PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT IN HUNGARIAN SCHOOLS AFTER THE POLITICAL TRANSITION OF THE 1990s

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Abstract:
Across central and eastern Europe, countries entered into a political transition period typified by democratic freedom and idealism and in educational reforms by conceptual re-orientations based on ideas of humanism and liberalisation. This article focuses on school physical education and sport in Hungary after the political transition period of the 1990s. Specifically, it highlights issues relating to curriculum changes, the conceptual modernisation of school physical education and sport, the emergence of a Hungarian national curriculum and suggests that schools and physical education practitioners have critical roles in promoting and fostering participation in physical and sporting activity through curricular and extra-curricular programmes for essential full lifespan engagement.

Key words: educational reforms, curriculum changes, school sport

Introduction
The aftermath of the various ‘silent’ revolutions across former ‘socialist bloc’ countries some 15 years ago exposed them to so-called western-style democracy, which made politicians prone to ideological ‘wish-listing’. Within the education domain, ‘wishes’ were translated into idealistic curricula policy and planning principles. The realities of implementing these ‘idealistic curricula’ were not, and have not been, “properly thought through, as their realisation requires financial investment, new pedagogical and didactical interventions and relevant infrastructure” (Hardman, 2005a, p.9). In Poland for example, the 1996 Physical Culture Act stipulated five hours of compulsory physical education for all schools. However, no sooner was a third, and in some cases a fourth, hour introduced into the curriculum, than economic rationalism rendered the additional hours as not feasible. Financial realities have imposed themselves on what the government...
initially introduced as ‘ideal’ curricula: an average of just less than three hours of physical education a week for each school-age child is currently the standard practice, which is 40% short of what the government views as ‘ideal’ and does not fully conform with the 1996 Physical Culture Act.

In school physical education, the early 1990’s’ conceptual re-orientations embedded in ideas on humanism and democratic freedom brought elements of liberalisation, frequently based only on pupils’ interests and neglecting the knowledge of young people’s needs, as well as scientific research. Thus, somewhat negative outcomes were evident in many schools, where pupils only wanted to engage in activities in which they were specifically interested, and many pupils see the physical education teacher solely as an activity organiser. As early as 1992, low participation rates in leisure activities in and out of school were being cited in support of a contention that the post-1990 changes in theoretical conceptions designed to create more positive attitudes towards physical activity engagement were not being realised in practice. Despite government encouragement of physical education as a curriculum requirement, somewhat negative outcomes became evident in schools in the political transition years: school physical education became undervalued as a subject; school senior management showed little interest in it and its contribution to the general development of pupils was not adequately appreciated; and physical education teachers were considered inferior, less capable and less skilful. The above observations made by Antala, Sedlacek and Sykora (1992) on the situation in schools in the then Czechoslovakia also had (and in some instances still have) general applicability in other central and eastern European countries.

The geographically widespread reports of increasing levels of obesity, relatively sedentary lifestyles and deterioration in general health are almost as much in evidence in central and European countries as in more economically developed countries such as the United States and United Kingdom. Within the central and eastern European region over the last three decades, the health of the general populace has been gradually declining. Concomitantly, there has been a decline in school physical education provision with facilities and equipment especially in short supply. In Hungary, Andersen (1996) claimed that the “... majority of school children know little of values and practice of physical education” and that Hungarian males suffer poor general health “because they have received no physical fitness instruction during their formative years” (p.41). Most statistics relating to public health in Hungary are under the European, and often the eastern European, average.

This article focuses on the situation of physical education and sport specifically in schools in Hungary after the period of political transition of the 1990s. It particularly addresses issues relating to, and surrounding, curriculum changes, the conceptual modernisation of physical education, the emergence of a Hungarian national curriculum and suggests that schools and physical education practitioners have critical roles in promoting and fostering participation in physical and sporting activity through curricular and extra-curricular for essential full lifespan engagement.

Managerial, organizational and curriculum changes in Hungarian education

The political transition that followed the free elections of 1990 in Hungary raised the demand for the reorganization of society. A new society always brings with it a preference for new values. In Hungary, as in other geo-political entities in reformatory transition, the changes brought to the forefront ideological, moral and ethical values, such as the awareness of national identity, and the fostering of national traditions, tolerance, humanity etc., that had been suppressed earlier. To accommodate these changes, the entire educational system had to be reformed in terms of organisation and content. The necessity of change was also reaffirmed by the state in important policy documents such the Program of National Revival, and in legislation such as the Public Education Law, which has been subject to modification several times since its inception in 1993.

The 1990s brought not only economic, scientific, technical, social, moral, educational policy and organisational changes, but also they were followed by changes in the school curriculum. The curriculum reforms of the period broadened pedagogical content by placing emphasis on preparatory, all-round, well-balanced education in a setting of economic, political, scientific, technical, social and moral development. The gradual broadening over the last ten years has been accompanied by a much wider interpretation, which has extended the boundaries of an academic syllabus to embrace a ‘world’ of values, issues of educational policy, the transformation of behaviour, and the development of positive attitude traits.

This new approach to the school curriculum, which has followed the political transition in Hungary, had antecedents in curricula developed in the 1980s, which had demonstrated characteristics of fundamental change. Proposals were made for new curricula interpretations that would usher in the independence of both schools and teaching professionals in deciding the content of the curriculum at local level. The rest of the central and eastern European region underwent similar changes too, typical of which was the then German Democratic Republic (East Germany) (GDR):
“Political changes and discussion to reform physical education in the GDR started after November 1989 when the Berlin Wall came down. This was the beginning of a democratisation process, which had already led to a rethink of the whole sport system, but with a more central focus on physical education in schools” (Naul, 1992, p.14).

This new European, so-called bipolar (central and local), model of regulating curriculum content that was gaining ground in Hungary came as a result of national and foreign influences, an example of which was the phased introduction of a national curriculum in England commencing in 1989 with physical education included as a legally required school curriculum subject with Foundation Subject status in 1992. Specialists in Hungary responsible for developing their own national curriculum noted the compulsory nature of school physical education within the new English national curriculum, and argued the case for inclusion in the Hungarian model as an essential part of the content of the school national curriculum.

The conceptual modernization of physical education

The paradigm shift in Hungarian education alluded to above resulted in the replacement of subject-specific content with an arrangement related to fields of study. Curriculum specialists identified the following ten core domains for education to meet the demands of the ‘new era’:

1. **Mother Tongue and Literature**: Hungarian Language and Literature; Minority Language and Literature
2. **Modern Foreign Language**
3. **Mathematics**
4. **Man and Society**: Social Studies, Civics, Economics; Human Studies; History
5. **Man and Nature**: Natural Studies; Physics; Chemistry; Biology and Health Studies
6. **Our Earth and Environment**
7. **Arts**: Singing and Music; Dance and Drama; Visual Arts, Film and Media Studies
8. **Information Technology (IT)**: Computer Studies; Library Use
9. **Life Management and Practical Studies**: Technology; Home Economics; Career Orientation
10. **Physical Education and Sport**

   Notably, *Physical Education and Sport* is one of the selected domains and is one that has an indispensable role in the cultural domain system. It is a unique domain that has a direct influence on students’ physical development and which provides the opportunity for learning motor activities of place and position accompanied by development of gross muscle groups. In addition to improving motor skills and abilities, physical education undertakes the role of:

   - creating a balance between a healthy body and mind
   - promoting a healthy lifestyle
   - combating harmful addictions and against substance abuse
   - forming proper hygienic and sexual habits
   - fostering recreation and/or rehabilitation

   In short, physical education can be said to be a key in strengthening the position of active and regular physical exercise and the necessity of sports in the students’ value systems. Beside physical exercise, physical education also involves the teaching of a healthy lifestyle, and physical, mental and emotional education. Collectively, the most important operational aims, or domains, mirror those articulated by Lewy (1991):

   (a) physical domain (organic development);
   (b) psycho-motor domain (neuromuscular development);
   (c) cognitive domain (intellectual development);
   (d) affective domain (social-personal-emotional development).

   The aims and tasks indicate the “contextual areas” such as basic motor abilities (conditional and co-ordinational parts); technical and tactical skills; special sport-scientific factual knowledge and sport-specific forms of behaviour, emotion and attitude.

   During the curriculum content reform period, the issue of assessment also emerged. The dogmas of the socialist state regime of the preceding four decades were abandoned, and a new approach was adopted for evaluation in Hungarian education including physical education. This approach involved the replacement of a one-dimensional teacher-centred and authoritarian assessment and evaluation with one based on a series of teacher-student interactions. Assessment was made more flexible to reflect such interactions. The teacher no longer just sits, observes, evaluates, marks etc., and the student no longer just answers, performs, nods in agreement etc. Teacher and student are partners in the process, in a way that does not infringe on objectivity. Assessment and evaluation are no longer characterised by an approach based on the taxonomies of Bloom (1984). Similar to other elements of education, they have become complex tasks that cannot be approached in an authoritarian manner. All parties of the educational process must be involved in the process of evaluation, and within a carefully defined scope of responsibility.

   Assessing progress in physical education is another matter. It is important to point out that physical education is one of few areas of education where a teacher can objectively evaluate students’ performance in terms of their own abilities. Arguably for this reason, physical education requires performance-related assessment and evaluation. On the other hand, a rigid system based on the results
of a stopwatch, measuring tape, table etc. should not be the only means of assessment. It is not possible to evaluate performance purely mechanically in physical education. Many have experienced the situation when a teacher uses a stopwatch and matches the student’s timed performance with the contents of a table. It would be unfair to say that assessment tables and statistical approaches using graphs and numbers are not necessary in evaluating performance in physical education, but clearly results obtained through performance tests cannot or should not be the only source when assessing student progress. Because of the complex nature of assessment and its role in education there are many problems in Hungary that need to be resolved. Areas that need further attention include: the means of evaluating student performance; objective ways of measuring the efficacy and efficiency of teaching, and examination objectives congruent with the aims set out in the school curriculum (Hamar, 2003).

The Hungarian National Core Curriculum (NCC)

The widening of educational content, the fact that bi-polar (i.e. central and local) curriculum regulations had gained ground, and the re-evaluation of structures and the creation of cultural domains all meant that a new situation arose in curriculum development in Hungary. The launch of the National Core Curriculum (NCC) in 1995 put an end to the long-standing, heated and often politically motivated debate. Today the National Core Curriculum stipulates the educational work of schools, including physical education and sport, and a framework of curricula attached to it. In many respects the content of the NCC is the product of curriculum development that mirrors the formulation of national curricula in other countries and continental regions. This means that the Hungarian NCC shares a number of characteristics with other countries’ policy principles, examples of which are listed as follows:

The NCC is:

- a national document that follows the principle of bipolar (i.e. central and local) regulation/administration
- progressive, that is, non-traditional curriculum, which forms a basis for local curricula and for subject programmes
- predominantly performance-driven, but is also similar to other content-driven national curricula
- predominantly aimed at the all-round development of the student

The NCC is a good example for the broadening of content in national education. The replacement of individual school subjects by fields of study is a reflection of this tendency. However, we can see an even better example of this extension of content in the three ‘levels’ of objectives set out by the NCC.

On the first ‘level’ are the common objectives relating to the whole of school education (home-land; integration into Europe and the World; environmental education; communication culture; physical and mental health; learning; career orientation). At the forefront of each educational field or domain are the general development objectives. In Physical Education and Sport, these objectives are defined for years 1-6 and 7-10 in the following way:

- healthy physical development
- development of education of movement
- development of motor abilities
- maintaining the need for physical activity
- low-impact and adapted physical education

At the end of the chapter outlining the general development objectives, a separate section deals with the issue of adapted physical education. Unfortunately a serious problem of today, and – perhaps it is not an exaggeration to say – worldwide, is the increase of the number of students who are exempted from regular physical education classes. In Hungary, children with disabilities are not usually integrated into the normal school physical education/sport lessons, though the NCC does contain an outline of objectives for adapted physical education. Reasons cited for this non-inclusion situation encompass shortages of physical resources and trained and/or experienced teachers (Hardman, 2005b). The three levels of objectives are completed by detailed objectives for years 4, 6, 8 and 10. These are broken down into three parts: knowledge, skills and minimum competency.

The physical education syllabus is made up of the following elements:

- organisational exercises (marching exercises)
- preparatory, foundation and preventative exercises, relaxation
- track and field exercises (running, skipping, jumping, throwing)
- gymnastic exercises (supports, climbs, balances)
- rhythmic gymnastics, aerobic exercises (for girls only)
- games (handball, basketball, football, volleyball)
- outdoor and recreational activities
- self-defence and martial arts
- swimming

The detailed objectives (competencies and skills) of a specific domain also include the basic knowledge necessary for making decisions and carrying out tasks. Minimal competencies describe the basic levels of knowledge, skills and general abilities required for the successful development of a student. The structure of detailed objectives for the domain of physical education and sport is illustrated through the targets set out for preparatory, foundation, and preventative exercises (Ministry of Cul-

The NCC is a curriculum that conforms to standards in other European countries. It is an example of how national curricula have been modernized. By way of illustration, the fact that in the NCC the (academic) syllabus is represented ‘only’ as one of the components shows that ‘content’ is interpreted much more broadly in Hungarian education. The same applies for the domain of physical education and sports, where this broadening of content is apparent in the NCC in terms such as sport and a healthy lifestyle, confidence in motor abilities and regular physical activity etc.

Conclusions

Whilst acknowledging that in some schools physical education curriculum time allocation is as high as 225 minutes (five lessons including extracurricular sport) per week, effectively over the last fifteen years and certainly since the year 2000, in many schools the time allocation has been reduced in Hungary with an overall average of around 2.5 lessons per week. An effective medium and longer term measure to counter sedentary lifestyle behaviour and increasing levels of obesity would be to increase the number of physical education lessons to accord with the European Physical Education Association (EUPEA) recommendation for daily physical education in the early years of schooling (elementary grades, up to 11 or 12 years of age and 3 hours (180 minutes) per week in post-elementary (secondary/high schools) grades and with the Recommendations by the Council of Europe Committee of Ministers on 30 April 2003, which included a significant reference to physical education time allocation: an agreement to “move towards a compulsory legal minimum of 180 minutes weekly, in three periods, with schools endeavouring to go beyond this minimum where this is possible” (Council of Europe, Committee of Ministers, 2003) and a call for one hour of daily physical activity in or out of school settings. Delivery of both school physical education and regularly organised sport activities in and out of school (free of charge) would be by appropriate professionally qualified personnel. Potential associated physical/sporting activity/exercise benefits would embrace reduced financial costs in offsetting sedentary lifestyles and obesity-related health care cost savings. Other benefits to accrue would include opportunities for the achievement of lifespan engagement in physical activity among a wider range of the Hungarian population and participation in sporting activity accepted as a community and general social pastime.

However, several factors stand in the way of the progress of physical education and sport in Hungarian education and its development. The percentage of school physical education lessons is below the European average; state legislation and regulations provide only a limited time frame for the achievement of overly ambitious objectives and complex tasks set out in the curriculum, despite the possibility within the regulations of extra physical education and sport lessons in schools. Another problematic issue is engrained into the mind-set of many older generation Hungarian teachers and school institutions; it is a mind-set of an over-controlled environment of a former ‘socialistic’ regimen and they continue to expect more detailed curricula than the NCC provides, with most of them lacking the experience and knowledge of filling the gap between the NCC and their local school syllabuses as well as the necessary pedagogical and didactical intervention skills in teaching and learning situations. A third problem relates to the inadequacy of sport facilities and equipment in Hungary. A sports ministerial level response to a questionnaire survey item on sports facilities and equipment indicates “below average” quality of facilities and equipment and “limited” quantity of facilities and equipment with a shortage of facilities for vacation time participation in sporting activity (Hardman, 2005b). According to reliable estimates, there is a shortage of 600 gymnasium halls in schools, and a significant percentage of the existing buildings do not meet the prescribed hygiene requirements. In addition, inherited problems of Hungarian public education such as the under-financed institutional background and teachers with financial difficulties because of low salary scales also remain (Hamar, 2003).

Although some 40 million children across the world do not attend school, generally, responsibility for most aspects of development and maturation of children and youth is vested in schools. Thus schools are mandated to establish foundations, encourage participation and enhance development in physical activity through their physical education programmes. It must be remembered that schools offer the only compulsory opportunity in most countries for young people to take part in, and learn about, physical activity through education programmes in formal settings. Unlike many other social institutions, they have a captive audience because of required school attendance. Schools are, therefore, a prime institutional agency with considerable potential to significantly influence the captive audience lives of young people. Physical education is in a unique position to play a vital role in shaping positive attitudes towards habitual participation in physical activity in out-of-school and post-school settings and to encourage young people’s adoption of a healthy lifestyle and lifelong involvement in physical and sporting activity (Hardman, 2004). Physical education teachers are strategically well placed to reach the widest range of young people with positive experiences in, and messages about, participation in sport and physical activity. Positive childhood activity experiences and habits are more likely to lead to an increased tendency to partici-
pate in those activities in beyond school settings as an adult (Malina, 1996; De Knop, De Martelaer, & Van Heddegem, 1998), whilst the “corollary is that negative experiences while young will reduce those experiences later in life” (Hardman, 2005a, p.13). Therefore, it is not only necessary to have activity while young, but equally important is to have positive experiences, develop skills in a caring and open environment, acquire knowledge about the body and develop reflective awareness and understanding of the immediate and long term effects of regular physical activity engagement. The school physical education curriculum has an important contribution to make in this process and the physical education teacher has a significant role to play in the encouragement of young people’s sustained engagement in physical and sporting activity beyond school by building bridges and disseminating information on pathways to participation opportunities in a context of the provision of links and co-ordinated wider community partnership programmes.

As with many other countries, relevant Hungarian governmental and non-governmental authorities working co-operatively should consider the development of a ‘basic needs model’, in which existing areas of inadequacies are identified and in which physical education activity has an essential presence and is integrated with general educational policies. For the fulfilment of these basic needs, quality physical education programmes, provision of facilities and equipment and qualified/experienced practitioners with the relevant knowledge, skills and competences as well as opportunities for enrichment through continuing professional development are required.

It is no exaggeration to declare that physical education and sport should form an intrinsic part of 21st century life, and that the foundation of this must begin at school. It is necessary because physical activity is essential not only from the point of view of the body, but as Albert Szent-Györgyi, Hungarian Nobel Prize winner for the discovery of Vitamin C, remarked: “Sport is the strongest and noblest means of education not only for the body, but also for the soul”.

Appendix 1. Excerpts from the set of Detailed Objectives Area of the Cultural Domain: Physical Education and Sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic: Preparatory, foundation and preventative exercises</th>
<th>Timing: At the end of year 4 (age 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simple exercises – playful and of a defined form; free, partner and hand apparatus exercises in two and four phases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic: Preparatory, foundation and preventative exercises</th>
<th>Timing: At the end of year 6 (age 12)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-4-8 phase free, hand apparatus, partner and simple apparatus (bench, small box, wall bars) exercises. Application of key positions and basic forms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic: Preparatory, foundation and preventative exercises</th>
<th>Timing: At the end of year 8 (age 14)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free exercises and general partner, hand apparatus, simple apparatus exercises on a free exercise basis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic: Preparatory, foundation and preventative exercises</th>
<th>Timing: At the end of year 10 (age 16)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The full range of preparatory free, partner, hand apparatus and apparatus exercises. Aerobics for girls.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Extracted from the Hungarian National Core Curriculum, Ministry of Culture and Education, 1995)
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TJELESNI ODGOJ I SPORT U MAĐARSKIM ŠKOLAMA
NAKON POLITIČKE TRANZICIJE 1990-ih

Sažetak

Ranih 1990-ih zemlje srednje i istočne Europe ušle su u period političke tranzicije obilježen reformama na području edukacije koje su obuhvaćale konceptualnu preusmjeravanja utemeljena na idejama humanizma i liberalizma, što je bilo prevedeno u idealistički kurikulum i principe planiranja. Međutim, realnost implementiranja tih ‘principa’ ignorirala je potrebna financijska ulaganja, nove pedagoške i didaktičke intervencije i relevantnu infrastrukturu neophodnu za realizaciju. Stoga, u godinama političke tranzicije, usprkos vladinim ohrabrivanjima vezanima uz tjelesni odgoj kao kurikularni zahtjev, tjelesni je odgoj postao podcijenjen predmet; viša školska uprava pokazala je za njega malo interesa, njegov doprinos općem razvoju učenika nije bio dovoljno cijenjen, a profesori tjelesnog odgoja smatraju se iste profesinima, manje sposobnima i vještim u brojnim sredinama i istočnoeuropskim zemljama. Ovaj rad obrađuje status tjelesnog odgoja i sporta u školama u Mađarskoj nakon perioda političke tranzicije iz 1990-ih godina.

Politička tranzicija koja slijedi nakon slobodnih izbora u Mađarskoj 1990. godine postavila je zahtjev za novim društvenim vrijednostima u reorganizacijom društva. Kako bi se prilagodio tim zahtjevima, cjelokupni educacijski sustav morao se reformirati kroz državnu politiku obnove i edukacijske zakone. Postupno prošireni kurikulum pojačano je naglasio svestranu, dobro uravnoteženo, razvoj učenja i razvoj pozitivnih stavova u okruženju ekonomskog, političkog, znanstvenog, tehničkog, društvenog i moralnog razvoja. Takozvani bipolarni (centralni i lokalni) model reguliranja sadržaja kurikuluma nastao je kao rezultat nacionalnih i inozemnih utjecaja. Tjelesni odgoj i sport identificiran je kao jedno od deset središnjih područja edukacije važnih za zadovoljavanje zahtjeva ‘nove ere’. Njegova je uloga neophodna i izravna u implementaciji ‘principa’ koji zamijenio je jednodimenzionalnu, održavanje potrebe za tjelesnim vježbama, kao i nužnosti sporta, zdravlje, učenje križnih struktura, motoričke sposobnosti, održavanje potrebe za tjelesnim vježbama i prilagođen tjelesni odgoj. Tri su razine ciljeva zaokružene pojedinačnim ciljevima, koji su podijeljeni na tri dijela: znanje, vještine i minimalna kompetentnost. Nastavni plan tjelesnog odgoja sajto se od različitih komponenata: organizacijske vježbe, (vježbe postrojavanja), priručne, baze, preventivne vježbe, relaksacije, osnovne atletske vježbe; gimnastičke vježbe; vježbe aerobike (samo za djevojke); sportske igre (rukmot, košarica, nogomet, odbojka); rekreacijske aktivnosti i aktivnosti na otvorenom; samoobrana i borilačke vještine te plivanje. Pojedinačni ciljevi specifičnog područja također uključuju i temeljna znanja nužna za donošenje odluka i izvršavanje zada taka. Minimalne kompetencije opisuju osnovnu razinu znanja, vještina i općih sposobnosti potrebnih za uspješan razvoj učenika.

Neke zemlje odvojeno puno vremena za nastavu tjelesnog odgoja - 225 minuta tjedno (pet sati tjedio uključujući i izvannastavne aktivnosti). Međutim, u posljednjih petnaest godina, u mnogim mađarskim školama broj sati nastave reducirani je na oko 2,5 sata tjedio. Nekoliko faktora priječi napredak tjelesnog odgoja i sporta u Mađarskoj. Državna politika i zakonske odredbe predviđaju samo ograničeni vremenski okvir za postizanje ambicioznih ciljeva i složenih zadataka sadržanih u nastavnom planu i programu. Sljedeći problem vezan je za najviši istaknutije starijskih generacija mađarskih profesora i školskih institucija - to je način razmišljanja previše kontroliiranog okruženja 'bipolarnog (centralni i lokalni) model reguliranja sadržaja kurikuluma. Međutim, u posljednjih petnaest godina, u mnogim mađarskim školama broj sati nastave reducirani je na oko 2,5 sata tjedio. Nekoliko faktora priječi napredak tjelesnog odgoja i sporta u Mađarskoj. Državna politika i zakonske odredbe predviđaju samo ograničeni vremenski okvir za postizanje ambicioznih ciljeva i složenih zadataka sadržanih u nastavnom planu i programu. Sljedeći problem vezan je za najviši istaknutije starijskih generacija mađarskih profesora i školskih institucija - to je način razmišljanja previše kontroliiranog okruženja 'bipolarnog (centralni i lokalni) model reguliranja sadržaja kurikuluma.

Godine 1995. pokrenut Nacionalni središnji kurikulum (NCC) danas određuje rad u školama, uključujući i tjelesni odgoj i sport, kao i njegov nastavni plan i program. NCC daje primjerje proširenih sadržaja nacionalnog standarda obrazovanja, karakteristika kojega je vidljiva na njegove tri 'razine' ciljeva. Na prvoj razini su zajednički predmeti povezani s cijelim odgojno-obrazovnim sustavom. Ispred sva-