

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

In Physical Education research, the assessment of attitude of students of all ages and adults toward physical activity, sports and exercises is not a new phenomenon (Mowatt, DePauw & Hulac, 1988).

Attitude can be acquired through experience and consequently be influenced by teaching. Thus understanding the nature of attitude towards Physical Education seems essential as a guide in developing them (Keogh, 1962). Figley (1985) reported that two major features which influenced attitude towards Physical Education are curriculum content and teacher behaviour.

In light of teacher behaviour, Oh (1985) reported in his thesis "Towards the improvement of primary school Physical Education in Gwynedd" that the attitude of teachers did not appear to be the cause of poor teaching in primary school Physical Education. His study pointed to other factors such as constraints of time and the limitation of facilities and the lack of knowledge on the teachers' part as the causes. What may be more worrying is the report in the media (The STAR, 1998, p.3) that Physical Education being a non-examination subject in the examination-oriented school culture, its periods are often used to teach subjects which are of more academic value. In addition the Minister of Education Malaysia, Dato' Najib Tun Razak expressed concern over the lax attitude among students about their physical condition (The STAR, 1998, p.3). These factors make the study of the implementation of the Physical Education programme in schools worthwhile.

Administrators play a very important role in implementing an academic programme. The effectiveness of a programme in school depends very much on the foresight of school heads such as the principals and senior assistants. Voltmer et al. (1978) supported the notion that the attitude of administrators is important because the quality of the Physical Education programme in a school depends more on the administration than any other factor. Even though we cannot deny the fact that what can be accomplished is dependent on personnel, facilities, equipment and time allotment, it is a fact that in any given situation, a good administrator produces a substantially better programme than a poor one. But a good administrator with the wrong attitude would undoubtedly influence the implementation of a programme. It has been demonstrated repeatedly that it is the administrator who makes the difference between a successful and unsuccessful programme.

2.1 The Importance of Physical Education

Physical Education has existed, at least informally, since humans began to roam the earth (Colfer, G.R., Hamilton, K.E., Magill, R.A. & Hamilton, B.J., 1986). As such Cozens & Stumpf (1953) reported that anthropology and history research has revealed that physical activities and games have been a fundamental aspect of all cultures throughout the history of the world. Physical activity and recreation are among the oldest arts in the humanities. Physical activity has been an important element in every culture and has been a significant force in human relations (Ali Soltani, 1983)

The importance of Physical Education was given a boost in the positive views of some great philosophers. Plato believed that the value of Physical Education lay not only upon its physical value but more importantly its moral value. He regarded

that exercise and sport are not an ends in themselves, but “as a means toward moral perfection”. Aristotle recommended that Physical Education should be given to everyone because it helps develop fine minds (Forbes, 1929). Similarly this is concurred by Benveniste (1971) when he stated that the goal of Physical Education is not only the development of the body but also of the mind. Bucher (1972) emphasised Physical Education as an integral part of the total education when he reiterated that it is a field that aims at developing a citizen who is fit physically, mentally, emotionally and socially through the medium of physical activities.

Bush and Allen (1964) concurred with Aristotle’s view that Physical Education provides vital educational experiences and emphasised that every individual, child and adult should participate in it regularly through the school curriculum. Similarly, Baley and Field (1976) believed that Physical Education plays a vital role in the total educational process. They stated :

‘Physical Education is a part of general education and as such they have common objectives. Objectives that physical education shares with other subject areas are the ethical, social, cultural, health, aesthetic appreciation and mental health’ (p. 35).

In a research conducted by Research & Forecasts, Inc. parents were asked to state which goal was important in education. From ninety-six percent of the parents poll it was reported that improving the quality of life should be the primary goal of education. Clearly, if quality of life is seen by many to be a major educational goal, then Physical Education can and should be an important way to achieve that goal (Siedentop., Mand, & Taggart, 1986)

Physical Education influences the whole individual, not only part of him (Angyal, 1941). It helps shape minds, emotions, behaviour and physical bodies, as well as contributes to the building of character and citizenship (Pape & Means, 1962; Thompson, 1971). In a similar note, Bucher and Krotee (1998) reiterated that values, ethics and morals are often developed through participation in games and other Physical Education activities.

In a study to measure the character and personality traits in Physical Education classes of secondary school boys and girls, Blanchard (1946) found that desirable character and personality traits are stimulated by participation in Physical Education activities.

Broer and Holland (1954) studied 1115 freshman and sophomore women. The study of attitude towards Physical Education using Wear Attitude Inventory found that female college students recognised the social values of Physical Education. The results revealed that 83.5 percent checked 'to have fun', 56 percent 'to make new friends', 42.3 percent 'to learn to control myself and be a good sport', 40 percent 'to get along with and understand other people', and 22.2 percent 'to feel that I belong to a group'.

2.2 Administrative decisions on teaching staff

In the case of Physical Education, administrators are expected to accomplish the purposes of the school with human and material resources available. Whether one

is the principal or the senior assistant, one has to make decisions. "The right decision is important because people are expensive resources, it is worth taking time and effort to find the right person for the right job" (Thomson, 1993, p. 27). In schools, the materials, facilities and equipment are important but are less crucial to the productive processes of teaching and learning compared to the quality of personnel involved. The physical education programme must rely on the staff to put it into efficient operation. However, the role of administrators should not be overlooked if the following statement is true:

'No school can be greater than its staff, nor can a programme advance beyond the vision of those who administer it'
(Voltmer et al., 1978, p.47).

As such, school principals should always be concerned with the personnel assigned to the school and have insights and aspirations in improving the instructional programme. However, what has been done thus far has been merely forcing the Physical Education curriculum to the teachers. Teachers do not understand the curriculum before accepting it. When this happens, the teachers do not have shared ownership of the Physical Education curriculum, and the chances of effective implementation of the curriculum are greatly reduced (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). To ensure effective implementation of the Physical Education curriculum, administrators should give priority to the task of assigning teachers to teach and at the same time involve more people in decision making. Teachers have a stake in personnel decisions. As such teachers' involvement should be an integral part of personnel practice because it is 'democratic'. The guiding principle is those who would be affected by a decision should be involved in making that decision. However, Conley and Bacharach (1990) stressed that the essential criteria for involvement varies with the staffing task, the emphasis given to change and situation specific factors.

In supporting the importance of staffing in an organisation, Harris, Monk, MacIntyre & Long (1992) contended that staffing practices should be concerned more with human capabilities and less with traditional titles, certificates and degrees. He believed that individuals who are given some technical support and professional guidance are capable of functioning at high levels and in various situations. As such the decision making process needs to be rational, explicable and unbiased and based as far as possible on objective criteria (Thomson, 1993). This involves setting up a fair selection process designed to predict how an individual would behave at work and whether he would be able to perform a specific range of tasks adequately.

Decision making is important even in deciding in-house training programmes. Holly (1982) found in a study of perceptions of teachers in Michigan on in-service training showed that teachers are interested in staff development programmes which they themselves chose, are non-formal and allow them to participate actively. In his study Washington (1983) showed that teachers perceived the responsibility to start and plan staff development programmes belong to them and not the school principal. The decision made by teachers would allow them to achieve self-satisfaction, as they know what they need and their involvement would undoubtedly make the training programme a success.

2.3 Leadership in implementation of Physical Education programme

Leadership is the skill of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in an effort to have them willingly strive for goal attainment in a given situation (Bucher & Krotee, 1998). Leadership, especially instructional leadership is the role and function which is carried out or required from a principal. It is to enhance performance in instruction and learning in school (Lipham, 1965). This leadership is not only limited to

the process of learning and teaching in the classroom but also the involvement and contribution of the principal towards the whole school.

In a school, the principal is the 'key person' in the administration. (Boonchoy, 1979 cited in MESTI, 1982). He must accept the responsibility for the total instructional programme, which provides for meeting the social, physical, mental and emotional needs of all the educable children in the community. In other words, the keystone of a successful programme of curriculum development is the quality of leadership provided by the principal in the individual school (Shuster & Wetzler, 1958).

Jacobson, Logsdon & Wigman (1973) stressed that the most important role of a principal is to enhance teaching standards. As such, the principal must be firm as a leader of instruction programme. Burr (1963) concurred when reviewing the principal's activities, he found that instructional leadership should be the number one priority.

On the contrary many researchers agree that secondary school principals have neither the skill nor the time to be instructional leaders (Hoch, 1973 cited in Reeves, 1994; Aftron, 1974 cited in MESTI, 1982). Fullon (1979) listed the reasons why this is so:

1. Principals are not trained to become instructional leaders.
2. Principals are more involved in the administration and general organisation ;
no time to be an instructional leader.
3. The knowledge of principals is not varied and his ability in instructional leadership is thus limited.

In a report on secondary schools in Malaysia, the Federal Inspectorate of Schools (1988) specifically outlined the requirements of an effective academic leader as follows:

1. The principal must involve himself in the school subject panel/committee; as an academic leader at school level, the principal is expected to play a positive role in overseeing the subject panel/committee such as follows:
 - a. to examine panel meeting minutes;
 - b. to be present at panel meetings, alternately with the Senior Assistant;
 - c. take part in discussions, not only to update information in panel development but also to give support and professional guidance to the panel.
2. The principal must plan, administer and evaluate school staff programmes. As a leader, a principal must play the appropriate role in staff development:
 - a. to identify the strengths and weaknesses of his staff;
 - b. to plan staff development programmes based on the identified needs;
 - c. to monitor and if necessary take appropriate corrective action to change the programme to ensure its effectiveness.
3. The principal must supervise teachers and share the duty of supervision with the Senior Assistant and senior teachers. Through systematic supervision, the principal could identify the capabilities of their teaching staff:
 - a. to supervise teaching to ensure that teaching follows the school planning and direction;
 - b. to identify the strong and weak points of teachers;
 - c. to provide professional guidance to teachers.

2.4 Assigning teaching staff and allocation of Physical Education classes

The proper staffing of schools is a crucial leadership task. Instructional staffing is of course most important because the essential business of a school is to provide instructional programmes that facilitate learning for the school children. The implementation of the Physical Education programme depends greatly on the staffing

of the teachers. The staffing of schools should be carried out to improve instruction as well as maintain existing programmes.

Assigning teachers to classes for which they are neither trained nor well prepared for frequently occurs because of enrolment and programme changes that result in either a need for new teachers who cannot be found or a need to release some teachers and make do with those remaining. Robinson (1985 cited in Harris 1992) acknowledged that 'out-of-field' teaching is pedagogically unsound. It can be assumed that teachers would rather teach a subject they know than one they do not, but there is some evidence that teachers do not always know what subjects they are officially assigned to teach and are therefore reluctant to resist assignments. As such this would affect the smooth implementation of the Physical Education programme. Subsequently Wainwright (1993) substantiated that if people are not managed efficiently and effectively, the cost would be considerable. These include making avoidable mistakes and the failure to fully exploit fully the potential that lies within people. It is this potential which can greatly increase an organisation's effectiveness.

McLaughlin et al. (1986 cited in Harris 1992) contend that administrative decisions to assign teachers outside their fields can actually contribute to incompetence. Assigning teachers to subjects outside their area of interest and competence is the administrative action which is most damaging to a teacher's self-esteem and satisfaction. This is more so for new teachers whose initial assignments are frustrating or stressful. They would be more likely to experience decreased commitment, confidence and satisfaction in later years than those whose initial assignments are supportive and satisfying.

The problem of assigning teachers to teach Physical Education is serious according to Indra Devi (1992). She stated in her study that although the majority of teachers were teaching their option subjects, 16.3 percent of teachers had to teach

subjects which they had not been trained for. The situation is worrying because teachers need more information and understanding before they would be able to teach a subject. Although they still need to be well versed in the tricks of the trade, more importantly they need theoretical knowledge ideas from pedagogy, history, psychology, sociology, philosophy, subject matter disciplines and so forth – that would help them answer questions as yet not raised (Myers & Myers, 1995).

2.5 Staff development programmes for Physical Education teachers

In view of the shortage of qualified Physical Education teachers, and the suspension of in-service programme in teacher training colleges in 1998 (Berita Harian: 29.1.1998) staff development programmes or in-house training programmes become important. The in-house training programmes are required to train teachers to upgrade their teaching skills, and help them overcome the challenges in various Physical Education situations.

In-house training is training carried out in schools to upgrade the knowledge and skills of teachers. The training is done under the leadership of principals, with the assistance of senior assistant, head teacher and key personnel (Curriculum Development Centre, 1994).

Staff development programme in the context of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia is an in-service course conducted for teachers, professional staff and administrative staff to upgrade their knowledge, efficiency and skill in teaching-learning aspects (Asariah, 1991,p.1). Its training principles are :

1. training is continuous;
2. training conducted is based on individual or group needs

3. training is done with proper planning.

The objectives of the staff development programme in schools are:

1. to expose staff to new developments in the field of education;
2. to upgrade knowledge and to impart new skills in various teaching-learning aspects;
3. to provide motivation to the staff;
4. to produce resource staff who would in turn impart knowledge and skill which is acquired from courses attended to other members of the staff;
5. to promote a culture of excellence among teachers;
6. to enhance the creativity, imagination, and innovation in teachers.

The in-service courses that are organised by various divisions of the Ministry of Education are as follows:

1. Long term Course – It is a course which runs for 14 weeks or more. This type of course is conducted in teacher training colleges. Courses are determined by current needs which are identified by the various divisions of the Ministry of Education and State Education Departments.
2. Short term Course – It is conducted for a day or more by various divisions of the Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments.
3. Individual Based Course – It is conducted by the District Education Office where teachers from various schools in the district gather for a course or a series of courses in a school year.

4. School Based Course – It is conducted in individual schools and involves only the school's teachers. Courses are planned by individual schools for a school year or more.

In schools, courses are organised after official schooling hours or during the weekends. Harris, Monk, McIntyre & Long (1992) reported that in the Malaysian context staff development programmes are organised by the schools, District Education Offices, State Education Departments, teacher training colleges, Curriculum Development Centre, National Institute of Educational Management, and other divisions of the Ministry of Education.

Staff development has positive effects on teachers. It gives or adds knowledge, skills and enhances staff commitment (Hall, 1986; March, Schwartz & Crisci, 1993). According to Thompson (1992) and Ecoff (1992) there was a positive attitude change in teachers who attended staff development programme. It boosted self-confidence and teachers were more willing to face different situations.

According to Malaysian past records, staff development programmes have been in existence since 1900 in King Edward VII School, Perak (Loh, 1974). Realising that there was a shortage of qualified staff, Roger Francis Stainer, the school principal started his own staff development programme. It was reported that in-service courses in physical training for 'Normal Trained Teachers' were held in Seremban from 1951-1953 in three stages (Velappan, 1977). However it was not until 1979 that a more serious effort was considered by the Ministry of Education when the Teacher Education Division formed its Development Training Unit. Staff development

programmes or in-service education is part of a continuous cycle in the education of the teacher. Coombs (1968) stressed that in-service education is important in ensuring the quality and standard of the teachers and it is one way through which the teaching profession can be speedily and economically improved. He reiterated that if teachers fail to keep abreast with the rapid changes in knowledge, application and methodology, they would be giving 'yesterday's education to tomorrow's citizens.

In supporting staff development, Sandra (1994 cited in Sakhiyah Abdul Manaf, 1997) contended that staff development is a part of school improvement and it needs to be well planned so that the adult learning that occurs has a direct link with student learning. In addition, Seyforth (1991) in his writing stated that staff development has a greater potential for influencing instructional effectiveness than any other personnel function. He emphasised that staff development provide activities designed to advance the knowledge, skills and understanding of teachers in ways that lead to positive and productive changes in their thinking and classroom behaviour. This notion is also supported by Ferstermacher & Berliner (1983).

2.6 Staff Development Model

In order to organise the staff development programme, a training model needs to be formed by the school principal. Staff development researchers (Ferstermacher & Berliner, 1983; Main, 1985 and Wood, Thompson & Russel, 1981) contended that five stages should exist in a training model: Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation and Maintenance (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1

A Training Model For Staff Development

Stages		Descriptions
1	Readiness	School administrators identify problems and the changes that are needed. They select the programmes and process. School teachers understand the needs and commit themselves to change.
2	Planning	The administrators identify the need to have the training and clarify aims and objectives. Activities for the training are planned and training resources identified.
3	Training	When the plan is carried out, professional behaviour learning takes place; teachers learn the subject matter and skills and at the same time they are expected to change their attitudes.
4	Implementation	What was learnt by the teachers need to be imparted. As such a conducive environment which encourages the transition from what is learnt in the staff development programme to daily activities in schools is needed.
5	Maintenance	Professional behaviours that are acquired in the training are not permanent. They have to be monitored continuously to ensure new behaviours are imparted to the students.

Source : Wood, F.G., Thompson, S.R. & Russel, S.F. (1981). *Designing effective Staff Development Programme*. In B. Dillion-Peterson (Ed.), *Staff development/organisation development*. Alexandria: American Schools Curriculum Development.

Scarpello & Sedvinka (1988) who embarked on the same approach as Wood et al. (1981) and a local researcher (Zaidatol, 1990), introduced a Staff Development Model based on learning theories; behavioural theory, social and cognitive learning. Scarpello & Sedvinka recommended three ways to transfer newly learnt behaviour to the working environment.

The three recommendations are:

1. The learning of the new behaviours by participants must be repetitive to ensure over learning;
2. To train the participants to gain confidence in relation to their abilities to carry out the new behaviours;
3. To ensure that the organisations reward the participants and give recognition to strengthen the new behaviours.

Scarpello & Sedvinka's (1988) Staff Development Model involves six stages :

1. To identify training needs;
2. To identify training aims and characteristics of training evaluation;
3. To choose the right experimental design;
4. To choose training resources and presentation methods;
5. To implement the training;
6. To evaluate how far the training programme can achieve the expected aims.

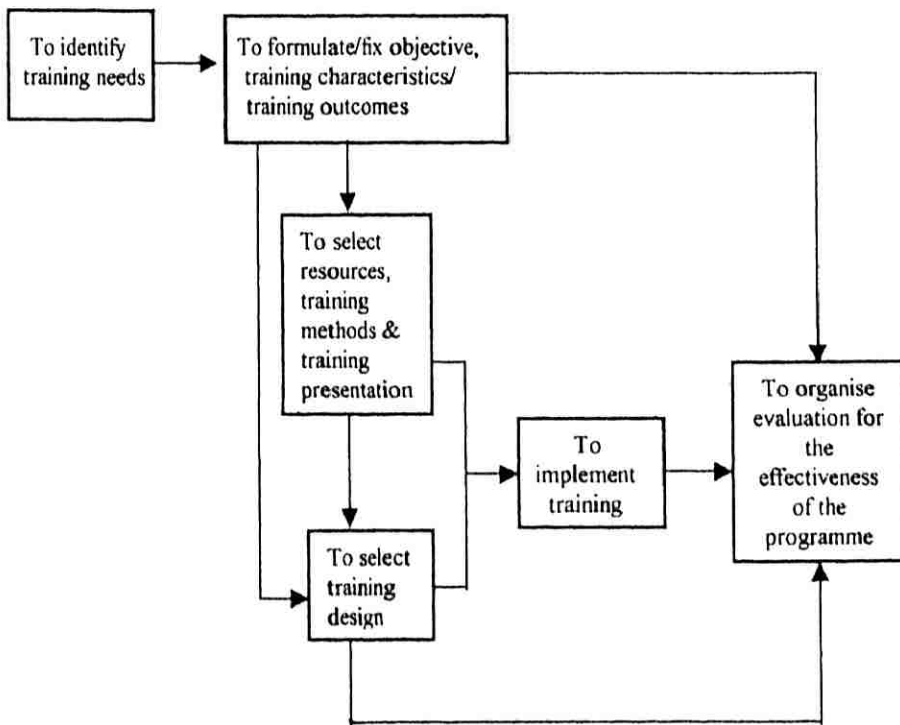


Figure 2.1 Staff Development Model

Source : Scarpello & Sedvinka (1988). Personnel/Human Resources Management: Environment and functions. Massachusetts: PWS-Kent, p.494.

However West (cited in Ramaiah, 1992 & Sakhiyah, 1997) emphasised some basic principles to ensure that a successful training model is formed. Those basic principles are tabulated as follows:

Table 2.2
Towards Achieving A Successful Staff Development Model

	High Success	Low Success
1. Aim	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear • Accepted by all/almost all • Based on need analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complex/Unclear • Meet with resistance • Not based on need analysis
2. Programme Activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full explanation regarding group interactions, unofficial serendipity • Imaginative, Creative, Variety • Design by critical staff, involves many staff members • Implying local value needs • Allocation for support and continuous feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little explanation • Coherent format, no co-ordination with other plan • Design by outsiders • Overlapping values • No allocation for support and no continuous feedback
3. Cultural factor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisation/Group culture support direction of change • Working history of group towards solving organisational problems are positive and creative • Group able to co-operate, share ideas and experience • Groups have similar physical, psychological and sociological characteristics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisation culture does not support the effort for reform/change • Negative attitude/feeling toward history and contribution toward organisational problem • Groups are not coherent; no shared values and ideas. Unwilling to share ideas and experience • Existence of gaps between groups
4. Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open to participants to decide • Feeling of outcome ownership by participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decided without the knowledge of participants • Outcome not related to participants

*Source :Ramaiah (1992). Education Leadership ; Present challenge (Trans.).
Petaling Jaya:IBS,p265.*

Burrello & Orbaugh (1982) stressed that the school plays an important role in providing staff development programmes. They listed out six important aspects based on feedback obtained from 300 teachers, parents as well as local and state administrators. The six aspects for effective staff development are :

1. In-service training (staff development) must be an integral part of the organisation and must be supported by the organisation involved;
2. The in-service training programme must be designed to produce a collaborative programme;
3. The programme provided should be based on the need of the participants;
4. The programme should be flexible in view of changing needs;
5. The programme should be accessible;
6. The evaluation of the programme should be continuous and based on the objectives to be achieved.

The effectiveness of staff development programme may be measured by four outcomes suggested by Wade (1985):

1. Teacher reaction;
2. Teacher knowledge;
3. Teacher behaviour change;
4. Improvement in student learning.

He stressed that staff development is effective in producing gains in teacher learning and reported that there is no statistical relationship between the length of training sessions and to the four above-mentioned outcomes. However Sparks (1983) noted that it is reasonable to believe that more time would be needed to teach material that is more complex.

Whichever model one uses, it is important to bear in mind the following :

‘In short, programme must be responsive to the needs of those it serves and consonant with a vision of educational reforms and change than being predicted on as the ‘passing fancies’ of the education world’ (Wallace et al., 1990, p.188):

2.6.1 Staff development programme at school level

Schools play a major role in complementing the training efforts of the various divisions of the Ministry of Education in training teachers while in service. Many researchers (Hall, 1986; March et al., 1993, Owen, 1990) stressed that staff development programmes give positive effects to teachers. It gives or adds knowledge, skills and enhances staff commitment. According to Thompson (1992) and Ecoff (1922) there was positive change in teachers who attended staff development programmes, it boosted self-confidence and they were more willing to face different situations. The role of staff development programme in professional development is best summarised by Owen’s (1990) conceptual overview:

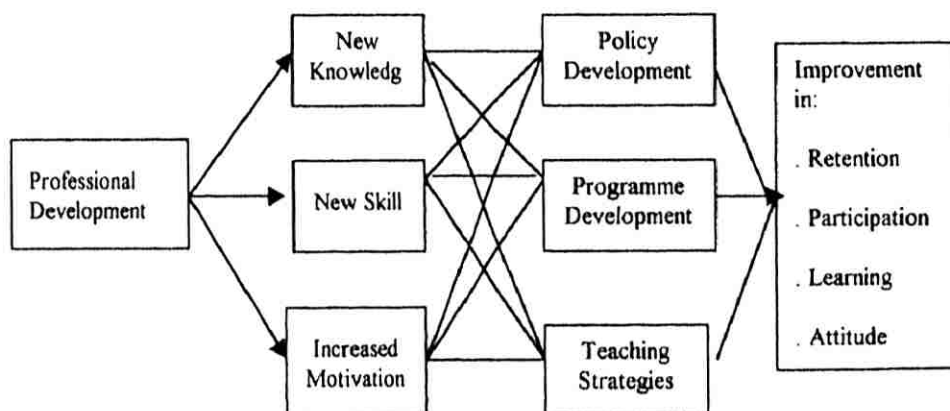


Figure 2.2 A Conceptual Overview of the Roles of Professional Development In School Improvement

Source: Owen, J.M. (1990). *Perspective of down under*. In Joyle (Ed.). *School culture through Staff development*. Alexandria: American Schools Curriculum Development. P.175.

According to DeVries & Colbert (1990) schools can ensure the success of staff development programmes because programmes are “needs-based, owned by participants, differentiated experimentally / behaviourally based, co-operatively planned, individual and involved.”

A good school staff development programme gives positive effect to teachers in upgrading knowledge, skills, communication and motivation (Hall, 1986). Further, many researchers (Flanagan et al., 1986; March et al., 1993; Wallace et al., 1990) concurred that the effect of staff training is shown in the performance of their students. Students taught by teachers who had undergone staff training show marked improvement in their performance.

Mohlman et al. (1983) in a study of 14 secondary school teachers in Sacramento, United States of America found that that staff training provided opportunities for teachers to share their problems and ways to solve them, to share their expertise and effective ways of teaching.

In another study, Veenman et al. (1989) found that staff development programmes help teachers improve their skills. The study was carried out in Holland and it involved teachers with 7 to 25 years of teaching experience and a control group of teachers with 5 to 22 years experience. Compared to the control group, the experimental group indicated that after the training they could use teaching methods more effectively, had better class organisation and administration in a class of different age groups. Similarly positive results were obtained by Van Tudler and

Veenman (1991). In a study of teachers with an average of 13 years experience, and with average 9 years in a particular school, Van Tudler and Veenman found that training courses had a positive effects on teaching.

Similar results were also obtained by Thompson (1992) who found in his research on secondary school teachers who had attended in-service training that they felt they had gained 40 to 80% additional knowledge and evaluated the training in a positive way. Before attending the course the teachers felt that they had no confidence and lacked the ability to teach problematic students.

Review of literature on attitude change and in-service courses revealed some interesting findings. In Malaysia, Velappan (1977) found in his study of Physical Education teachers who had attended in-service course that there was no significant change in attitude before and after they have attended the course. However, the study revealed that there was an improvement in attitude for those who attended the course as compared to those who had not. On the contrary, Wong (1971) found that there was attitude change from negative to positive for teachers who had attended in-service courses. Similarly positive results was found by Mohd. Sani (1979). Mohd. Sani studied 238 religious teachers (141 male, 97 female) who attended a nine-term holiday course at the Sultan Idris Teacher Training College, Tanjong Malim, Perak and found that 89.2% of the teachers felt that the course helped to upgrade their professional qualification, economic status and social status.

Sukumaran (1984) in his study of Economic teachers who attended in-service courses found that the success of the course depended on how much the objectives of the course were understood, accepted and considered important by the teachers. In another study, Harris et al. (1992) found in his study of secondary school National Language teachers that there was a relationship between the need to attend courses and the number of years in service and qualification. There was more demand for courses by non-graduate teachers and by teachers who were younger.

However Mohd. Sani (1979) and Sukumaran (1984) emphasised the importance of the vicinity factor of the in-house training. Teachers like to be near home to cut cost and to be near loved ones. In fact Sukumaran suggested that if a school could not handle the in-house course, it could be organised at the district level whereby a few schools could jointly organise the course.

In conclusion, Main (1985) described staff training as “job maintenance”. It helps schools improve performance and at the same time allows teachers to develop their profession.

2.6.2 Administrators' roles in Staff Development Programme in Schools

Instructional support services are essential to the best teaching practice. In Physical Education programmes the in-house courses such as game skills, gymnastic skills, teaching methods, class control and so forth are imperative to train teachers who do not major in Physical Education as well as teachers who have no confidence to teach Physical Education. The training when properly provided, could motivate

teachers to achieve better results in class teaching.

Hussein (1991) stressed that staff development on KBSM (The Integrated Secondary School Curriculum) subjects and new subjects is important. The principal needs the initiative to ensure that programmes for staff development work. Other Malaysian researchers (Abdul Rahim, 1986; Hussein, 1991; Ong, 1993) agreed that staff development is important and strong leadership is needed to organise and administer staff development programmes at the school level. However, DeVries & Colbart (1990) emphasised that staff development programmes should be characterised by needs-based, owned by the participant and co-operatively planned.

In fact, Leithwood (1990) recommended some guidelines for the principal in a normal working environment to ensure that staff development programmes would be implemented effectively. Those recommendations are:

1. To view the teacher as a whole person;
2. To base school culture on co-operative norms and knowledge professionalism;
3. To diagnose teacher development needs;
4. To arrange administrative activity into effective teacher development strategy.

According to teacher perceptions, the evaluation by administrators especially the principals on the teachers' teaching after training provided much needed motivation. Dangel, Conard & Hopkins (1978) in a study of 14 male and female teachers with 1 to 30 years of experience, who had attended staff development programmes, found that they supported the principal's involvement in the programme especially in the evaluation aspects after training.

The principal evaluation based on programme objectives and suggestions on teachers' teaching skills were among the important aspects in making the staff development programme a success. In fact, Ong (1993) a local researcher cautioned

that among the failure of in-house training is the failure to involve the teachers in identifying their needs and selection of suitable courses. Similarly, the Georgia Professional Standards Commission (1985) in Atlanta, United States of America reported that 61% of the teachers observed were not satisfied with the role of principals, which they claimed was more as school administrators than instructional leaders. In fact 30% of those observed were not satisfied with the principals' role in the following aspects:

1. communication with teachers;
2. teaching observations;
3. expansion of curriculum;
4. planning staff development;
5. teaching.

Similarly, many other researchers (Davis & Nicklos, 1986; Hall, 1986; McEvoy, 1985; Purcell, 1987) agreed that principals play important roles in ensuring that staff development programmes are implemented successfully in schools. Hall (1986) found that when principals were involved in supporting teachers to identify their needs and at the same time gave his co-operation, it was proven that 82% of the teachers showed improvement in knowledge, skills, communications and involvement in decision making.

In supporting the notion, Davis & Nicklos (1986) reaffirmed that when a principal has a clear expectation, and can use key personnel effectively as well as able to identify his role in evaluation, his effort will bring about improvement in students' achievement by more than 50%. Purcell (1987) concluded that the principal's support is important in handling changes at school level. Principals who were involved in staff development

activities improved his credibility among staff and parents. According to Veenman (1994), 'they (principals) steered their teachers to the intended innovation goals' (p. 316).

On the contrary, Van Tudler & Veenman (1991) reported that principals were not supportive of physical education programmes. The principals do not provide encouragement in implementing changes that is needed. This does not augur well among teachers who had expected much support from their principals.

Conversely, Veenman (1994) revealed that teachers who were given clear information on aims and course content by the principal, were found to have positive effect on the school. On the other hand, it was also found that training does not change teachers' behaviour even though they were involved in the planning of a training course. However, Washington (1993) found that teachers agreed that they themselves and not the principals are responsible to start and plan staff development programmes.

In short, further induction programmes for the Physical Education unit in schools could contribute significantly to personnel security and satisfaction. McLaughlin et al. (1986) contended that perhaps at no time in a staff member's period of service is there a great need for consideration, guidance and understanding than during the first few months of employment (teaching).

The importance of staff development could well be understood by the following :

The future culture of the school will be fashioned largely by how staff development systems evolve. How good schools will be as educational institutions – how humane and vital they will be as places of work – will be functions of the energy and quality of the investment in their personnel. Whether better designed curriculum will be implemented, the promise of new technologies realised, or vision of a genuine teaching profession take form, all depend to a large extent

on the strength of the growing staff development programmes and especially whether they become true human resource development system (Joyce, 1990, p. x v)

2.7 Effective Teaching

Seyfarth (1991) in his book 'Personnel Management for Effective Schools' contended that capable teachers are essential in achieving quality education and that such teachers will always be in short supply. This is supported by Grineski (1994) that successful Physical Education programmes start with an effective teacher.

Capel, Leask and Turner (1995) in their study revealed that effective teaching depends on three factors, that is professional knowledge, subject knowledge and professional judgement. Professional knowledge is about teaching and learning. Subject knowledge comes through academic qualification and from continuing professional development. Professional judgement refers to routine skills and strategies which support efficient class room management. They added that a widening knowledge base is imperative to bring a deeper understanding of the subject than is required by the syllabus. Wider knowledge help teachers develop differentiated tasks much more easily and it gives teachers the confidence in answering questions posed by students. Above all, they concluded that the key elements in becoming successful teachers are :

- a. teachers must have adequate subject knowledge;
- b. teachers must give attention to planning;
- c. teachers must be aware of pupils' needs ; and

d. teachers must be concerned about the welfare of pupils.

Seyfarth (1991) in agreement with the above notion stressed that teachers' knowledge of the subjects they teach and the appropriate methods used are important to ensure students' learning. The importance of subject matter is also agreed upon by Porter and Brophy (1988).

Stansbury and Long (1992) proposed the Effective Teaching Construct for effective teaching. This proposal is parallel to the work of Shulman (1986) who emphasised that effective teaching is affected by two main factors; pedagogy and subject matter knowledge. He called it pedagogical content knowledge.

Nathan (1995) and Kyriacou (1991) added one more element to effective teaching that is teachers' reflection and self-evaluation. Teachers' reflection and self-evaluation ensure continuous future improvement. With this feedback, the learning outcome could be planned more systematically and effectively. Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf (1995) however felt that knowledge of students is important to implement effective instruction.

Reynolds (1992) emphasised that teachers with an inadequate knowledge base place their students at risk of educational failure. He believes that teachers must know their students in a way that would allow them to tailor the subject matter, curricular material and instructional activities to the student. The knowledge about the students is in tandem with Porter and Brophy's (1988) contention that the knowledge should include student background knowledge and misconceptions.

Clark and Peterson (1986) believed that planning is an important element of effective instruction. Planning helps teachers to increase on-task time and focus on a lesson. They even noted that an effective teacher not only plans prior to teaching but also places emphasis to planning which follows teaching.

Figure 2.3 in page 70 sums up the effective teaching construct which focuses on three sub-constructs that is subject matter construct, pedagogical construct and student knowledge construct.

2.7.1 Effective Teaching and Attitude

Prior to the 1980s the focus of effective teaching is on the relationship of process-product. However after the 1980s, teachers' thought processes or teacher cognition was dominant and incidentally this has rekindled its recognition in the 1960's (Kalwant Kaur, 1997). Teachers' thought processes was believed to play a significant role in effective teaching. Many researchers (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1992, Weinstein, 1989) have accepted the fact that teachers' thought processes substantially influence teacher behaviour. In addition, studies on teacher cognition reveal that mental processes and constructs also have significant pedagogical consequences.

Effective teaching is believed to be influenced by the teachers' beliefs. Pajares (1992) contends that the teachers' beliefs influence their perceptions and judgements which in turn affect their classroom behaviour. In fact Sergiovanni and Starrat (1988) noted that beliefs governed teachers' classroom behaviour :

... teachers,... bring to the classroom a variety of agendas, some public, many hidden and probably most unknown, each of which influences the decisions they make. The agenda tend to fall in three categories : what one believes is possible, what one believes is true, and what one believes is desirable. (p 361)

Reynolds (1992) stressed that teachers' personality characteristics such as interests, temperaments, personality traits and ethical or moral standards also played vital roles in effective teaching. In fact, Reynolds believed that the development of personality and attitude is the prerequisite of competent teaching and it was expressed in terms of personality characteristics.

2.8 Job satisfaction, work commitment and teaching performance

Teacher job satisfaction relates to their feeling dependent on conditions and work culture which exist within or outside themselves (Mohd. Sahandri Ghani, 1998). Chapman and Lowther (1982) believed that the quality of work output (teaching output) is high if discontentment based on contexts and process needs is low. Khaleque (1984) stressed that the context needs are salary, work place infrastructure,

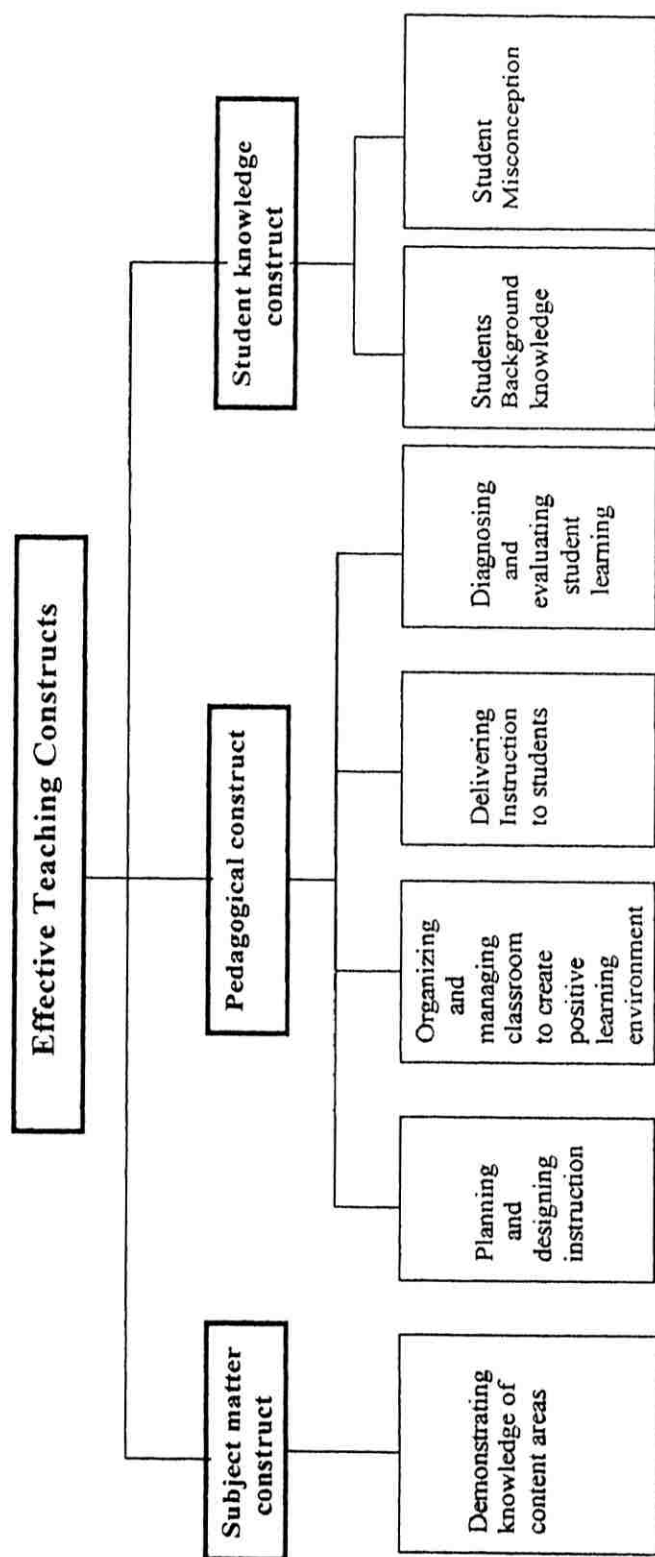


Figure 2.3 Effective Teaching Constructs

work culture and relationship with the administration. The process needs are work achievement, recognition and encouragement. In supporting this notion, Sansider (1996 cited in Mohd. Shahandri Ghani) revealed that job satisfaction is moulded from agreement between school staff and recognition from school, district, state and country.

A study conducted locally by Ab. Main (1993) found that lady teachers showed higher job satisfaction as compared to their male counterparts. The study also confirmed that age, academic qualification, experience, school location and school grade have no influence on job satisfaction.

In a fifteen-year study regarding a 'school can improve', Odden (1983) found that a school is capable of change and a teacher becoming more effective in teaching skills to students. He suggested some strategies which could expedite the effect of teaching and learning and these include the following: plan, arrange and execute development programme, determine teachers' commitment and administrators' support, financial support and moral support.

In another study on "organisational and personal constraints on the successful institutionalisation of individually guided education" Gaddis (1978) outlined one of the reasons why a programme fails as the lack of commitment among teachers. Similar findings were revealed by Pounder. Pounder (1996) stressed that when teachers are not committed, they would not participate in staff development programmes arranged for them, and would not find co-operation in group work. This

unhealthy trend would undoubtedly have profound adverse effects on the school administration system.

In another study Baron and Greenberg (1990) found that teachers' commitment is influenced by administration policy and the working environment. While Ball and Goodson (1985) noted that the majority of teachers who receive support from the administrators could effectively perform their curriculum duty. However, Abd. Main (1993) stressed that the co-operation given by colleagues could enhance the commitment and job satisfaction.

In a study of commitment to change of 168 teachers from 9 secondary schools, Leithwood et al. (1993) found that leadership contributes to the change in work commitment. They revealed that it is imperative for school administrators to have a vision to effect motivation and to set objectives. Similarly, Tarter et al. (1989) found that higher commitment from teachers and better work performances can be effected if administrators provide among others adequate infrastructure and professional support and be able to express the spirit of give and take in administration.

On the other hand, Ball and Goodson (1985) found that teachers with more non-academic workload would lose their commitment in their professional work. To address this issue, Malaysian Minister of Education, Dato' Mohd. Najib (Berita Harian, 14.1.1997 cited in Mohd. Shahandri Ghani) announced the appointment of 14, 000 new teachers. They are needed to reduce teachers non-academic work load

and to allow teachers to concentrate on curriculum instruction.

2.9 Theoretical concept of attitude

2.9.1 Definitions

The term 'attitude' has never been precisely defined and has various meanings from one researcher to another (Aiken, 1980). Kenyon (1968) concurred by saying that a lack of unanimity regarding definition and measurement have plagued attempts to determine social attitudes. As such Rokeach's (1972) suggestion that "a favourable way to proceed in defining an attitude is first present a dozen or two definitions from the literature and then, after commenting on their common elements, presents one's own" would be considered.

Thurstone and Chave (1970) defined attitude as "... the sum total of a man's inclinations and feeling, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specified topics". Thus, attitude is the expression of one's opinion, rejection or acceptance of an object.

Kenyon (1968), however emphasised the 'intensity' of an attitude when he defined attitude as "... a latent or non-observable complex but relatively stable behavioural disposition reflecting both direction and intensity of feeling toward a particular object whether it be concrete or abstract".

Oppenheim (1966) noted the relation of one's readiness to an object in the environment in his definition of attitude as "... a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with a stimuli".

Thomas (1971) revealed that experience is a factor in attitude formation when he defined attitude as "... a complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or other tendencies that have given set of readiness to act because of varied experience".

On the contrary, Thurstone (1928) chose to differ from Kenyon's definition that attitude was relatively stable and believed that individual attitude changes as the situation changes. In addition, he suggested that natural events, learning and experience contribute to the formation of one's beliefs which ultimately affect one's attitude. This view was supported by Likert's (1932) notion that the number of definable attitudes existing in a person at a given time will depend upon the range of stimuli to which he is subjected to.

Allport (1967) stated that attitude is "... a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related".

In conclusion, an attitude is the tendency of a person to respond positively or negatively towards some object and situation. Specifically it is a mental and neural state of readiness organised through experience and exerting influence upon an individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.

2.9.2 Components of attitude

Attitude like an emotion has both objective and subjective aspects (Leuba, 1966) and Morris (1976) concurred in stating that an attitude towards something has three major components : belief about something; feelings about something; and behaviour towards something.

Similarly these components were obvious in Heidenreich's (1968) definition of attitude :

An attitude is an orientation toward or away from some subject, concept, or situation ...a bodily posture showing, or meant to show, a mental state, emotion, or mood ... the organisation of beliefs and concepts (cognitive aspects), motives (affective aspects), and habits and acts (action or behaviour aspects) which are associated with a particular object or situation a matter of feeling, acting, or thinking that shows one's disposition or opinion.

Rosenberg & Hovland (1960 cited in Eiser, 1986) propounded that attitude is made up of three components; cognitive, affective and behavioral. Figure 3.2 (Eiser, 1986, p.54) shows a schematic conception of attitudes as three intervening variables and their corresponding dependent variables.

2.9.2.1 Cognitive component

It is also known as the mental component constitutes the consciously held belief about things, thoughts and assumptions. The mental aspect is based on personal perception of the actual thing. The real thing becomes, to the individual concerned, a psychological/ social/ attitude object (Jonas et al., 1995; Triandis, 1971). The belief itself is developed from observation, knowledge, thought and logical interrelationships.

2.9.2.2 Affective component

It is an emotional response which is triggered by an attitude object. The affective dimension can be seen as a continuum ranging from very favourable to very unfavourable, including neutral (Steers & Black, 1994). The affective dimension can be inferred from visible cues of body language, verbal expressions of feelings and physiological reactions.

2.9.2.3 Behavioural component

The component refers to the orientation, readiness and tendency to respond favourably or unfavourably to a conception of the things around. However, the action itself is not part of attitude. The behavioural disposition 'reflects the behavioural intentions of the person toward the objects' (Triandis, 1971).

There seems to be a fourth component in addition to the three components propounded by Rosenberg and Hovland. Oskamp (1991) proposed a fourth component, that is the evaluative component. This evaluative component is closely linked to the affective component and it refers to discernment of the positive or negative and good or bad. As such one is predisposed toward an evaluative response and this may be based on personal opinions and perceptions.

In short, attitude is a combination of four components; *cognitive, affective, behavioural and evaluative*. For instance, believing that Physical Education is useful

in our daily lives (cognitive), liking the idea of teaching Physical Education (affective), being ready to teach (behavioural) and evaluating that Physical Education is good (evaluative) would seem to combine as one entity. The four components seem consistent with one another and could be viewed as a package (Ng, 1995).

2.9.3 The Functions of Attitudes

Katz (1960) noted that attitudes served many functions which could be listed as:

- the knowledge function
- the adjustive function
- the value-expressive function
- the ego-defensive function

2.9.3.1 The knowledge function

This function helps us understand the world around us, by simplifying, assessing and organising features (complex input) of our complex environment. Attitudes allow our past experiences to guide our actions thus avoiding the process of learning each time a new stimuli exists. .

2.9.3.2 The adjustive function

It helps us to adjust in a complex world. This function helps us to affiliate ourselves with certain social groups. The identification process helps us secure a

place in society; making us more acceptable in social interactions and thus maximising our reward from society and at the same time minimising the penalties.

2.9.3.3 The value-expressive function

This function enables us to express our fundamental values and the positive aspects of our experience from our inner selves. This expression of attitudes gives pleasure to the person because the attitude reveals some basic values he holds dear.

2.9.3.4 The ego-defensive function

This allow us to protect and defend our self-esteem, unconscious ideas, motives and even unpleasant truths about ourselves. The approach involves a process we call 'the functional analysis of attitude' which is concerned with the functions performed by attitude 'in the economy of personality' (Katz, 1960; Katz & Stotland, 1959; Smith, 1947; Smith, Bruner & White, 1956).

Attitudes may *express* some aspects of an individual personality. Smith, Bruner & White (1956) noted an example that attitude expresses a physiological condition of an individual; persons with low energy threshold displays a lack of interest in the affairs of the world. This may be reflected in indifferent attitudes toward attitude objects relevant to international affairs.

Attitudes enable us to adjust to our environment thus providing us a certain amount of predictability. Our attitudes help us to adjust to our environment by making it easier to get along with people. This provides some externalisation of inner problems (Smith, Bruner & White, 1956).

2.9.4 Acquisition of attitude

Morris (1976) noted that attitudes are a part of the socialisation process which are usually consistent with the belief system of parents, peers and significant others. He also stated that attitude interwoven with one's many other attitudes is difficult to change because it becomes an integral part of one's personality. Thus a person has to adjust or alter his attitude to accommodate changes.

Attitudes which were formed changes as the situation changes (Thurstone, 1928). Thurstone believed that natural events, learning and experience contribute to the formation of one's beliefs which ultimately affects one's attitude. This view is similar to Likert's (1932) notion that the number of definable attitudes which exist in a person at a given time would depend upon the range of stimuli to which he is subjected to.

Attitude is believed to be the primary factor that determines the consequences of Physical Education. Bruner (1965) believed that interest must be aroused and attention sustained in order to cultivate positive attitudes in the Physical Education class.

Marlowe (1971) in dealing with the formation of attitudes suggested four general types of attitude theories: functional, perceptual, learning and consistency. The functional theory relates attitude development with personality dimensions such as motives, needs and drives. To understand personality there is a need to understand

individual processes. The perceptual aspect views attitude formation in terms of the basic components of underlying perception and cognition. The learning framework views attitude as habits in which various reinforcements established the bonds of stimulus- response. The consistency perspective maintains that the attitudinal components (cognitive, affective and behavioural) must be mutually supporting.

Morgan (1960) suggests that a person's attitude is profoundly influenced by the culture in which he lives. However, the influence is not uniform for different individual in a similar culture. In addition, a person is rarely restricted to a mono culture and is bound to be influenced by other cultures, besides his own.

Allport (1954) noted that there are four ways in which attitudes develop. The four ways are (i) integration, (ii) differentiation, (iii) shock and (iv) adoption. Integration is the formation of attitude through accumulation of a large number of experiences over a long period of time. The formation of attitude by differentiation can be described as a splitting of a specific attitude from a more general one. For instance an individual has an unfavourable attitude towards Physical Education because he has unfavourable attitude towards other school subjects. Attitude formed by shock is due to an unusual, violent or painful experience. The attitude developed through adoption is described by a person merely following the example of others such as friends, parents, teachers, the mass media and other opinion influencing agencies.

Attitude is built up slowly (Zimbardo, 1977) but once acquired through the learning experience (Whitaker, 1995), it is relatively resistant to alteration.

2.9.5 Attitude Change

Even though attitude is relatively stable and resistant to alteration, modification of attitude is still possible. This study will examine various approaches to attitude change:

- the functional approach;
- the learning theory;
- perceptual theory;
- consistency theory;
- Social-Information-Processing

2.9.5.1 The functional approach and attitude change

This approach states that attitude form and change in order to serve or support the goals of individuals. Attitude is seen to satisfy the needs of an individual. There are many theories to explain attitude change, among them are theories by Katz and Stotland (1959), Katz (1960) and Kelman (1961).

a. Katz and Stotland's Theory of Attitude Change

Katz and Stotland proposed that attitude develop and is changed to satisfy the psychological needs of the individual. Katz (1960) postulates that attitude is changed based on four attitude functions. The instrumental function assume that a person seeks to maximise rewards and minimise penalties; rewards lead to positive

attitude and penalties to negative attitude. The ego-defensive function states that a person develops an attitude towards specific objects in order to camouflage feelings that threaten his self-esteem; this implies an attempt to conceal certain personal characteristics. The value-expressive function propose that an individual presents attitudes consistent with his values specifically values that he evaluates highly. The knowledge function suggests that a person's attitude is guided by past experiences.

b. Kelman's Theory of Attitude Change

Kelman (1961, cited in Ng, 1995) proposed a 'three-process' theory of attitude change. This is concerned with situations in which a person attempts to influence the attitudes of another. The first process of attitude change is '*compliance*'. This occurs when the 'recipient' changes his attitude in order to obtain a favourable response or to avoid an unfavourable response from the influencer. The second process of attitude change is '*identification*'. This happens when a person adopts the attitude of others whom he admire, without the presence of influencing agents. This attitude change may persist because people are willing to identify with people they admire and they find it satisfying to do so. The third process of attitude change is '*internalisation*'. This occurs when the attitude is consistent with one's value systems.

2.9.5.2 The learning theory and attitude change

This approach focuses on principles and explanation. Hovland, Janis &

Kelley's 'Communication and Persuasion' (1953, cited in Vellapan, 1977) stressed the four stimuli of attitude change as follows:

- The source of communication – the characteristics of the source can affect attitude change. Sources high in credibility (expertness and trustworthiness) had a significant immediate effect compared to those low in credibility. Halloran (1970, cited in Mohd. Shahandri Ghani) stressed that the degree to which the communicator is perceived as being expert, fair and trustworthy, enters into the reception and retention of the message.
- The nature of the communication – appeals to the audience's motives and the organisation of the arguments
- Audience predisposition – predisposition to conform to particular groups and individual personality factors
- Audience response to the communication – overt expression of acceptance of the new opinion and degree of retention of opinion change

2.9.5.3 Perceptual theory and attitude change

This approach refers to the individual's perception of the objects, person or idea that he is evaluating. Many researchers (Asch, 1952; Sherif & Sherif, 1956) stressed that the attitude change is primarily a reinterpretation or redefinition of the object of the attitude.

2.9.5.4 Consistency theory and attitude change

This theory is initiated by Herder (1946, cited in Vellappan, 1977). This approach proposed that attitude as the relationship between three elements that is the *person* 'P', the *other person* 'O' and the *object* 'Q' and all are from the point of view of the person 'P'. Herder claimed that there are four possible ways in which "P" 's perception of the relationship between himself, another person and an object could be consistent or balanced.

Other theories which followed Herder's theory, extended and refined his original ideas. Newcomb's (1953) theory of Symmetry is an attempt to account for the development of interpersonal relationships. However, he considers the actual relationship as between two people's point of view.

McGuire (1960) proposed the quantification of attitude change. He emphasised two processes of consistency. The first one is that some attitudes are consistent with rules of logic. Secondly, some attitudes are consistent with 'wishful thinking'.

2.9.5.5 Social-Information-Processing and attitude change

This approach is propounded by Pfeffer and Salancik (cited in Steers & Black, 1994, p.85). It sees attitudes as resulting from 'socially constructed realities' as perceived by the individual. The social context in which one find himself in will influence his perception of a situation, thus shaping his attitude.

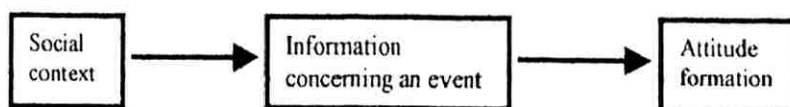


Figure 2.4 A Social-Information-Processing View of Attitudes

Source: Steers, R.M. & Black, J.S. (1994). Organisational Behaviour (5th ed.). New York: Harper Collins. P.85.

This view is supported by Whitaker when he noted that attitude is 'temporary props during phases of growth and learning' (Whitaker, 1995, p.64). This means that an individual's attitude is continuously open to modification through interaction between individuals.

2.10 Measurement of attitude towards Physical Education

Various techniques and instruments have been devised to measure attitudes which include method of ranking (Allport & Hartman, 1925, cited in Ng, 1995), multiple choice questions (Moore, 1941; Symonds, 1925), autobiographies (Murphy & Likert, cited in Hall & Linszey, 1957), projective tests, interviews, prolonged observations along with experimental methods (Murphy & Murphy, 1931) and scaling methods.

2.10.1 Scales for measuring attitude

A total of five generally accepted scaling methods have been used in the measurement of attitudes: Bogarius' social distance scale, Edward and Kilpatrick's scale-discrimination technique, Guttman's cumulative scale, Likert's method of

summated rating and Thurstone's equal- appearing intervals (Freedman, Carlsmith & sears, 1970).

The two most widely used and accepted methods were designed by Likert and Thurstone. Numerous attitude scales that purportedly measure attitude towards Physical Education include that of Adams (1963), Carr (1945), Edington (1965), Kappes (1954), Kneer (1956), Mercer (1961), O'Bryan & O'Bryan (1969), Penmon (1967), Seaman (1970) and Wear (1951 & 1955).

A search through the literature found that Wear's Physical Education Attitude Inventory (1955) is suitable for the present study because it is a carefully prepared instrument which has been repeatedly used to evaluate attitudes toward Physical Education. To date not less than 38 researchers have used this instrument which include one from Malaysia (Kee, 1995).

Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory which uses the Likert scales would meet this study's objectives most adequately. The advantage of the Likert scales for the measurement of attitude towards Physical Education was noted by Kahnert (1970) and Wear (1950):

1. There is no need for the attitude or opinion statements to have a pre-assigned value as each statement is a scale in itself.
2. The subject whose attitude is being measured simply selects one of five possible responses according to his own interpretation of the statement.
3. By assigning weights which range from one to five points, depending on whether the statement is worded positively or negatively, the total sum of the value given to all statements on the scale can be determined.

4. The degree of accuracy is equivalent to the more complex techniques developed by Thurstone.
5. The use of a large number of statements permits a wide sampling of attitude in a short period of time.
6. The use of short statements for the measurement of expressed attitude, especially towards Physical Education, has been found to be much more effective than the setting up of behaviour situations.

2.10.2 Related literature of attitudes toward Physical Education

2.10.2.1 Women's attitude towards Physical Education

Many early studies revealed that not all girls adjust to the school Physical Education programme with the same ease and speed (Carr, 1945). It was noted too that the girls do not learn at the same rate. With the assumption that attitude might be an effective factor in learning, the early determination of female freshmen attitude towards Physical Education could be used to overcome a student's difficulties in adjusting to the programme and help them make adjustments for better learning. In the same study, Carr examined the relationship among motor ability, success, and intelligence quotient. He found that there was a significant difference in the attitude towards Physical Education of a group judged as successful compared to a group judged as unsuccessful. Attitudes, intelligence and motor ability were the factors identified as important in determining success in Physical Education.

In another study of 300 female students' attitude towards Physical Education, Alden (1932) attempted to determine the least attractive factors in the required physical programme. One hundred girls from each of three schools representing different areas were studied. He found that the factors most often mentioned as creating unfavourable

attitudes were the inconvenience of dressing and undressing and not being allowed enough time for dressing.

Moore (1941) who studied the attitude of college women towards Physical Education at the University of California noted that they showed highly favourable attitude towards physical activity as a means of recreation but spent little time on it on the average.

In an effort to evaluate the Physical Education programme at the University of Michigan, Bell & Walters (1953) measured the attitude of college women taking the Physical Education course and seniors who had taken the required Physical Education course using Wear's scale. Results showed that 84% of freshmen and 80% of the seniors responded positively to social, physical and mental health.

Mista (1968) measured the attitude of 1126 first-year university women towards their high school Physical Education programmes to find out whether their attitude was related to background experiences. There was a significant difference in attitudes between the following groups: those earning athletic letters had more favourable attitudes than those who did not; those active in extra-curricular physical activity programmes favoured physical education compared to those who were not; those living on farms had more favourable attitude compared to those who were not.

This confirmed the earlier research findings by Bullock & Aden (1933). In examining 192 female first-year university students, they found that the students' attitudes towards Physical Education were influenced largely by childhood and school experiences in physical activity.

In a study using a Modified Wear Attitude Inventory to determine the attitude of college freshman and junior women towards the Physical Education programme at Northern Illinois University, Moyer, Mitchem and Bell (1966) revealed that there was a

similar, highly favourable attitudes toward the programme demonstrated by both freshmen and juniors.

Vincent (1967) administered the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory, Short Form A to 188 women college students at the University of Georgia. The results showed that there was favourable attitude towards Physical Education. The results also revealed that there was a significant relationship between expressed attitude and success in Physical Education activities. Attitude directed towards the questions measuring physiological-physical values received the most favourable scores.

At the University of Oklahoma, Kappes (1954) developed an attitude inventory composed of statements related to Physical Education and the services rendered to students by a Physical Education Department. The inventory measured student interest and estimated skill levels for various activities, general attitude towards Physical Education and facilities, equipment, instruction, gym costume, organisation and administration. Using the inventory on 90 freshman and sophomore women enrolled in Physical Education classes, he found that students need to be given the opportunity to develop satisfying skills in order to achieve 'carry over' attitude toward activity.

Bell and Walters (1953) measured attitudes of college women to evaluate the Physical Education programme at the University of Michigan. Attitudes were grouped into three components : social, physical and mental health. The sample consisted of 173 seniors who had taken required Physical Education course and 684 freshmen who enrolled in a Physical Education course. Results revealed that students expressed favourable response to all three components, indicating 'agree' or 'strongly agree' to the statements. The component of mental health had a more favourable response than the other two components with 84 percent of the seniors responding positively.

Plummer (1952) in a study using the Likert method on college women, found several factors affecting attitude towards Physical Education. Among those factors were physical appearance, previous athletic experience, facilities available and general environment factors.

Lemen (1962) developed and used a Semantic Differential Scale to assess the attitude of women from selected universities and colleges in the United States toward Physical Education and sports. The researcher examined the influence of a number of factors on students' attitude. Results indicated that the students expressed favourable attitude towards Physical Education and sports. Factors related to students attitude were reported to be enjoyment of high school Physical Education programme, participation in high school and college recreation associations and students' skill level. Further findings revealed that the university women preferred individual sports over team sports for leisure participation.

In another study, Birmingham (1972) used the Wear Attitude Inventory to compared the attitudes of 30 college women with coeducational Physical Education experiences and 60 students without. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups of college women.

Broer, Fox and Way (1955) studied the attitude towards Physical Education of 1, 149 college freshmen and sophomore women at the University of Washington, Seattle. The findings showed that the women had favourable attitude towards Physical Education. The most favourable attitudes were expressed by students who enrolled in tennis and swimming classes and the least favourable attitude were expressed by students in archery class.

Bain (1990) found in his research that female physical educators differ from their counterparts in several ways including social class, academic ability, attitude toward teaching and coaching, and degree of conservatism. These differences seem to derive from the complex ways in which sport and Physical Education relate to the social construction of gender.

In an attempt to examine potential determinants of male and female adolescents' attitudes toward Physical Education, Luke & Sinclair (1991) found that female students identified the same determinants in the same order of priority as their male counterparts. The five main determinants of attitude were identified in rank order: curriculum content, teacher behaviour, class atmosphere, student self-perceptions and facilities.

In another study, Steward, Green & Huelskamp (1991) found that overall, students felt the fitness, skill, and social domains were the important aspects of the Physical Education curriculum. This study revealed that the girls seemed to realize the importance of the fitness, skill, and social domains but do not value Physical Education as determined by their attitude of the affective domain. In other words, the girls knew the value of Physical Education but were negative toward the subject.

2.10.2.2 Male attitude towards Physical Education

Edgington (1968) used the Likert technique to develop a scale to study attitude.

In a study of attitude of high school boys towards Physical Education activities, he found that the majority of the boys indicated favourable attitude toward it. The results also showed that the instrument he developed was a valid and reliable scale to measure attitude of high school boys.

In another study, Stewart, Green and Huelskamp (1991) used the instrument developed by Edgington (1968) to study the attitude of school boys and girls towards Physical Education. The results revealed that, overall, students felt the fitness, skill and social domains are the important aspects of a Physical Education curriculum. The study noted that although girls realised the importance of fitness, skill and social domains but their attitude were not favourable and they did not value Physical Education. On the contrary, the boys seemed to like Physical Education significantly more than the girls. However, the boys attitudes toward the value of Physical Education decreased significantly with age. The boys apparently found the activities in the Physical Education programme fun but did not feel that they contributed to the objectives of fitness, skill, cognitive and social domains as do the girls.

Campbell (1968) studied the attitude of 199 college males at the University of Texas using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory, Short Form A. The study was conducted to analyse student response to specific statements and selected descriptive information. This study was to determine whether male college students were different in their attitude towards Physical Education as a result of Physical Education experience, the duration of high school attendance or the nature of their academic interests. Results showed no significant variations in attitude concerning Physical Education as predicted by size of school attended, areas of academic interest or preference of physical activities.

Nelson (1948), in a study with the high school boys, found that there is a difference in attitude between students enrolled in Physical Education course and those

who take Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC). The results of the study showed that those who attended Physical Education classes had a more favourable attitude towards Physical Education, athletics, games and competitions.

In a study of attitude towards Physical Education of 648 male junior college students at Stanford University, Cutler (1958) found that students' attitude towards Physical Education was positive and that students with previous athletic experience showed a very favourable attitude.

Brumbach and Cross (1965) studied the attitude of male students at the University of Oregon towards Physical Education using Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory. The findings revealed that the male students had favourable attitude towards Physical Education. In addition, the findings also indicated that the attitude improved with the increased number of years that Physical Education was taken in high school. Similarly students' attitudes also improved when they enrolled in a smaller high school where the enrolment was under 300. Other findings revealed that competitive athletic experience had a positive effect on student attitude.

Brumbach (1968) studied the effect of a special conditioning class on attitude of male university students towards Physical Education using Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory. The students attended various physical activities which focused on concepts as well as personalised approach of teachers. He found substantial increase of students' attitude scores after 10 week course.

2.10.2.3 The effect of gender on attitude towards Physical Education

Mowatt, DePauw & Hulac (1988) in a study to examine differences in attitude by gender found that females generally exhibited positive attitude towards physical

activities compared to males. Females indicated that maintaining good physical condition was more worth the effort than males.

The observation was supported by Call (1975) who examined the attitudes of University of Kentucky undergraduate Physical Education major students found that sex influenced attitude. Female students scored higher on the attitude scale than male students.

However, Carrol found converse findings. Carrol (1977) developed and used an attitude survey instrument to compare attitudes of 530 male and female students from three campuses of the Pennsylvania State University. The students had spent more than a term in Physical Education and had completed the three credits required for graduation. The findings revealed that the students had favourable attitude towards the basic Physical Education instructional programme at the university. However, it was found that sex had no influence on students' attitude towards the Physical Education instructional programme.

Carrol's findings were supported by Keogh. In a study to identify the influence of gender on attitude, Keogh (1963) studied 266 men and women students using Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory. Results indicated that there was no evidence to show that the attitude towards Physical Education was influence by sex. Results also showed that non-participation in Physical Education was the reason for students who did not participate to show a negative attitude towards physical education. However, both men and women students demonstrated favourable attitudes toward social, emotional and physical values sub-scales.

Similarly, Cheek (1971) using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory found the same results in his study of attitude of freshmen and female students toward

Physical Education as a required subject at the North Carolina Central University. The findings revealed that sex did not affect the expressed positive attitude. On the contrary the students believed Physical Education to be a worthwhile aspect of curriculum.

Williams & O' Neill (1983) studied attitudes of 5101 Form I and Form IV boys and girls of New Zealand school students toward Physical Education. The results showed that there were no differences in attitude between Form IV boys and girls. However, it was also revealed that Form I boys scored higher attitude marks as compared to the girls.

Similar results were obtained by Liverman (1981) when he studied attitude of Illinois State University students toward intercollegiate athletics and found that sex had no effect on students' attitudes. Nevertheless, it was also reported that in general students had favourable attitude toward intercollegiate athletics.

In another study of 180 New Zealand Form 3, 4 and 5 high school students, Adams (1955 cited in Williams & Nelson, 1983) found that there was no sex difference in attitudes of the students. However, it was reported that Form 5 girls had a significantly more positive attitudes than Form 5 boys. Nevertheless, Williams & Nelson (1983) noted that the interpretation was limited by the presence of confounding factors such as class size and the amount of Physical Education.

Using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory, Organ (1976) investigated attitude of Howard University liberal arts students toward Physical Education. The results revealed that all students had favourable attitudes toward physical education and sex had no effect on attitudes.

Hammond (1981) confirmed the findings of Keogh (1963) and Cheek (1971). Hammond compared the attitude of undergraduate male and female students who took

required Physical Education with those who took elective Physical Education courses. The results showed that sex was not a factor in students' positive attitude towards Physical Education. The findings also revealed that there was no significant difference between the mean attitude scores of the two student groups. Similar results were reported by Czelusniak (1981).

Brumbach (1968) investigated the effect of a special conditioning class on student attitude towards Physical Education. Students of Oregon University who achieved low scores in a physical fitness test at the beginning of the school year were forced to take developmental Physical Education. The results obtained using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory conducted at the beginning and at the end of the year indicated that the conditioning class influenced the students' attitudes favourably.

Similar positive results were obtained by Williams & Nelson. Williams & Nelson (1983) studied the attitude towards Physical Education of 814 high school boys and girls from Dunedin, New Zealand. They found that the attitudes of the boys and girls were generally favourable. Their findings also revealed that in co-educational schools, Form 3 students had more positive attitude compared to the 5th formers. However, the results also confirmed that there was no form differences in the girls' schools.

In another study, Busch (1981) used the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the Kenyon Attitude Toward Physical Activity Questionnaire to compare the attitudes of 851 males and females toward participation in Physical Education courses at the Oklahoma State University. The results showed no significant difference toward physical activity in terms of social experience, catharsis and ascetics. Conversely significant differences existed in the attitudes toward physical activity for aesthetics,

health and fitness, and the pursuit of vertigo.

Luke and Sinclair (1991) in an attempt to investigate the potential determinants of male and female adolescents toward Physical Education found that male and female students identified the same determinants. The five main determinants, listed in order, were curriculum content, teacher behaviour, classroom atmosphere, student self-perceptions and facilities.

In Malaysia very few studies on attitude towards Physical Education have been reported. However, the studies below could at least provide some insight. In a study of the attitudes of 74 boys and 86 girls secondary school students toward Physical Education, Nor Azizah Alias (1990) found that the students have positive attitudes toward Physical Education. In addition, the study showed no statistical significance in attitudes between the genders, age-group, ethnic groups and socio-economic status of the students.

Teh (1992) in a study of perceptions of secondary school students toward the Physical Education programme revealed that there was a significant difference in perception toward Physical Education between the genders.

2.10.2.4 Attitude change

Zaichkowsky (1973) measured the attitude change of students enrolled in required Physical Education programmes at the University of Toledo and Bowling Green State University using the Kenyon Multidimensional Attitude Scale. Results revealed no significant change of attitude after ten weeks of Physical Education classes and there was no significant relationship between the cognitive measure and the affective and behaviour components of attitude.

However positive results were observed by Underwood. Underwood (1989) carried out a study of change of student attitudes toward Physical Education following enrolment in Physical Education course at the University of Tennessee. His study consisted of 119 students enrolled in a Physical Education course and 128 students taking other subjects as a control group. Pre-test and post- test of the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory were administered at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The findings of the study confirmed that the experimental group demonstrated a significant change of attitude in the social, emotional and general areas and the improvement in post test scores were significant too. It was shown that there was a significantly higher positive effect in the social area for females when compared to males. In addition, greater effect was found in juniors and seniors as compared to freshmen and sophomores in the three areas of physical, social and emotion.

In another study, Ali Soltani (1983) compared freshman and senior college students' attitudes toward a required Physical Education course. The sample was 157 freshman and seniors from colleges or universities within the city of San Diego. The scores showed that a significant, favourable attitudes exist among students toward Physical Education classes. Senior students' attitudes were significantly more favourable as compared to freshmen attitudes. Further, there were more favourable responses from the social science students compared to the science students' attitudes. The study also confirmed that factors such as age, marital status, race, sex, number of Physical Education units completed or type of Physical Education programme showed no significant difference in students' attitudes toward Physical Education.

Corbin and Chevette (1974) used Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory to study the attitude of 596 male freshman college students before and after a lecture-laboratory Physical Education course. The findings showed a favourable attitude in two sub-scales that is general and the mental-emotional. The study showed no significant change in two sub-scales that is the physiological-physical and the social.

2.10.2.5 Effect of Teacher Factor On Students' Attitude Towards Physical Education

Figley (1985) in an attempt to identify potential causal determinants of students' attitude towards Physical Education, found that the items most frequently identified in relation to both positive and negative attitudes were related to the teacher and curriculum. Figley further suggested that perhaps the students' attitudes toward Physical Education evolved from a complex interaction of students, teachers, content and instruction. Teachers were said to exert profound influence on variables such as curriculum and learning atmosphere.

Luke and Cope (1994) concurred with Figley's findings. Their study of students' attitudes toward teacher behaviour and programme content in Physical Education programme found that the students could be a useful source of information for teachers and others who were responsible for the improvement in the teaching of Physical Education and Physical Education programme development.

In a study of the attitudes of elementary school children toward various aspects

of school, Clarke (1971) found that the Physical Education teacher was identified as the second most popular figure on campus and was only surpassed by the students' current classroom teacher.

In a similar study, Rice (1988) examined high school students' attitudes toward personal health and fitness, Physical Education and Physical Education teachers. The findings revealed that 75 percent of students regarded their Physical Education teachers as good role models. The most appreciated quality of Physical Education teachers was friendliness and the most disliked was the fact that teachers do not participate in activities. However Mista (1966) found that, that type of teacher had no relationship with students attitudes when he investigated the relationship among some factors and attitude of 1126 college women at the State University of Iowa.

Another study noted that teaching methods do influence attitude. McAfee (1955) who studied the sportsmanship attitudes among sixth, seventh and eighth grade boys found a progressive deterioration of attitudes. This seemed to indicate that in order to alter the trend, there was a need for some revision of teaching methods. This emphasised the assumption that attitudes could be modified through teaching objectives.

2.10.2.6 Attitude of Administrators Towards Physical Education

Tompkins and Roe (1958) studied the attitudes of principals toward interscholastic athletics for junior high school students. The results indicated that 78 percent of 2300 principals had favourable attitudes. The reasons for favourable attitudes were listed as the emphasis on desirable social conduct and social adjustment, the development of school spirit, sportsmanship and the teaching of teamwork.

In another study McGee (1956) investigated the attitudes of parents, teachers and administrators in certain areas in Illinois and Iowa toward intensive competition for female high school students. The results showed that there were favourable attitudes toward athletics competition for girls. The most favourable attitudes were demonstrated by coaches and parents and the least favourable attitude was shown by administrators and other school staff.

A number of local studies showed that administrators attitude towards Physical Education left much to be desired. Their actions demonstrated that they have negative attitude towards Physical Education.

In a study of Physical Education teaching in 24 schools in the district of Klang, Selangor, the Federal Inspectorate of Schools (1982) reported that administrators have negative attitudes toward the teaching of Physical Education. These negative attitudes were revealed in the report that 70 percent of the schools lacked basic equipment for

gymnastics and athletics and 40 percent of the schools lacked games facilities. Similarly in another study in 1990, the Federal Inspectorate of Schools found that 11 schools lacked reference materials such as syllabuses and guide books.

Daud Salleh (1985) in a study of implementation of Physical Education in schools in the District of Bachok, Kelantan, found that administrators had negative attitudes toward Physical Education. It was noted that administrators failed to understand the importance of Physical Education in physical, mental and psychology development of children. He also found that administrators allocated few periods each to teachers teaching Physical Education. These findings is supported in a report by Teacher Training Division, Ministry of Education of Malaysia (1995) that 71.4% of Physical Education teachers were given few Physical Education period in order to fulfil the total number of teaching period. Similarly the Federal Inspectorate of Schools (1990) reported in their study of 11 secondary schools that the majority of Physical Education teachers were given Physical Education periods to make up the total number of teaching periods. This undoubtedly affect the attitude of teachers toward Physical Education.

The negative attitudes of administrators were again clearly demonstrated in their inability to provide appropriate training for Physical Education teachers. Mohd. Sani (1979) and Sukumaran (1984) noted that there is a lack of foresight from administrators and that was further aggravated by the fact that the administrators were unsure of the Physical Education programmes and were not confident to provide professional contribution to teachers. Similarly, Federal Inspectorate of Schools (1988) found that

75.9 percent of principals did not focus on planning and administration of the Staff Development Programmes in their respective schools. This is substantiated by Normar Ali (1998) that 75.2 percent of Physical Education teachers never attended any Physical Education course since teaching the subject.

2.10.2.7 Attitude of teachers toward Physical Education

According to Macdonald & Brooker (1997) and Rink (1992), the secondary school Physical Education programmes are in crisis and are endangered due to uncertainties about focus, status, accountability and failure to meet students' needs. These uncertainties seriously affected attitudes of teachers toward Physical Education.

In an earlier study of attitudes of teachers toward Physical Education, Vellappan (1977) studied primary school teachers' attitude changes through in-service training in Physical Education. He found that there were no significant differences in attitude change among teachers of different qualifications. However there were marginally significant differences in attitude change of 'Appreciation of values and priorities in Physical Education'.

In another study in Malaysia, Moreland (1994) noted that the time allotment for Physical Education is squeezed to enable more time to be allocated to other academic subjects. As such the subject is given a lesser value tag (Abd. Rashid, 1997).

Darinda Asari (1990) in her study of problems in Physical Education curriculum conducted in two schools in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia found that attitude of teachers played a leading role in achieving success in the implementation of Physical Education curriculum. She found that positive attitudes among Physical Education teachers lead to high commitment which resulted in maximum results in teaching and learning process of Physical Education.

Gillam (1986 cited in Deborah et al., 1994) in a study noted that 90 percent of Physical Education teachers believed Physical Education to be relevant and useful in later life and that there was a need for Physical Education in the school curricula.

In another local study, Zaiwiah Abas (1993) found that Physical Education teachers have positive perceptions toward secondary school Physical Education. Zaiwiah's findings showed that teachers believed Physical Education program's objective and content are appropriate and related to students' life after schooling years. Further, it was found that ninety percent of Physical Education teachers believed that school Physical Education programmes help produce individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced.

In a study conducted the District of Marang, Kuala Terengganu, Normah Ali (1998) found that only 4.5 percent of the teachers applied to teach Physical Education and 35 percent of the Physical Education majors shied away from teaching Physical

Education. This study undoubtedly showed negative attitudes of teachers toward Physical Education.

Goc-Karp, Kim and Skinner (1985) found in a study that teachers attitudes toward Physical Education may be affected by the low status accorded to Physical Education and the views of other subjects teachers attitudes that Physical Education is 'easy going' and 'a waste of time'.

In fact Ministry of Education (1990) reported that the attitude of teachers may be due to the fact that they do not understand the National Education Philosophy, the aims of National Education, Secondary School Integrated Curriculum and translate these three elements into Physical Education.

2.10.2.8 Experience in Physical Education and physical activity and the attitude towards Physical Education

As early as 1933, Bullock & Alden in their study of 192 first-year university female students, found that the attitude towards Physical Education was largely determined by childhood and school experiences in physical activity . Through questionnaires requested responses to three specific categories: home life and early play experience, high school physical education experience, and current Physical Education experience, Bullock & Alden reported that 64 percent students indicated they like Physical Education in high school. 89 percent stated that they like Physical Education at the university. It was also revealed that 25 percent students changed their

attitudes from 'dislike' to 'like' after they enrolled in Physical Education courses. However, it was noted two students who favour Physical Education in high school felt otherwise at the university.

Using Edginton Attitude Scale, Czelusniak (1981) investigated the relationship of high school experience and the attitudes toward Physical Education. The sample consisted of 472 freshmen from the University of Maryland. Results indicated that participation in intercollegiate athletics, involvement in the planning and selection of Physical Education programmes and Physical Education experience in college had an influence on students' favourable attitudes. However, Miller (1974) found in his study that there was no significant relationship between Physical Education experience and attitude towards Physical Education.

In another study, Yandell (1966) assessed the attitudes of freshmen women enrolled in a required course on foundation Physical Education at the Texas Lutheran College. The study focussed on the relationship between high school athletic experience, Physical Education experience and attitudes toward Physical Education. The results revealed that there was a positive relationship between the factors. Similarly, Harres (1968) in a study of the attitudes of female undergraduate students at the University of California, Santa Babara, toward athletic competition found that participation in competitive athletics influenced the students' attitudes favourably.

Using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory, Amos (1977) studied

the attitudes of 100 female college students toward Physical Education. The subjects studied had enrolled at least in one Physical Education course. The findings showed that Physical Education past experience was a factor in the positive attitudes of students toward Physical Education. Similar results were obtained by McDonald. McDonald (1970) investigated the attitudes of university freshmen at selected institutions using a self-constructed instrument. The subjects were grouped as participants and non-participants in physical activity. Results showed that students who participated in physical activity had more favourable attitudes toward physical recreation and Physical Education.

In a similar study at Lamar State College of Technology, Scopelitis (1972) found that despite having favourable attitude towards Physical Education, there was no evidence to show that the attitude towards Physical Education was influenced by participation in physical activity and skill level.

Another study by Mequi revealed some interesting results. Mequi (1970) investigated attitude of male university students towards Physical Education at the University of Oregon. Results indicated that previous participation in sports had an influence on the students' attitudes. In addition it was found that students with extreme positive attitudes were more successful in Physical Education activities.

In a study to assess the relationship between a number of factors and attitude of two groups of Ramapo College students towards Physical Education, Hartman (1979) found some positive results. The results revealed that participation in varsity

level physical activity and high school Physical Education courses had a positive influence on the attitude of students towards Physical Education. Male students possessed better attitudes as compared to female students.

In a study on the effect of courses on attitude, Dutchie (1969) investigated the effects of two courses : Basic Instruction and Physical Activity Foundation Programme on the attitude of college freshmen towards physical activity. The results revealed that more favourable attitudes were shown by students after attending the two courses at the end of the term. However, the type of course had no influence on the attitude of students towards Physical Education. On the contrary, Johnson (1972) using the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory to study the difference in the attitude of male students at Brigham Young University, found that Physical Education course taken had no effect on students attitude.

Murray (1969) studied the relationship between school Physical Education experience and attitude towards Physical Education. Subjects were male freshmen of East Texas State University and Louisiana Polytechnic. The Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory was used. Results indicated that high school Physical Education experience was related to students' attitude towards Physical Education activity classes. However, Zafra (1971) in a study of attitude of Western Kentucky University students towards Physical Education found that Physical Education experience had no influence on the attitude of students towards Physical Education.

Similarly, Mista (1968) studied 1126 first-year university students and found some evidence that there was no differences in the attitude between those students who had high school Physical Education experiences and those who had not. In addition, there was also no significant difference in the attitudes of those who had two hours per week and those who had four hours per week of Physical Education.

Similarly, other researchers (Brunbach & Cross, 1965, Burns et al., 1973; Carr, 1945; Young, 1970) found positive results in the participation of physical activity on the attitude towards Physical Education. On the contrary, no relationships were reported by Campbell (1969) and Keogh (1963).

In a longitudinal study on attitudes toward physical activity, Barrel and Holt (1982) studied three groups of Physical Education students undergoing teacher training. The results showed that there was a change in the attitude of the students over a period of three years.

2.10.2.9 The effect of academic level on the attitude towards Physical Education

Thornburg (1967) surveyed the attitude of female students from selected universities across the United States Of America. The results showed that academic level was not related to attitude.

In another study, DeVrye (1973) investigated the attitude of University of Montana students towards Physical Education. The students were Physical Education majors and the instrument used was the Wear Attitude Inventory. The findings

revealed that there was no relationship between junior and senior students' academic level and their positive attitude towards Physical Education.

Moyer et al. (1966) used the Wear Physical Education Attitude Inventory to study the attitude of freshmen and junior female students at the Northern Illinois University towards the required Physical Education. The students demonstrated favourable attitude towards Physical Education and the academic levels of students had no effect on the attitude towards Physical Education.

2.10.2.10 The effect of age on attitude towards Physical Education

Some studies did show that age influences attitudes towards Physical Education. Zafra (1971) examined the attitude of Western Kentucky University students and found that there was a positive increase of attitude scores with age. However, Brumbach & Cross (1965) and Campbell (1968b) found no difference between the older and the young ones.

Similarly, Williams & O'Neill (1983) in their study of the attitude of New Zealand school students towards Physical Education found that the attitude was generally favourable. A detailed examination revealed that younger students provided higher attitude scores than older students.

Haladyna & Thomas (1979) in a study of the attitude of school children towards school and school subjects found that there was a decline in positive attitude towards Physical Education after the age of 11 years. This confirmed the findings by Hendry (1986) that the eagerness to participate in Physical Education seems to decline as

students reach school-leaving age.

Bell, Walters & Staff (1953) in a study which compared the attitude of younger and older female students towards Physical Education, found that younger students had a more favourable attitude towards Physical Education. Stricklin (1973) found similar results.

Adams (1955) found that the attitude of girls towards Physical Education became more favourable with seniority which boys showed the opposite trend. However, King (1994) revealed that younger female students displayed significant positive attitude towards Physical Education than male students but the reverse was true after the age of 14.

King's finding was supported by Baker. Baker (1969) in a study of female students attitude towards Physical Education in the George Peabody College for Teachers, Virginia found that attitude towards Physical Education decreases with age. Similar results were obtained by Prince (1969) in a comparative study of the attitude of first and fourth year secondary school boys and girls. These results were confirmed by Fawcett (1977, cited in Williams & O'Neill, 1983) in her research 'Trend in Adolescent Attitudes Toward School Physical Education. However, Williams & Nelson (1983) cautioned that the presence of confounding factors should be considered in the interpretation of the results.

In relation to possible adverse effect of Physical Education, Gould & Horn (1984) and other researchers (Roberts, 1984; Whitehead, 1987, cited in A. Rashid, 1997) revealed that the drop-out rates among children in competitive sports outside school start at 11 to 12 years of age or in some cases at the age of 14 (Van Wersch et al., 1982, cited in A. Rashid, 1997).

2.10.2.11 The relationship of school location and attitude toward Physical Education

With regard to geographical location, some conflicting results were obtained from some studies.

Mista (1968) in a study of attitude of 1126 female first-year university students towards their high school Physical Education programmes indicated that those who came from rural areas had a more favourable attitude towards Physical Education. Similarly, favourable attitude towards Physical Education were also revealed from those who had been in small classes.

The favourable attitude of rural students towards Physical Education was supported by Jubela (1973, cited in Williams & O'Neill, 1983) in the study which involved high school students. The research evidence suggested that students from rural areas have a more positive attitude towards Physical Education compared to the urban students. On the contrary, Burris, Faust and Felshin (1973) found no differences in attitude towards Physical Education between those who attended urban schools and that of rural schools.

Williams and O'Neill (1983) found that the attitude of New Zealand school pupils towards Physical Education supported earlier findings that rural students demonstrated a more positive attitude towards Physical Education as compared to their urban counterparts.

However Milburn (1968, cited in Williams & O'Neill, 1983) in a survey of Physical Education preferences indicated that differences exist in the way rural subjects view the Physical Education curriculum. This may be the reason why there are differences in attitude towards Physical Education.