that it needed guidance under which professionals could be trained. A number of highly regarded academics from the University were encouraged to follow this call. They were enthusiastic about the suggestions and were eager to meet the colleague. The high caliber of the applicant, Fritz Duras, jelled with the fourth stroke of luck: the Carnegie Foundation provided the funds for the fares, transfer and two years’ salary.

The University of Sydney had its own opportunity, different, but not necessarily subordinate. Lecturing staff trained in Physical Education were appointed. The subject was taught by academics who were educated in the same area they taught. Miss Marjorie Swain was trained at the English Chelsea College, which was recognised as the best training available in England. Hal Le Maistre was one of a number of students who had taken up the opportunity to study Physical Education overseas. He returned to Sydney with a Masters degree in Physical Education.64

The National Fitness Council in New South Wales was aware of the political cooperation first, and then tug-of-war between College and University for many years to come. The Chairman of the National Fitness Council, and Director General of Health had to accept the fact, that University of Sydney would not attract students for

64 Sports Medicine had been an accepted branch of medicine since the mid-twenties in Germany. Germany was one of the few European countries where sports medicine was practised.
65 Young, op.cit., p. 282.
a degree course. Important to the National Fitness Campaign administration was that teachers for Physical Education classes would be prepared. And they were prepared well. Therefore the outcome of the Commonwealth policy was guaranteed. The implementation was forthcoming. There was a course available, students enrolled in the course and they acquired the theoretical knowledge in health related areas. Of concern were the limitations of practical classes as they could only be offered with the limited facilities available on campus. To improve the conditions, the Commonwealth made a one-off grant available to the University in 1950 to build recreational facilities on campus. Although staff and students had to endure trying conditions, students were instructed in the skills of activities and games and had a base from which to work. The Method course in teaching Physical Education addressed the last dimension of the internalised stage of implementation: the future Physical Education teachers learnt the steps of presenting the activities in such a way that their own students would enjoy the movement, and would want to learn.

The last stage in the evaluation process was the ultimate outcome of the programme, the number of students who graduated and who became physical education teachers or leaders in the National Fitness Campaign. As Miss Swain, one of the first lecturers appointed to the training position and a long standing member of staff, pointed out, that Sydney Teachers' College trained more practising Physical Educationists than the rest of Australia. Judging by this result, the Commonwealth had reached its objectives. Therefore it was only just that the Commonwealth took the opportunity to

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66 Moutray, op.cit., p. 79.
67 McDonnell et al., op.cit., p. 254.
divert the annual grant of £2,000, and from 1942 of £2,100, from the University to the Teachers' College.

The Commonwealth had aimed to make Australian health and physical education training self-sufficient in each state. Its National Fitness Campaign provided for an annual tertiary training grant. The University of Melbourne and Sydney Teachers' College had taken up the challenge, two well-accepted courses were established by the early 1940.
The history of Physical Education for children in Primary schools in Victoria and New South Wales has invariably started from the premise that each state Education Department had received its independence from the Commonwealth at the onset of Federation in 1901. Hence the majority of writers of Australian Educational History acknowledge the states' right to develop their own education. Chown (1969) is one of the few writers who alerts his readers to the shift in Commonwealth interest when he writes:

...the Commonwealth acknowledged little responsibility for major educational influence...After the war...intervention took different directions in New South Wales and Victoria.\(^1\)

While Chown remained in the general sphere of Education, Tannock (1969) identified and superficially mentioned the National Fitness Campaign as intervention by the Commonwealth. To what extent, and in which direction, was not extrapolated by him. Other authors, like Kirk\(^2\) and Spaull\(^3\) are quite outspoken about their view. They expand on Crawford's platform and argue that the military direction of the national physical training syllabus had been provided by the Commonwealth

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2. One example is Kirk's book *Schooling Bodies*, op.cit., passim.
parliament from the inception of Federation and forced upon the states. However, the
degree of intrusion that may have happened is excluded from the debate. So is the
other assumption that federal and state governments formed genuine partnerships
over decades and each level functioned within the realm of the constitutional
obligations.

Hence the overall aim of this research was to address the question of a perceived
Commonwealth influence in Physical Education curricula in two states. Physical
Education in primary schools offers one case study in which primary documentation
is available to inquire as to the research question of whether or not, and if so, for
what reason and to what extent, the Commonwealth took an active part in the states’
prerogative of education.

A second point under discussion in the research is the seeming confusion whether the
governments displayed any vision and whether the changes they initiated had been
planned systematically and with care. Particularly PhD authors who researched into
Physical Education curricula prior to the Second World War, and shortly after (Jones
1991, Tannock 1972, Chown 1969), allude to the lack of policy direction from the
individual state in which Physical Education is taught. The documentation presented
in this research, and supported by primary and secondary sources, is in fact
questioning and arguing against this perception. Throughout the thesis the fact is
highlighted that the Commonwealth, not the states of Victoria or New South Wales,
first of all passed Acts which were later incorporated into the states’ legislature. In
fact, there was not a time span where the states did not find themselves under an
implicit federal leadership. As early as 1851 the first policy for the teaching of physical training in New South Wales' and Victorian colonial schools was agreed upon. The guidelines were carefully followed by each colony. Once Federation was proclaimed, the states continued to comply with the same syllabus pattern until 1911. The implementation of the Defence Act 1903-11, in July 1911, signaled the second time a major change took place. It was the beginning of a new era. Military personnel not only entered the schools to instruct, but schools had to register boys who turned 12 years of age on or after the first of January for the junior cadet service. Part of the introduction of the Universal Training Scheme was the second decision by all parties concerned to formalize and enact the School Medical Service. Thus, by 1911, Physical Education became part of the decision making process of three different departments: the Defence Department, the Health Department and the Education Department. A shift had occurred from the involvement of two ministries, the Defence and Ministry of Public Instruction, to three. The Health Department would continue to be a major player in the determination of curriculum issues for Physical Education, while the Defence Department would officially be excluded from another new initiative in 1939, the third juncture for Physical Education. The active role the Commonwealth may have played prior to and during the early years of WWII, by introducing new national legislation has been queried extensively from several perspectives. The evidence is not conclusive that the decision by the federal parliament to set up the National Fitness Council in 1939 and consequently pass the National Fitness Act 1941 was made disregarding the states' wishes. It appears though, that at all times the Commonwealth identified its own needs and, in
consultation with the states, formulated a policy that would in the end benefit the state.

The investigation into the development of Physical Education in two states revealed that the involvement of the Commonwealth occurred only gradually over time. This historical change is a challenge to capture. A comparison of different historical time frames can prove to be problematic at times. After all one has to acknowledge that contemporary procedures and practices may vary substantially. Documentation was consulted to search for indicators to reveal the degree of Commonwealth influences in Physical Education policy making and implementation. It had been assumed that within the primary school subject of Physical Education the Commonwealth had actively pursued a policy of interference and had breached the states’ prerogatives to formulate their own education curricula. The research evidence, however, cannot conclusively concur with this notion. As stated many times during the discussions, certain facts led the researcher to believe that the Commonwealth acted in what may be called ‘the interest of the country’ and called on the states to support the proposed scheme. As has been argued previously, and as will be summarised in this chapter, the Commonwealth played a powerful and dominant role in policy setting. It actually formulated major policy models and became a partner in the implementation of programmes and courses for a number of years. A general pattern can be detected over the years where the Commonwealth department in question paid for the initial establishment costs followed by maintaining its initial funding level to either the Education and Health departments or universities. Consequently, over a number of years, the grants lost in buying power, making the states gradually independent.
Hence in reducing the federal support, state parliaments had to cater for their own expenses. The active stance the Commonwealth took from 1909 is well in line with the unequalled position Physical Education found itself in. The Defence Department firstly controlled Physical Training or Physical Education. The change in emphasis due to forces like public concern for health, concern about fitness of Australians per se and in general children, as well as calls for Australian leadership and enhanced opportunity in Physical Education and recreation shifted the discipline into the Commonwealth Department of Health. And yet over all those years between 1901 and 1969, physical activity was taught as a school subject and claimed by Education. Hence in answer to the all embracing basic research question, as whether the Commonwealth interfered or collaborated with the states, it needs to be acknowledged that the states and the Commonwealth shared responsibilities and were partners working together and relying on each other.
In an evaluation whether contemporary policy setting had been in place over all the
years under discussion, one has to be aware that the body of management knowledge
that forms the basis of most management practices today, is of comparatively recent
origin. Hence any judgement has to compare and contrast key elements and practices
which we would find currently crucial in the process of policy setting.

As previously claimed, the first major policy introduced by the Minister of Public
Instruction with the Victorian Education Act happened in 1872. Again at that time, a
format for policy making had not been developed. Yet, following simpler patterns to
contemporary practice, expressions for purpose and intent were made before
parliaments and documented in parliamentary papers. From this evidence, the
reasoning, commitment and the actions became quite clear. To compare policy
development practices before the onset of the Commonwealth with practices adopted
in more recent times, the contrast to modern political practices is very stark. There
are two distinct applications to consider: paradigms versus parliamentary practice.
The 1970s have witnessed the shift from the practice or precedent model to the
formulation of various paradigms, including the development of procedures aiming
to streamline and standardise the policy formation. Any policy intended by a
government has to go through a process that has been adopted by all parties
concerned (governments, opposition, and government departments). The current
policy path stipulates to the parliamentary bureaucrats to prepare a green paper in
which the policy aim would be explained, along with the purpose of the new action.
Carefully worded explanations of the implementation process and the intended outcome guided chosen interest groups to comment on the proposed policy. Upon receipt of responses, a white paper follows the green, in which public and specialist criticism and recommendations are considered by the government of the day. As indicated, at the time the first Education Act was introduced into the Victorian colony, political procedures were handled far more simplistically, meaning there was no consultation process in place. Statements outlining the reasons for the introduction of a particular action had to be extrapolated from Parliamentary Debates. Nevertheless, many of such statements would today be called a policy statement and the pursuing action the implementation policy.

Tracing the policy moves from the beginning of Federation in 1901 to the end of the 1960s, one has to acknowledge that the Commonwealth Parliament had a firm grip on the policy for Physical Training for children. The Physical Training Scheme, as explored in Chapter three, initially provided the national approach. The Defence Department became the control agent, ensuring the homogeneous approach in both states, Victoria and New South Wales. Once the Defence Department had been discharged from its educational responsibilities in 1931, the federal government reconsidered its role within primary education as soon as the Depression started to ease and the Second World War was inevitable. No objection was recorded from the states when the Commonwealth reverted back to use physical activity as an instrument of national policy. Considering the research evidence it is assumed here that the states were aware that the Commonwealth was about to collaborate with
them. After all the states would have felt the pressure by some interest groups and the demand for tertiary training independence. Tertiary education falls under the responsibility of the federal government and the expansion of leisure programmes a sound coordination by an overseeing body. To initiate change in the educational system again may have been welcomed with relief when both state parliaments accepted the National Health Department as the agency to take charge of the National Health Campaign. The position the states adopted may be called a silent partner. The National Fitness Council's activities, legalised with the National Fitness Act 1941, appeared to work in well with the Education Departments and state Health Departments. The prospect of financial assistance and an united approach to the children's health, education and the training of personnel, capable of quality curriculum development and delivery, would have motivated state politicians and educators alike into mutual agreement to the proposal. The unspoken acceptance of political alliance into a curriculum area remained matchless for Physical Education in Victoria and New South Wales until the end of the period under investigation.

Darwin Semotiuk addresses the question of government involvement in sport in his research. He developed a delineating model, based on the Canadian system, to analyse the interaction and relationships between forces and functions motivating the National Government to be connected with sport. He built his motivation model on Meynaud's major causes for government involvement in sport, not Physical

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4 For example, in New South Wales the Recreation and Leadership Movement lobbied government and professional groups to enlarge the choices for recreational activities and to train physical activity leaders. AA SP1063/1/796.
Education. Firstly, he identified the concern for the maintenance of public order, secondly, regard for the physical condition of citizens, and thirdly, the affirmation of national prestige. Basing his examination on these three reasons, Semotiuk classified motives for government involvement, confirmed Meynaud's philosophical stand and categorisation, by detailing the objectives and clearly stating the political gains sport brings to national governments.

Semotiuk's model focuses on the role of sport within a political system. He did not intend to use the paradigm in its present form as a comparative evaluation tool, as he acknowledges the lack of research into the topic, lack of explanatory models, including the diversity of systems and cultural patterns, and lack of a common terminology in the literature. He devised the paradigm as one analysis of an interventional relationship between a national government and sporting bodies.

The author acknowledges that Semotiuk's model provides the basis for the articulation of a new model to explain the interrelationship between Australian governments in the formulation of policies for Physical Education for children in state schools in New South Wales and Victoria. In line with the theme permeating throughout the research, the modified model incorporates all functions that had been integrated into the implementation strategies and process over the time span under investigation. As the parliaments decided over policies within the educational sphere, the educational function is guiding motives and thus legislative capacity. The pivotal point is the gathering of motives. On the other hand forces of motives and functions

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interact, affecting the Legislative function. The approach can also be initiated from the Legislative Capacity, as for example, the passing of an Act could motivate an involvement in all or selected functions. The arrows in the paradigm respond to the forces which flow either directly or indirectly to and from the motivation centre-point, or to and from the Legislative Capacity to the reasons for involvement. All in all, the model depicts the complexity of forces and the interaction between diverse interests of the national government.

Table 17  Motives underlying the Commonwealth's involvement in Physical Education

At the very centre of the model at hand are most motives Semotiuk cited: the legislative function (renamed capacity), and four functions which actuated the Commonwealth to pass legislation to prepare the legal ground for intervention. They are the military function, the socialising function, the individualised function and the
Health function. Semotiuk also included the elements of international prestige and goodwill in his model to account for the competitive goals of sporting bodies. As the discussion within the research was limited to domestic forces, the international aspects were not taken into consideration. Yet, if one study's aim would be to compare and contrast two or more national governments' reason for involvement in policy setting, then the two functions, national prestige and international goodwill should be included as forces.

Examining the model more closely within the Australian and at the same time historical context, one should be aware that the states and the Commonwealth shared some experience at the turn of the century. Before Federation each colony had its full independence. That means that New South Wales and Victoria each individually were responsible for all functions as they appear in the model. Parliament had the legislative power to pass laws for each functional area. Thus, the colonial and the new Commonwealth models are congruent. The birth of the Commonwealth streamlined the responsibilities at federal and state levels. The Commonwealth and its supporting bureaucratic machinery would primarily enhance and uphold the national security, interest and image, while the states' rights would lie in more domestic issues for a smaller group of people.

Physical Training or Physical Education provided an interesting case study in the relationship between the Commonwealth and the states. The discipline was in a unique position, as three different and independent departments administered it. The departments are synonymous with functions. Hence the motivation to be gradually
more and more involved in Physical Training was encouraged from three sources, the Education Department, the Health Department and the Military.

The major motivator, though, had been identified throughout the thesis as the military function. It is from this premise of sole provider of military service, protection and defence that the federal parliament was able to take its power to be the prime legislator for the subject. From 1901 onwards it was the Commonwealth’s duty to activate any conditions which would enhance the security of the nation. As the military responsibility is a prime function of the national government, it is not surprising that every change in the policy of physical training was underwritten by several Commonwealth departments and endorsed by state authorities. All material researched alluded to military importance. Although the relationship between state and national delegates could never be detected, documentation on meetings and minutes attest to friendly and favourable agreements. As there is no evidence about clashes or differences of opinion between the two levels of governments, one has to assume that politicians and bureaucrats worked collaboratively together. At the early stages of divided responsibilities, the congruency of the models at the turn of the century may have had a strong influence. After all, the state politicians would have been familiar with the military function of the political system. As the federal parliament bipartisan approach of all major political parties showed when the Defence Bills with Amendments were finally proclaimed. In addition, the apparent disinterest by the public when military training for boys in schools was proposed may not only be due to the workers’ strike which affected, thus preoccupied, large
sections of the community. The change of political system and its two tiered responsibility levels may have not been fully understood by the people. Confusion could have resulted in apparent complacency. The numerous protests against the Defence Act and the thousands of prosecutions in the following years could well attest to this assumption.

The colonial governments' familiarity with military responsibilities may therefore provide one reason why newly formed state parliaments and Commonwealth departments worked well together. Some speculation may suggest that some previous colonial department employees were taken over by federal departments and thus opened the way for more communication and exchange of expertise. Thus when the Defence Act 1903 was passed, the states would have readily accepted the responsibility to establish a national infrastructure. Within that specific framework, the states could have, in a way, appreciated the fact by stipulating the rules for children in schools, at least all children in Australia would fall under the same regulations. After all, the education authority had concurred with the defence departments in the past, and children had been taught military drill during school hours. The reports from the Conference of all Directors of Education⁸ give the impression that all conference members were in total harmony with the Prime Minister's invitation to support the Commonwealth. The third conference called in 1912, would confirm the implementation of the unified training system and the interrelated school medical service and evaluate the effectiveness of the education and health systems. In summary, one has to conclude that the actions by the

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⁸ Jauncey, op. cit. p. 10.
⁹ AA, 1832/1/220, 1832/13/90, and 1832/13/585
Commonwealth had continued with the colonies’ physical training curricula, but as it had so much more scope, it was able to expand the programmes. The Commonwealth’s second major intercession happened again shortly before a major war. After 1931 there had been an economic necessity for the Commonwealth to withdraw from the education scene and leave Physical Education solely in the hands of the Education Departments. However, once the economy had recovered, there were renewed attempts by the federal government to regain the teaching status in Primary schools. Yet, at this stage, the state Education departments opposed the offer.

It is interesting to note that the national government changed its approach after having been declined. A shift in emphasis occurred. In the motivation model used from the onset of the implementation of the junior cadet system, the military function was at the very foundation of future decisions and policies. All other functions became secondary. Once this approach had been elevated, the states took on the challenge and looked for change. As mentioned earlier, there had been growing opposition against the military slant in education and a call for more skill and health aspects embedded in the syllabus. In response the curriculum moved towards the education and health functions.

Once Victoria showed the lead and initiated a tertiary training course in Physical Education, and in New South Wales the Recreation and Leadership Movement lobbied the state government and The University of Sydney for more training
opportunities in Physical Education, Recreation and Health.\textsuperscript{10} A separate study may
detect how much the political climate influenced the Commonwealth to make a
rather rapid shift to broaden the notion of Physical Education. At this point, the shift
has to be acknowledged, and with it, apparent cooperation between the
Commonwealth and the two major states. Thus, the federal parliament, after a short
interlude, regains the leading status. The motives are clear, education becomes the
vehicle to reach the goals, which, again, have a military flavour. Education, though,
gains a stronger position. The Education function now caters for all levels of
education, from primary to tertiary. The Health function is elevated as the changing
agent. The Department of Health sets the infrastructure and the National Fitness
Council takes on the guiding role for the implementation and evaluation of all
programmes. The states' sub-branches collaborate directly with Head Office which in
turn, distributes and monitors programmes and activities. The interplay of forces
between all functions applies the pressure on the Commonwealth's motives for
involvement. As the reciprocation between functions gradually diminished, mainly
due to the financial withdrawal of funds, so did the importance of the national Health
department.

By 1969 the motivation assessment model can no longer be applied to the
Commonwealth government. Gradually over a time span of thirty years the
Commonwealth had changed position with the states. The Legislative Capacity had
been claimed by the state, as had the Educational Function. Although national and
state parliaments are still working together in the national interest, within the total

\textsuperscript{10} AA, SP1063/1, 796, Correspondence Sydney College of Physical Education and Recreation
Leadership.
picture, the states are determining the Physical Education in their schools. They are the recipients of the motives for involvement, each function within the paradigm asserts pressure and claims a place in the curriculum. The Commonwealth thus has left the leading role to the states and has assumed its role as a silent partner.
7.2 Comparison of State Programmes

Concurrent with the outbreak of World War II was the establishment of the National Fitness Council, followed by the National Fitness Act assented to in 1941. As part of the new unified policy for Physical Education in Australian primary schools, all states were placed under the auspices of the National Health Department. Each state formed national Fitness Council sub branches to comply with the recommendations of the Commonwealth to implement the programmes in education, community recreation and teacher training. All states were to have their own centre to support the national fitness campaign and train professionals and leaders in the field.

Notwithstanding the common legislative Act to comply with, and the common controlling federal department, the organisational and administrative operating patterns were diverted between the states. In Victoria, the Minister for Health was responsible for the planning and implementation of programmes in all fields of Physical Education prepared by the National Fitness Council in the state. Community leisure services and the spending of funds by the Education Department were under the Health department's jurisdiction.

In New South Wales, the Minister for Education's portfolio contained the responsibility for a unified form of state organisation in which Physical Education in schools and physical activities for the community were administered by the same branch.
Victoria and New South Wales' starting point may have been crucial in the varied development of the national fitness campaign. While Victoria commenced its progress in 1937 with the appointment of the first Director in Physical Education at the University of Melbourne, New South Wales recruited the first Director in Physical Education in the secondary education section of the Education Department. Both new positions were filled by applicants from overseas, Germany and Canada respectively. Upon its inception, the National Fitness Council (NSW) joined the partnership with the Education Department. The first priority was to address the lack of expertise of Physical Education teachers. To overcome the shortage, the Director for Physical Education had to liaise with the Sydney Teachers' College and oversee the training procedures and standards. Therefore the position created was a senior administration post where the incumbent was directly answerable to the Director for Education. As Director for Physical Education and Executive Officer Gordon Young automatically took over the dual responsibility as Executive Officer of the National Fitness Council - New South Wales. The authority to administer school and community Physical Education resulted in a close alliance. Gordon Young himself put the administrative procedure on record.\footnote{Young, op.cit., p. 328.} There was a policy in place to streamline the comprehensive administration of two state organisations that were under the leadership of the same director: Within it the director controlled the policy approved by the Education Department. The National Fitness Council, on the other hand, advised upon policy and exercised limited executive power. The third step included the combined Head Office. It provided the assistance of a professional staff and a clerical staff. These staff members would have the central function of planning,
services, supervision and finance. Although in New South Wales the National Fitness Council was set up to be an independent body, the major administrative duties seemed to have been placed with schools, secondary schools in particular. Primary schools in Physical Education received relatively little attention.

In Victoria, in contrast, the most senior position in Physical Education was the Organiser of Physical Education of the Physical Education Branch. The Organiser shared the same level of seniority as the Curriculum and Research Officer, or the Principal Psychologist and Guidance Officer within the Primary Education Division. All these positions were answerable to the Assistant Chief Inspector of Primary Schools. In summary, the appointment in New South Wales was far superior to the senior appointment in Victoria. The mere fact that the supervisor of the Physical Education Branch was accountable to the Assistant Chief Inspector for Primary Education until well into the 1960s, is a testimony to the influence, accountability, status and responsibilities of the Branch. Although the hierarchical position was not very high, the positioning, and its independence, was in line with the other specialist branches and because of the specialist nature, provided certain autonomy.

In Victoria, the Primary school sector was the first to benefit by the tertiary training of teachers and the introduction of an Australian syllabus. The target for the Education Department was the Physical Education in Primary schools. The appointment procedure for administrative and professional staff followed a progressive pattern. The Physical Education Branch had been created in 1911 and

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therefore was well established and administratively efficient. The syllabus had been adopted from Britain in 1934 and every teacher in the service was familiar with the same. The teachers assigned to instruct in Physical Education were either foreign trained, had joined courses offered by the Physical Education Branch staff or had received their training in the military. The first step undertaken in Victoria to advance the teaching of Physical Education was to establish a tertiary course for aspiring Physical Education teachers. Dr Fritz Duras, the first appointee to a tertiary position in Physical Education is therefore aptly called 'the Father of Physical Education in Australia'.\(^{13}\) While teachers in Victoria and New South Wales were trained, the British syllabus continued to form the basis for most programmes offered to children in both states. Medical Services supported staff to single out children who needed postural assistance during class time, or special sessions conducted by specialist staff from the Physical Education Branch. Once the National Fitness Council was established at state levels, the health departments cultivated a cooperative work relationship.

Contrary to New South Wales, the Victorian National Fitness Council was neither directly linked with the Education Department by position, nor did Physical Education staff share duties between the two organisations. There was an undivided dedication to Physical Education in Primary schools and the implementation of the Commonwealth policy to improve the fitness of young Australians. The implementation/evaluation model assessed the success of the first Australian syllabus for Victorian Primary schools at every stage in the implementation procedure. The

\(^{13}\) Kentish, op.cit.
ease with which an evaluation could be obtained stressed the necessity for every policy maker to structure the implementation phases in such a way that the progress and effect can be measured at each stage. It is significant to mention at this point that the Victorian 1947 syllabus was distinctly different from the one to be introduced in New South Wales in 1952 despite the Commonwealth agenda. The wealth and detail of activities provided would not be surpassed in the next twenty-five years. The syllabus distinguished itself by its balanced approach, taking gender and equity issues into account. The New South Wales curriculum, in contrast, demonstrated its merit with a well devised programme in outdoor education taught in schools and the community by staff employed in the unified system. These distinguishing features separating the two syllabi were able to happen despite the federal government’s military oriented agenda. It is a significant result because the differences in programmes suggest that the Commonwealth policy allowed for individual interpretations of the emphasis of the policy. Within the framework it granted opportunities, in terms of the interaction between the Education Department and the National Fitness Council to cater for state specific differences as long as the outcome would be achieved. The fact that the Commonwealth had directed its attention towards outcomes makes it even more important for this research to assess the objectives of the policy at each level of the implementation model devised for this study.

The Victorians were the first to provide the final link to the total construct of Australian based Physical Education in the state. Once the complete structure (syllabus, programmes and staff training) was in place, only minor changes were
initiated from the Physical Education Branch, the Victorian branch of the National Fitness Council, and the university until the end of 1960. In the 1960s changes were called for and prepared and also foreshadowed, but they would only eventuate from 1970 onwards.

Although Gordon Young was first and foremost a bureaucrat employed to serve the state, the New South Wales interlinked position of Director of Physical Education and Executive Officer of the NSW National Fitness Council had a profound effect on the development of Physical Education in the state. The combined offices, the dual role indicated by signature of the same person on most documents but identified as either the Director of Physical Education or the Executive Officer of the National Fitness Council (NSW), signifies the problematic nature of the organisation. Any distinction between the responsibilities could best be described as being blurred. Ewens is highly commendable in his judgement when he highlights the fact that Gordon Young, who filled the dual position from 1938 to 1969, had been highly enthusiastic. Ewens accredits Young with the ability to combine his professional knowledge with an opportunistic nature, someone who motivated anybody associated with him into support for educational or community projects.14 Ewens judges Young's achievement particularly on his success to hold the integrated position on a very personal note. He attributes the successful combination of Physical Education and community activities to Young's personal characteristics and motivation. The research does not necessarily support Ewens' claim. Large organisations like the Education Department and branches of the National Fitness Councils will benefit by

14 Ewens, op.cit., p. 64.
hiring enthusiastic employees, but Young was one person in a larger team. He will have inspired his subordinates, but in the end, the praise cannot be entirely vested in the top position. Again, a very thorough assessment in future may reveal his influence in either or both organisations.

Young loved the outdoors, his professional training in recreation in Canada had secured him the position in New South Wales. Therefore it is not surprising that Young's strength developed to the full, particularly as the federal policy gave him the flexibility. One most significant contribution Young made to New South Wales' education and recreation endeavours was the introduction of outdoor education (camping) into the 1952 Primary syllabus. The programme went from strength to strength, culminating in 1970 in the establishment of three principal positions in National Fitness camp schools and a vast number of school and community camps scattered around New South Wales. The intensity and effectiveness of the school camping programme could not be matched in Victoria, where the syllabus direction to support higher fitness levels in children was underpinning a broader selection of physical activities as part of the school curriculum activities. Consequently, trapped in budgetary constraints, the Victorian Education Department offered only limited recreation facilities and camping opportunities to children.

New South Wales outshone Victoria in outdoor activities conducted by the Education Department and National Fitness Council staff for primary children. However, the states seem to have responded to the federal government's emphasis on recreation
and leisure. ¹³ Victoria had not ignored one of the goals. It may have been collaboration between the states that Victoria yet again moved into the ‘train the instructor’ area. As mentioned before, Victoria had taken the lead in conducting Recreation leaders' courses and had supported New South Wales in introducing a national course to streamline the Recreation leadership training movement under the National Fitness Council banner. Now, Victoria would share the national responsibility and train staff to be employed in both states.

The research has brought to light that both states shared common interests and concerns while in partnership with the Commonwealth. Another example is the swimming initiative in both states. From the 1910s onwards, swimming had been placed high on the public's agenda. Frequent drownings had motivated Frank Beaurepaire in Melbourne to interweave his Olympic training with swimming classes for children. His name is infamous with the introduction of swimming awards in Victoria. The 'Herald' swimming programme would be prominent in primary and lower secondary schools until the mid-1980s. New South Wales also introduced a massive swimming campaign, but the one with an even greater magnitude than the Victorian one, happened in 1953, forty years later. The difference was that the Victorian swimming program was only school curriculum based, while the New South Wales' drive was a joint National Fitness Council and Education Department project.

¹³ There is no indication in the documentation available that the Commonwealth placed pressure on the states to develop camping programmes and facilities. Whether there was cooperation between the states to share the programmes between themselves need further investigation.
The Commonwealth Policy in Physical Education 1939 had at its very center the health and fitness of young Australians in mind. The implementation of this policy for both states was left to two organisations, the Education Department and the state branch of the respective National Fitness Council. Both organisations were requested to devise programmes or projects and seek major participation. The policy requires more than just the very existence of a syllabus or project, it stipulated that the activities had to be fun and projected enjoyment in the participants. These qualities were of a behavioural kind and could be measured at the observational stage of the implementation paradigm. There was never a survey conducted to inquire about the possible outcome of the observational or internalised stages. The enjoyment of the activities, meaning the qualitative aspect of the activities, including the feeling of well-being or value of one's own health, did not attract any concern at all. Only quantitative outcomes were commented on. For example, the limited documentation available could only refer to the numbers of participants involved in the swimming campaign. The National Fitness Council reported a great success over a number of summer seasons. All courses were filled and children were judged as competent swimmers upon completion.

The final outcome of the policy was to secure physical fitness in all participants. Again, research is incomplete, to say the least. It was only after the first major national Fitness Survey, conducted at the end of this research period in 1969 and published in 1973,\(^6\) that the first Australian figures and standards were made available. Australian children were not contrasted against other children in the

\(^6\) Commonwealth Council for National Fitness, op.cit.
Western world, as the researchers rated a comparison with other cultures and with older assessment tools too inaccurate. Therefore the 1971 figures did not give the answer to the policy outcome and the evaluation had to remain inconclusive. What was achieved though, was the standardisation of fitness levels for children between the ages of thirteen and seventeen years. The researchers were very cautious in their expression as the data provided the first attempt to benchmark Australian norms. What emanated from the brief discussion and recommendations is the belief that the Australian youth did not rate well. After all, we would need to look further and include qualitative evaluations, as recommended in the implementation-evaluation model, to achieve policy objectives and goals.
7.3 State Positions at the End of 1969

By the end of the 1960s Physical Education was firmly entrenched in the school time-tables in New South Wales and Victoria. The Commonwealth had achieved its goals by practising tight educational and financial control for around one hundred years. For the first seventy years the control was manifested in the provision of trained military staff and military based curricula. The years around the Great Depression witnessed a rapid decline in Commonwealth influence when the federal politicians withdrew their support. Six years later, in 1937, the anti-military feeling was strong enough, teachers' opinions more assertive, and the physical activities in the curricula further removed from military drill, that the Commonwealth found herself 'locked out' of the Physical Education of Primary school children.

This Commonwealth direct influence time lasted only a few years. With the Second World War looming, the Australian government felt the pressure to conscript healthy young Australians again. It could not afford to recruit functionally unfit trainees. As Bert Willee wrote in the discussion chapter of the Fitness survey,

public and government interest in fitness rises and falls according to circumstances. War or threat of war is always sufficient to arouse interest and act as a spur to action. In peace times there is rarely an event or circumstance which is sufficient to prompt action or sustain interest for more than a day or so.\(^{13}\)

\(^{17}\) Ibid, p. 40.
\(^{18}\) Ibid.
It is within this model that in 1939 the Australian government introduced the nation's first national fitness campaign. The National Fitness Act 1941 legitimised the Commonwealth to take the leading role in, what was called, concern for health. In reality the policy was based on a far-reaching strategic plan to give Physical Education a national infrastructure and steer the subject area and physical activities in schools and the community. What Australia was about to experience was involvement by the national government through sponsorship of a nation-wide fitness movement. The Commonwealth government had found a way back into the education of children and youths. This financial support by the federal government was acknowledged and embraced by state politicians.

Whatever reasons the Commonwealth and states may have had, the thirty years of financial support from the Australian government were instrumental in the development of Physical Education in state Primary schools around Victoria and New South Wales. Much had been achieved. Physical Education had become a strong curriculum area and recreation camps were enjoyed all around the states. Health education was firmly integrated in state Primary curricula, especially in smaller schools in country New South Wales. Yet before the two states moved into the new decade of the 1970s, much change was about to happen.

New South Wales and Victoria moved from one decade to the next along the same patterns. In both states, the two men who were in charge of the Physical Education branch in each state were to retire. L.G. Hamilton had been supervisor of the Victorian Physical Education Branch for 23 years, while Gordon Young had headed
the organisation of Physical Education and community recreation in Sydney for thirty-one years. Upon Young's departure, the official alliance between the Education Department and the National Fitness Council was to end. The Education Department took over the sole responsibility for Physical Education in state Primary schools, and with an emphasis on secondary schools. For that purpose, the Physical Education Branch was re-organised. The community recreation tier was taken over by the new Department of Physical Education and Recreation. Recreation and Leisure for all sections of the community were to be planned and administered within this department. The financial assistance by the Commonwealth had seized. The large resource library Gordon Young had accumulated for the National Fitness Council Headquarters was taken over by the state government.

In Victoria, preparations for new and expanded syllabi in individual activities were in progress. They were the response to an acute shortage of Physical Education teachers in the state and were to assist generalist teachers in the teaching of these activities. The end of the 1960s saw the discontinuation of primary teacher preparation courses, a break with tradition to cater for primary school children. With this far-reaching decision, Victoria would fall into a contrasting pattern with its Northern neighbour by only specialising in training secondary education specialist teachers. The last intake for primary education students had been in 1967 and the cohort would have graduated at the end of 1969. Yet the University of Sydney offered an expanded program. It became the only institution in New South Wales to certify students for primary and secondary teaching.
Research into the changes at the beginning of 1970 and beyond will ultimately prove that the modification to the Education Department and National Fitness Council relationship represented a change in emphases, or a loss of direction. The three tiered agreement between the states and the federal government in regard to the Physical Education policy and its implementation, the balance between responsibilities of teacher training, school programmes and community recreation projects, had come to an end. In Victoria, one tier, namely the training of teaching staff, was about to be eliminated. Once the dismantling had occurred, the policy would not have been able to be implemented.

In New South Wales the dual responsibility of one position serving two government sections was abolished. As discussed earlier, the fact that Young filled the position very successfully may have been due to his personal commitment to the national fitness movement and his vision to successfully link Physical Education within the education system and the broader community. The conditions provided for him by the New South Wales governments worked in favour of extended opportunities and goals which would only be possible under lessened restrictions and a wide base of objectives.

Consulting the implementation/evaluation model, one can trace the changes in the policy implementation of Physical Education in both states. The governments still had the same policy in place, as there was no announcement to the contrary, but the strategies to improve the fitness and health status of young Australians were about to be affected. The dismantling of the teacher training reduced the effectiveness of one
of the implementation stages. Staff that had been trained over years, would slowly, over the years, be phased out of teaching Physical Education. Young staff would no longer be suitably prepared to teach in this curriculum area if the governments would not re-think the training aspect of the National Fitness Council initiative and put another teacher training strand into a tertiary training institution. The re-arrangements of Physical Education branches and creation of supporting government departments in both states would alter the implementation approach, and with it, the implementation stages, and eventually the policy goals.

In summary, the Commonwealth had been involved with the curriculum area of Physical Education since the proclamation of the new Commonwealth of Australia. The federal and state politicians had agreed to support each other, hence a symbiosis had been fostered. The Commonwealth would implement the policies in such a manner that both parties would gain from the policy framework. The research also clarified that for decades the Commonwealth would leave it to the education system to prepare the young, from childhood on, for citizenship, patriotism, health and fitness. The states would benefit in return by being funded for staff, training, educational programmes and community projects. In essence, policy implementations would change over time. Until the early 1930s Defence concerns, and thus the military, primarily directed the processes. The late 1930s foreshadowed a change in direction. Prior to WWII the two levels of government in Australia laid the foundation stone for a new philosophical approach in Physical Education.
The Commonwealth awarded the states with the right to be individually responsible for the education of the children within their state boundaries. At the same time, the federal government concealed its link with the education authorities in Victoria and New South Wales and ensured over the entire time of the union that the partnership would not be known to anybody outside the government ranks. From the position of a citizen the Commonwealth's funding could be judged as controlling the responsibilities of state organisations, and as interfering or intervening in state affairs or rights. Yet, from the governments' point of view the attitude may not be shared. Interference assumes that one party objects to the action of another. There was no evidence in the documents to suggest that there was friction between the players. The contrary could be argued. There was a complete dual system of cooperation between two levels of governments, as practised in New South Wales, and the harmonious collaboration in Victoria, in place. The policy evaluation reveals that the policies developed and implemented had achieved a diverse outcome and had been highly successful. Thus one can only conclude that the Commonwealth acted all these years, with few exceptions, with the silent collaboration of the state governments, and the protagonists' knowledge that they were involved in the development of their state owned Physical Education syllabi and courses.
APPENDICES

Appendix A

TERTIARY PHYSICAL EDUCATION COURSES
INTRODUCED IN NWS AND VICTORIA
BETWEEN 1937-1960

NEW SOUTH WALES:

Sydney Teachers’ College

1939 two year course (Certificate)
1940 change to three year course
1949 converted from Certificate to Diploma course

University of Sydney

1942

Bachelor of Science in Education

1st Year

Physics I
Chemistry I
Zoology I
Psychology I or Mathematics I
Physical Activity – (3 hrs/week)

2nd Year

Anatomy I
Physiology I
Third subject to be
a) Heredity & Genetics or Statistics
b) Psychology I
Physical Exercises II

3rd Year

Physiology II
Psychology II
Applied Physiology (covered
Kinesiology, Physiology, Hygiene,
and First Aid)
Physical Exercises III

4th Year

Education
Physical Education – History & Principles
Practice of PE & Administration

1960

Bachelor of Education

1st Year

Physics I
Chemistry I
Zoology I
Psychology or Philosophy

2nd Year

Physiology I
1 other science unit
Education I
Introduction to Phys. Education (non-examinable)
Practical Training

3rd Year

Education II
Physical Education I
Health Education (incl. Nutrition)
Physical Exercises III

4th Year

Physical Education II
Methods (2nd teaching subject)
a special study (approved by Board of
VICTORIA

University of Melbourne

1937
Certificate in Physical Education

1st and 2nd year
Anatomical & Physiological basis of Physical Education
Hygiene and First Aid
Modern Physical Education – Principles and Methods
Coaching and Organisation of Team Games
Practical work: Gymnastics, Swimming, Athletics, Dancing, Games
Organisation of Camps, Trail Rides, Skiing, Youth Hostels
Teaching Practice
The new Physical Education policy 1939 - the Commonwealth's perspective for the university sector

COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT'S PHYSICAL EDUCATION

POLICY FRAMEWORK 1939

Evaluation

- attitudinal stage
- internalised stage
- observational stage

Implementation

- establishment of Degree/Diploma courses in Physical Education

TEACHERS /
FITNESS LEADERS / RECREATION LEADERS

- ability to teach
- theoretical knowledge in health related/medical areas
- skill in activities

Student enrolment in course

Policy

TO IMPROVE THE FITNESS OF YOUNG AUSTRALIANS

state/national level

university level
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VICTORIA
