Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the preceding chapter the investigator has elucidated the focus of this research. The section has thrown light on the importance of physical activity and development of attitudes in adolescent children and relationship between student and teacher and its underpinning for attitude development. The present chapter would make an effort to justify the foundation of this research. The investigator conducted an exhaustive survey of related literature to establish a theoretical basis of this study. The following sections explain the various aspects such as physical activity and attitudes toward physical activity, relationship of teacher and students and its influence on attitudes.

2.1 Adolescence and Development

Early adolescence is a unique and fascinating period in human development. This period of great transition marks the end of childhood and the introduction into young adulthood. As children make the transformation into adults many developmental changes will occur. For instance, young teens experience a time of accelerated growth second only to infancy (CCAD - 1995). Importance of roles of family members subside (Schickedanz et al. 1998) while the peers take the charge leading to change in thinking patterns (Adams and Gullotta 1989), mental makeup. Social support, influence from the peers in this phase, serve as a basis for establishment of some lifelong behavior patterns or habits carried through the adulthood. One such behavior pattern or habit is maintaining a physically active lifestyle.

2.2 Adolescence and Physical Activity

Considerable evidence from research studies support the health related benefits that are gained by individuals who participate in moderate levels of physical activity. Surgeon General’s Report (USDHHS, 1996) has published the benefits and also recommended activity guidelines of physical activity. Substantial work has been done that deals with physical activity in different age groups and the benefits accrued. Researchers are concerned about a particular age group of 12 to 21 years and their lifestyle. Research has shown that levels of physical activity begin to decrease at the starting of age 12 and continue to decrease throughout adolescence. (USDHHS, 1996) The researchers are dealing
with sedentary lifestyle and health problems ensuing through it in the various age groups of population. The school children and their physical activity levels, the role of school physical education in equipping students with skills necessary to become physically active for lifetime, is becoming crucially important as an area of research.

For physical education to achieve the goals of rendering active lifestyle, it is critically important that student’s attitudes and interest be considered while designing curriculum. Until now student’s choice has been rarely considered; also there is a scarcity of information about aspects of school physical education implying positive or negative attitudes in students. Thus, this area needs a solid literary and empirical support that would help the physical education practitioners in providing optimal physical activity experiences to school students.

2.3 Theories of Physical Activity

Psychological correlates of physical activity (Biddle & Mutrie, 2008) have been studied quite extensively and form the basis for much of the research on physical activity. There are two main types of studies: those using descriptive approaches whereby psychological variables are assessed alongside physical activity and those that use a theoretical model. The latter enables us to build knowledge and understanding of how and why people might be motivated or not to adopt and/or maintain a healthy lifestyle.

Other areas of psychology have contributed theories based on different approaches. Theories fall into categories like: beliefs & attitudes, perceptions of control, perceptions of competence, stage based theories, hybrid approaches. A number of theoretical models have been proposed that attempt to explain the role of attitudes in human behavior.

The Health Belief Model (HBM)

The HBM was devised in an attempt to predict health behaviors, primarily in response to low rates of adoption and adherence of preventive health care behaviors. It was developed from ‘Kurt Lewis’ theory based on the rationale that people often make decisions about behaviors based on the expectations of what might happen if they do or do not act in that way (outcomes) and also on what value (importance) they place on such outcomes (Becker et al, 1977).
The HBM has been applied to a wide variety of health behaviors, including physical activity, although the literature on physical activity is not extensive. The model hypothesizes that people will not seek (preventive) health behaviors unless:

- They possess minimal levels of health motivation & knowledge
- View themselves as potentially vulnerable
- View the condition as threatening
- Are convinced of the efficacy of the ‘treatment’
- See few difficulties in undertaking the action.

The HBM has been shown to be a reasonably effective integrating social psychological framework for understanding health decision making. The HBM has intuitive appeal, but its application in physical activity has not been clearly demonstrated. Its utility has not been demonstrated, probably due to the inappropriate emphasis on the HBM on illness-avoidance.

### 2.4 Model and Theories Linking Attitudes and Behavior in Physical Activity

Beliefs and attitudes theories test the link between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and physical activity, such as the theory of planned behavior. Evidence shows that intentions are predicted best by attitudes and perceived behavior control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Research has shown that intentions are far from perfect predictors of behaviors and emphasizes the need to translate intentions into behavior.

Competence based theories focus on perceptions of competence and confidence as a prime driver of behavior, such as self-efficacy approaches. Research shows that motivation for physical activity is likely to be more robust if it involves greater choice and self-determination rather than external control.
Fig 2.1: Framework for classifying theories of physical activity
(Adapted from: Biddle & Mutrie, 2008, p.36)

**Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)**

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) proposed the theory of reasoned action. TRA is concerned with ‘the causal antecedents of volitional behavior. It is based on assumption that intention is an immediate determinant of behavior, and the intention, in turn, is predicted from attitude and subjective (social) normative factors. They suggested that the attitude component of the model is a function of the beliefs held about specific behavior, as well as the evaluation, or value, of the likely outcomes.

**Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)**

Ajzen’s research suggested that TRA is insufficient for behaviors where volitional control is incomplete, in other words, where resources and skills are required. Consequently, Ajzen (1991) proposed an extension of TRA for such behaviors and called this the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The TPB is the same as the TRA but with the additional variable of perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control is defined as the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior and is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles. The model suggests that the variable has a motivational effect on intentions, such that individuals wishing to be physically active but with little or no chance of doing so, are unlikely to do so regardless of their attitudes toward activity or the social factors operating.
**Transtheoretical Model**

People attempting self-change seem to move through ‘stages of change’. This approach forms the base of this model. The term Transtheoretical model describes the wider framework that encompasses both the ‘when’ and the ‘how’ of behavior change, including the processes of change and moderators of change such as decisional balance and self-efficacy. This model when applied to physical activity studies, identifies five stages of change (Prochaska, & Velicer, 1997), pre-contemplation includes people who are not currently physically active and have no intention of doing so in future (Prochaska, & Marcus, 1994). Those in the contemplation stage include those not currently physically active but who have an intention to start in the near future. The individuals in the preparation stage are currently exercising some, but not regularly. The action stage represents people who are currently active but have recently started. This is an unstable stage during which individuals are at high risk of relapse. Finally the maintenance stage includes those who are currently physically active and have been for some time, usually at least six months.

**Natural History Model of Exercise**

Sallis and Hovell (1990) produced a natural history model that has considerable utility in understanding the process of involvement in physical activity and exercise. This model consists of three important transition phases; sedentary behavior to exercise adoption, exercise adoption to maintenance or dropout, and dropout to resumption of exercise. This model is useful device for focusing on the dynamic process of exercise. Many other factors such as developmental stages, demographic characteristics, and actual activity differences need to be considered. The model is relevant to young people progressing through adulthood.

**Hybrid Model: HAPA**

The health action process approach (Schwarzer, 1992 & 2001) is a model that explicitly integrates linear and stage assumptions and is thereby a hybrid model. At the same time, the HAPA integrates motivational (prediction of intention) and behavior-enabling models. The HAPA makes a distinction between a motivation phase and a volition/post-decision phase of health behavior change. The basic idea is that individuals experience a shift in mindset from the first phase (motivational) to the second (volitional). The moment
when people commit themselves to an intention of exercise they enter volitional phase. First they intend to act but they remain inactive and second they initiate action. To enhance maintenance, self regulatory skills are important. The behavior will mainly be directed by self-efficacy because it regulates effort and persistence in the face of barriers and setbacks. Also the influence of self-efficacy on post decisional processes, such as planning and behavior, depends on whether one has decided to change or not. The HAPA also includes other aspects such as situational barriers and resources.

### 2.5 Attitudes

Health promotion campaigns are often aimed at changing beliefs or knowledge on the assumption that such changes are necessary to bring about a change in behavior. Changes in awareness, attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge far from guarantee changes in behavior, although they may be an important step in such process. (Biddle & Mutrie, 2008) Although any inference of a causal link between beliefs and behavior cannot usually be sustained, it does seem reasonable that beliefs and attitudes will have some influence on our actions.

Attitude has been defined as ‘a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor’ (Eagly & Chaiken 1993), suggesting that the affective element of attitude is key. The term ‘attitude’ is used extensively but offers different connotations. Overuse of the term has rendered it prone to misinterpretation. Allport (1935) defines ‘attitude connotates a neuropsychic state of readiness for mental and physical activity’. Thurstone (1928) defined attitude as ‘the intensity of positive or negative affect for or against a psychological object.’ It has also been defined as ‘a consistency among responses to a specified set of stimuli, or social objects’, ‘an enduring system of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to a social object’, and as ‘an acquired behavioral dispositions’. This research holds attitudes to be a latent, non-observable, complex but relatively stable behavioral disposition reflecting both direction and intensity of feeling toward a particular object, whether it is concrete or abstract.
2.6 Views of Attitudes Applied to Physical Activity

Attitude, like personality, motivation and some other psychological constructs, is hypothetical and not open to direct observation. The responses often used to infer attitudes can be verbal or nonverbal in each of the three categories. A three component model (Hovland & Rosenberg, 1960) of attitude suggests that in addition to attitudes having affective component, they can also have a belief (cognitive) and behavioral component. Olson & Zanna (1993) propose that most attitude theorists agree that attitudes are represented in memory.

![Three component view of attitudes applied to physical activity](Adapted from: Biddle & Mutrie, 2008, p.65)

2.7 Formation of Attitude

Bandura (1986) in his social cognitive theory, states that adolescents form their attitudes from influences around them. In early adolescence they are primarily influenced by their parents but as the student mature during adolescence they tend to become more influenced by significant others, like teachers, coaches, and peers. Figley (1985) suggests that teachers influence their students’ attitudes towards the subject that they teach. Some studies have demonstrated that environment can affect attitude formation. Henry (1993), Hawkins and Catelano (1990) and Rovengo (1994) in their studies, described how the school community and school ethos can affect the attitudes of the student within it. Environment has a powerful influence on student attitude formation.

Like personality, attitudes and values are made and not born. Where and what people come from, affect perceptions and evaluations of their experience and what they decide to do about those experiences. Attitudes are product of heredity and environment.
Attitudinal variables differ in their heritability, and with higher heritability coefficients appear to exert a stronger influence on behavior and those to be less changeable than those with lower heritability. Rather than a direct genetic link, the heritable component of attitudes is probably mediated by personality traits, physical characteristics, academic achievement, and other individual difference variables.

The process of attitude formation is generally viewed as social learning or changed merely by repeated exposure to a novel or unfamiliar stimulus. Attitudes begin developing in childhood and become crystallized to some extent in adulthood, but they may undergo modification even in later life. (Kuh, 1976 & Lewis, 1994). In general, by the time a person reaches adulthood, he or she has acquired a set of subjective standards or a frame of reference for evaluating his or her experiences. These standards and attitudes are influenced by the person’s emotional ties of affiliation, loyalty and security acquired by associating with other people. The number these associations and consequently the source of influence on attitudes expand as a person grows to maturity. As children mature, their attitudes, although typically remaining somewhat similar to those of their parents, become more like those of age-mates and other people in their expanding social world.

The basic notion of classical conditioning, as applied to acquisition of attitude, is that a person acquires a new attitude toward something that is repeatedly paired with a pleasurable or painful stimulus regardless of what a person does. In operant conditioning, how a person responds in a particular situation determines whether and how that response is reinforced. Attitudes are generally viewed as cognitive or affective responses, they can be like observable behavior, be shaped by reinforcement or punishment. Many attitudes are not the result of direct conditioning or reinforcement but rather are learned vicariously or imitatively by observing the activities of other people. Modeling the actions and attitudes of people causes them to become the observer’s own. Social comparison is comparing one’s views of social reality with those of other people to determine whether ones’ own views are correct. Attitudes are adopted because people claim or act as if they are true. Many prejudices or narrow minded social perspectives appear to be learned in this manner. It is also not necessary to have direct, personal interaction with a person to adopt that person’s attitude and perspective.
2.8 Measuring Attitude

Attitude measurement is pervasive. Social psychologists routinely measure attitudes when studying their cause, how they change and their impact on cognition and behavior. To gauge people’s attitude, researchers have used a wide variety of measurement techniques. When attitude measurement was first formalized, the pioneering scholars presumed that an attitude could be accurately assessed only using a large set of questions that were selected via an elaborate procedure. But today, attitudes are most often assessed using single questions with relatively simple wordings and structures, and the variability of the approaches is striking, suggesting that there is not necessarily one optimal way to achieve the goal of accurate measurement.

2.9 Defining the Construct

No attitude measurement procedures can be designed until the construct of interest has been specified. Since we can’t observe attitudes directly, all the measurement depends on those attitudes being revealed in overt responses, either verbal or nonverbal.

Need for measurement of attitude mandated narrowing of construct; it also led to recognition that manifestation of attitudes, as assessed by any measurement procedure, are not the same as the attitude itself. Measurement permits one to assign values to individuals in a theoretically meaningful manner, such that differences in those values are thought to reflect differences in underlying construct that is being measured.

However measurement is imperfect: the numerical values that are assigned contain both random errors and systematic errors, with the latter reflecting differences in underlying constructs other than the attitude that one intended to measure. All measurement procedures are necessarily errorful in both these ways. Accordingly, the attitude is latent evaluation of an object, manifested imperfectly both by our measurement procedures and by other observable behaviors that it in part motivates.

To say that an attitude is a latent evaluation of an object is not to say that it necessarily exists as a single entity in the mind of the attitude holder (Albarracin, Johnson & Zanna, 2005). It hence seems reasonable to think of attitude as a single evaluative association with the attitude object, capable of being reported in any given measurement scenario. There is no reason to believe that a single person will always report the same attitude toward an object when asked about it on multiple occasions in different contexts.
Yet, this variability does not mean that the person lacks an attitude or that the attitude concepts should be revised to remove notions of stability or consistency. The goal of attitude is to gauge the stable construct underlying responses.

2.10 Traditional Direct Self-report Methods

Direct self report methods involve asking participants explicitly to describe in their own attitudes. These unique techniques for measuring attitudes have strong face validity. Some of the attitude measurement methods are mentioned below.

2.11 Classic Self-report Measurement Methods

**Thurstone’s Equal-Appearing Intervals (Thurstone, 1928)** - this method involves seven steps of material preparation. Gathering or generating about 150 favorable or unfavorable statements, editing the set to contain most potential statements, placing them on from one to eleven piles by about 300 judges, pile being equally spaced points along the evaluative continuum running from extremely negative to extremely positive. This is followed by assigning a numeric value from 1 to 11, selecting 2 or 3 statements with means very close to continuum, thus yielding a final battery with set statements that are equally spaced from one another.

**Likert’s Method of Summated Ratings (Likert, 1932)** - this method involves preparing about 100 statements expressing strongly favorable or unfavorable position, this also excludes neutral statements. This follows giving a set of five response options (SD, D, UD, A, SA) to preset participants. Statements expressing favorable views are coded as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and statements expressing unfavorable responses are coded as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1. For each item, each person’s score is correlated with his or her total score and items with low item to total correlation are dropped. Approximately 20 statements are selected for the final battery. This method shares the spirit of Thurstone’s procedure but involves a unique feature of assessing the validity of each item via the item to total correlation.

**Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum’s Semantic Differential Method (1957)** - this method involves identifying a set of adjective pairs that represent the evaluative dimension. Each pair anchors on a 7 point rating scale and participants select the point on each scale to indicate their evaluation of the object. The scale consists of a long horizontal line, intersected by 6 vertical lines dividing the horizontal into 7 equal sections. As per the
extensive instructions given explaining the meaning of all points on rating scale, participants evaluate the goodness or badness of an object.

### 2.12 Measuring Attitudes toward Physical Activity

Students’ attitudes toward physical education have been the focus of attention for a considerable period of time. Attitude studies have been reported in the literature as far as 1933. Also attitudes toward physical activity have been studied for a considerable period of time. Mostly these investigations have focused on examination of attitudes toward physical education (Adams, 1963; Richardson, 1960; and Wear 1950), intensive competition and sportsmanship (McAfee, 1955), and conditioning (Anderson, 1966). Kenyon developed an inventory assessing attitudes toward physical activity. This inventory was primarily used for assessing attitudes of different athletic groups, and investigating attitude toward physical activity compared to socioeconomic status, personality factors, religious identification, and skill performance.

#### Physical Activity Related Attitude Measuring Scales

Kenyon (1968) developed a scale to assess motives for engaging in physical activity and measure various dimensions of an individual’s attitude toward physical activity; this was based on Likert scale method. The scale includes 59 items for men and 54 items for women on six sub-scales for six independent dimensions of physical activity, viz. social experience, health and fitness, vertigo, aesthetics, catharsis, and ascetics.

Based on Kenyon’s conceptual model, Simon and Smoll (1974) developed an inventory employing semantic differential scale to measure children’s attitude toward physical activity. The scale consists of six domains, which are evaluated on the basis on eight pairs of bipolar adjectives. This semantic differential is less complex and is more appropriate for elementary and middle school children.

Hay (1992) designed a scale based on a two point scale method to identify children at risk for hyperactivity and youngsters at risk of becoming obese. This inventory is designed to measure an individual’s adequacy and predisposition toward physical activity. Ten items begin with active statements and ten begin with inactive statements. Eight items address inadequacy, the remainder, predisposition toward physical activity.
Neilsen and Corbin (1986) constructed a scale to provide information about commitment to physical activity; this was based on Likert scale method. This inventory contains twelve statements and is suitable for a broad range of individuals.

Sonstroem (1974) developed physical estimation and attraction scale based on three point scale to measure expressed interest in physical activity (attraction) and physical self-esteem relative to physical appearance and performance (estimation). The PEAS consists of 100 randomly ordered statements. The responses to the statements are limited to true, false or neutral. This scale is suitable for adolescent boys and also male and female adults.

In 1960 Richardson developed a scale to measure attitudes toward physical fitness and exercise; the inventory employs two equivalent forms of an equal appearing intervals attitude scale. This scale is suitable for high school and college students and is based on Thurstone scale method.

Wear (1955) developed an attitude scale based on Likert five point method to measure attitudes toward physical education, is composed of statements about physical education and is divided into two forms, A and B. The scale contains thirty items. Each statement has five responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This scale is suitable for high school students.

Cheffers, Mancini, & Zaichkowsky (1976) constructed a scale to measure the attitudes of children toward teachers, facilities and certain processes associated with physical education program, this scale consisted of pictures that contain situations or occurrences typical of physical education class. The children are asked to respond to pictures by making a check mark on one of the three facial expressions, happy, sad, or neutral. This scale is suitable for elementary school children in grades 1 to 6.

There has been a considerable increase in the body of knowledge in physical education in terms of students’ attitudes. The increase in interest may also be attributed to the influence of attitudes toward further participation in physical activities (Carlson, 1995; Portman, 1995). Studies have reported that enjoyment, pleasure and fun appears to be associated with both boys’ and girls’ participation in physical activities (Silverman and Subramaniam, 1999). According to the previous literature on the topic of students’ attitudes toward physical education, most of the previous research targeted elementary level. Children at the elementary level tend to report inflated physical activity ability, interest, and
attitude due to their limited developmental ability to self-evaluate. Hence it becomes meaningful to examine secondary school children’s attitudes toward physical activity. Instrument to measure the attitudes has to be wisely selected considering the construct to be measured, basis of physical activity model, and appropriate measurement method.

2.13 Role of Physical Education Teacher in Attitude formation & Development

The present scenario in physical education at schools necessitates a thorough intervention with respect to the physical education teacher’s development, the curricula, teacher’s intra and interpersonal skills, ability to cope with growing demands of profession. The physical education teacher plays a vital role in the education process hence he must possess certain competencies and a congenial mental makeup. It is the teacher’s attitudes toward his profession that plays a key role in the development of students’ attitudes. Hence it demands a scientific inquiry in the area of psychological attributes like attitudes and the teaching and learning process.

There are many factors that affect the quality of a school physical education program. One of them is teacher attitude which reflects an individual’s positive or negative, favorable or unfavorable feelings regarding the attitude object (Oppenheim, 1992; Ajzen, 1993; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Attitudes are formed through beliefs. When a group of beliefs cluster around a situation or object, an attitude forms that is prone to action (Kulilla & Silverman, 2000). Teachers’ attitudes are extremely important because of the relationship between attitude and action. Teacher attitudes are often translated into specific classroom and instructional practices which in turn affect student behavioral and learning outcomes (Cook, 2002). Attitudes are not readily changed once formed but are malleable so long as positive experiences occur and favorable attitudes develop. In turn, unfavorable attitudes develop when a situation lacks positive experiences (Oppenheim, 1992).

Attitude as a concept is linked with personal way of thinking, acting, and behaving. It has profound effect on the learner, teacher, the group with which student relates and the entire education system (Olatunde, 2009). An individual’s beliefs, attitudes and values compose their belief system (Pajares, 1992). Attitudes are formed as a result of some kind of learning experiences. They may also be learned simply by following the example or opinion of parent, teacher, or friend. The learner draws from the teacher’s disposition to form his or her own attitude. Bandura (1971) demonstrated that behaviours are acquired by watching the model, parent, and teacher. Teachers are invariably role models whose behaviours are
easily copied by the student. What teachers like or dislike, appreciate and how they feel about their learning, and its effect on their students. The way the teachers teach, behave and interact with students is more important than what they teach, thereby strictly affecting students attitude (Olatunde, 2009).

For teaching and learning to be interesting and stimulating, there has to be motivation on the part of both the teacher and the learner so as to ensure the development of positive attitude and subsequently maximum academic achievement (Igwe, 1985). Several research findings in other subjects have confirmed that teachers’ attitude toward the subject or teaching of that subject affect students’ achievement in and attitude towards that subject (Olatunde, 2009). Teachers’ attitude has been found to be a significant predictor of students’ achievement and their attitude. Teachers’ attitude toward teaching plays a significant role in shaping attitudes of student toward learning. And they can be influenced by teacher-related factors like teachers’ enthusiasm, teachers’ resourcefulness and helpful behaviour, teachers’ thorough knowledge of the subject and their ability of making the subject more interesting. This proves that the role of teacher as facilitator of learning and the contribution to student achievement is enormous.

Some researchers have argued that the characteristics of the teachers and their experiences and behaviours in classrooms contribute to the learning environment of their students, which in turn have effect on outcomes. Researchers (Slavins 1987, Evan 1992, Gibbon, Kimmel, & O’shea, 1997) have studied the relationship between teachers’ experience and student achievement. Students taught by more experienced teachers achieve at a higher level, because their teachers have mastered the content and acquired class management skills. Furthermore, more experienced teachers are considered to be more able to concentrate on the most appropriate way to teach particular topics/units to students who differ in their abilities, prior knowledge and backgrounds (Raudenbush & Bryk, 1991 and Stringfield & Teddlie, 1991).

Eso (1998) conceptualized teachers’ effectiveness as the managerial skills essential for enhanced class control and discipline. It is the teachers’ competence, ability, resourcefulness and ingenuity to efficiently utilize the appropriate language, methodology and available instructional material to bring out the best from learners in terms of achievement. Teachers are said to be effective when their teaching can lead to students’ learning and this happens when teachers succeeds in causing a change in behaviour of a
learner. Learning by the students is based on the decisions taken by the teachers. Teaching
decisions are influenced by teachers’ attitudes towards several aspects like curriculums,
goals, priorities and outcomes. Teachers also have attitudes about their own abilities to
teach specific content. (Kulinna, Silverman & Deng, 1998)

Majority of the studies have linked teacher’s attitude with the domain areas of
outcome goals of physical education. The outcome goals are motor and skill development,
physical activity and fitness, self-actualization and social development. Research by Guan,
McBide & Xiang (2005) claimed that less experienced teachers had a lower priority on
physical activity and fitness as an outcome goal than more experienced teachers. Kulina &
Silverman (2000) suggested these differences reflected the instructional methods of
teachers as well as curricular differences among primary, middle and high schools. Novice
teachers placed lower priority on physical activity and fitness domain due to a focus
management concerns. Regardless of culture, experience, gender, levels, teacher’s attitude
are based on the outcome goals of physical education.

2.14 Summary

After reviewing the literature, and analyzing the gaps in the knowledge, the
researcher felt it necessary to find out answers to the following questions.

- Does the attitude towards physical activity and physical fitness like the levels of
  physical activity decline with the age?
- Does the school environment such as medium of instruction, facilities available,
  location of school influence the attitudes of children toward physical activity and
  physical fitness?
- Does the teacher’s attitude functions as a predictor in shaping the attitudes of
  student?
- Does the teacher’s experience or stage of training cause a difference in the attitude
  towards physical activity?

Lifetime physical activity being the goal of school physical education could be
achieved only if the students are provided with such experiences that develop their
knowledge, skills and attitudes in physical activity. Enough work has been done at the
international scenario on attitude towards physical activity and actual physical activity levels.
The outcomes of the physical activity in terms of fitness assessment or physical activity
assessment are common but there is a dearth of studies relating attitudes toward physical activity and its effects. Hence this should be supported with regular assessment of attitudes toward physical activity in children. The past research has also thrown light on how attitude is developed or modified according to age, experiences and related variables. With this in background the researcher felt it necessary to assess the students’ attitudes towards physical activity and physical fitness.

Ample of studies suggest variety of attitude assessment techniques that can suitably be used for different populations in various contexts. After studying the literature at depth and critical incident survey, the researcher settled on the Kenyon’s model of attitude towards physical activity and physical fitness as it deemed most fit. The Kenyon’s model was adopted and it was decided to develop a scale to measure students’ attitudes toward physical activity and physical fitness in present Indian settings.

The researcher has ventured to compare the students according to age, gender and also sports participation status. This objective could be formed after understanding that there is a major decline in physical activity levels and also attitudes toward physical activity as the child grows. Researcher has also come across researches stating vast decline in physical activity in case of girls.

The attitudes of teachers towards the subject he/she teaches determine teaching effectiveness. It was also found in several studies that the attitude of teachers may be altered as the teacher ages in the profession. Studies have shown that pre-service teachers had more positive attitude than the in-service teachers. The present investigation has ventured in finding out if any difference exists between male and female teachers’ attitudes. It was also felt necessary to find out if the teachers attitude alter as per the level of experience.

Researcher has zeroed in on teacher’s attitude towards teaching physical activity and physical fitness and its influence on that of students. Substantial work informs that the physical activity experiences provided by the teacher in the formative years of student life determine lifetime activity behavior. It was therefore felt necessary to investigate the association between teachers’ and students’ attitudes.
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