

To Study out the Significant Differences of Attitude towards Physical Education and Sports between Rural and Urban Secondary School Students

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ABSTRACT

The challenge to education is not only to pass on knowledge of culture, but also teach for transfer by helping students to generalize their behaviour through commitment and responsibility according to their perception of that knowledge. This challenge today is becoming more difficult as complex lifestyles become increasingly less effective in promoting this transmission in the human race. Unlike past generations when crisis occurred only occasionally, modern human beings live with crises daily economic, political, social, ecological, both at home and worldwide. Physical Education has vital role for total development of a child. Physical education has become a subject study at “Madhyamik Pariksha” in Uttarakhand of Secondary Education. It has become also a subject of study at degree level under different Universities of the state. This education is indicated by the increasing opportunity for advanced study in this field. It is a growing field and to be more scientific this can be comparable to other advanced fields. It is an integral part of total education process. Physical education is a cross section study of man, not a longitudinal one and it is one of the most important part of school level programme. Attitude is an attractive concept in physical education because it reflects an individual’s previous experiences with particular attitude objects associated with physical education.

KEYWORD: *Physical Education, Secondary Education, Experiences, Human Race*

INTRODUCTION

The way that sports and physical education are applied has changed significantly in the modern world. Physical education is one stage of the entire educational process, and it uses the natural abilities of each person to help them grow intellectually, emotionally, neuromuscularly, and biologically, according to Nash (1953). Every time physical education activities are held in locations like the playground, gym, or swimming pool, these results are achieved.

The holistic development of the human personality or full living is the goal of physical education. A leading expert in physical education, in William's opinion, should strive to offer competent leadership, sufficient facilities, and plenty of time for individuals and groups to engage in physically healthy, intellectually challenging, and socially sound activities. (Sarangal and Kamlesh, 1991)

A child's physical, mental, and emotional well-being as well as the development of social and personal skills that enable him to coexist peacefully with others and become a decent citizen should be the goals of physical education. In a broad sense, the phrase "objectives" refers to the goals, purposes, and results that are intended to be achieved by taking part in the physical education program.

Put another way, engaging in physical activities under the guidance of an expert has positive effects on individuals. We refer to these results as aims. Henry and Clarke (1961) In 1961, Clarke and Henry suggested three goals for physical education.

1. Physical well-being
2. Efficiency in Society
3. Culture.

According to Clarke's physical fitness goals, a person is considered to be in a condition of physical fitness when they have established a high level of endurance and are capable of carrying out their duties to the best of their abilities. Being physically healthy is a must for living a contented, active, and prosperous life in a group. This encompasses responsibility, initiative, teamwork, loyalty, and sportsmanship.

According to Clarke and Henry (1961), culture's third goal is to foster a deeper awareness and respect for one's own immediate surroundings. One gains knowledge of the moral and aesthetic values of different nations by taking part in dance, games, and sports. Additionally, Clarke has documented goals for girls. These include one's own beauty and appearance, interpersonal relationships, and pleasure of leisure activities.

The general and specific goals of physical education are divided into five categories by Cowell and Schwehn (1961).

1. Natural Power.
2. The capacity to continue exerting adaptive effort.
3. The coordination of muscles and neurons.
4. Adjustments and Personal, Social Attitudes.
5. Intellectual and interpretive growth.
6. Feeling reactions.

In order to withstand exhaustion, they talk about the organic development of strength and endurance. According to their definition, neuromuscular development entails the development of general motor abilities, game and movement rhythm, and particular game and sport skills. In terms of social and personal attitude and adjustment, they refer to the growth of self-confidence, social poise, and a sense of belonging. Additionally, the intellectual and interpretative developments speak to the capacity for problem-solving and thought. Ultimately, these emotional reactions allow a person to appreciate and find fulfillment in the numerous obstacles that come with developing physical skills.

NEED OF THE STUDY:

Sports and physical education play an important role at the individual, community, national and global levels. For the individual, they improve their personal skills, general health and self-knowledge. At the national level, they contribute to economic and social growth, to the improvement of public health and to unite the different communities, essential values and life skills of physical education and sports teachers, including self-confidence, work in team, communication, inclusion, discipline, respect and fair play. Sports and physical education also have psychological benefits, such as reducing depression and improving concentration. Regular physical activity is linked to good health, a better life and a lower risk of heart disease, high blood pressure, diabetes, obesity and some types of cancer. Current recommendations are for children to connect in at least sixty minutes of physical activity from that moment in school. Physical education should be an essential part of this need and does more than offer a few minutes of moderate vigorous activity. It also exposes students to natural life activities and teaches them how to integrate exercise into their lives. As obesity rates continue to rise at the crossroads of the country in the early days, there is public support for greater physical education in schools. A study by Opinion Research Corporation International for the National Association of Sports and Physical Education (NASPE) in 2003 indicated that 81% of adults believe that daily physical education should be mandatory in schools.

Connecting the importance of physical activities that sports participation in general is positively related to the development of physical, psychological and physiological well-being and that people who perform activities in various ways in such activities lend themselves to signaling a higher level of emotional well-being, satisfaction with life, perceived happiness and physical fitness. Sports are a useful way to stay physically active outside of school, but they also have many other benefits. Research studies at Michigan State University show that students who play sports and physical activity tend to improve in school and are less likely to be involved in drug and alcohol abuse. Studies also recommend that playing sports can improve a child's social skills by promoting a belonging brain. "Sport" is a common name and generally refers to a series of activities, processes, social relationships and physical, psychological and sociological results. This activity includes individual, team, contact and contactless sports; motor-dominated sports; Different emphasis on strategy, physical possibilities and lively, purely recreational skills and activities.

OBJECTIVE (S) /NEED OF STUDY

1. To study out the significant differences of attitude towards physical education and sports between rural and urban Secondary school students.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Castilho and Lahr (2001) investigated the secular trend in height and weight in metropolitan Brazilian children. Between 1997 and 1998, 7878 children and adolescents from Sao Paulo, Brazil, had their anthropometric measures taken. Data from an earlier study conducted in 1978 were compared with the anthropometric measures of the children. Among children and adolescents, there were significant secular trends in height and weight. In addition, there were no

development deficiencies among the children and adolescents in the 1997 and 1998 samples when compared to the NCHS/WHO worldwide norms.

The anthropometric measurements of girls in Sagar district, Madhya Pradesh, who lived in rural and urban areas were compared by Adak et al. (2002). Six anthropometric measurements, including height, weight, sitting height, and the circumferences of the upper arms, head, and chest, were taken of each participant. According to the findings, the urban girls' height, weight, sitting height, and chest circumference were all noticeably greater than those of the rural girls. Compared to urban females, rural girls had significantly larger head and upper arm circumferences. For both rural and urban girls, the greatest growth occurs in all six anthropometric measurements between the ages of 13 and 14.

Using anthropometric data, Bharati et al. (2005) investigated the nutritional status of schoolchildren in the Raichur district. A total of 560 children from both urban and rural locations had their height, weight, and mid-upper arm circumference assessed for this study. The findings demonstrated that children's nutritional status was below the NCHS criterion in both urban and rural settings. Compared to the girls, the boys had reported far higher anthropometric measurements. The anthropometric measurements of the urban youngsters were found to be substantially higher than those of the rural children. Compared to urban settings, the proportion of wasted and stunted children was higher in rural areas.

An investigation into the anthropometric measurements of 75 Kashmiri infants from Jammu, Jammu, and Kashmir was carried out by Bisati and Bhan in 2005. The individuals' height, weight, and the circumferences of their heads, chests, and midarms were measured. The ICMR standards were compared with the data of children's anthropometric measures. Kashmiri newborns' weight, height, and midarm circumference exceeded ICMR guidelines, but girls' chest and head circumference were similar to ICMR guidelines.

All of the boys' anthropometric measures fell short of the ICMR requirements. With the exception of the 12–18 month age range, girls were shown to be much taller and heavier than males. All age groups showed a strong correlation between height and weight, with the exception of those aged 3-6 and 12-15 months. In all age groups, there was a relationship between the chest and head circumferences, but in infants aged 6 to 9 months, there was a positive correlation.

A study by Dapi et al. (2005) aimed to compare and explain the dietary habits and nutritional status of teens in Cameroon. An unquantified dietary frequency questionnaire and anthropometric data were used to study 52 schoolchildren, ages 12 to 15, in both rural and urban regions. The study's findings demonstrated that urban youngsters consumed much more vegetables, cereals, meat, milk products, and junk food than their rural counterparts. Compared to children in rural areas, children in urban areas were found to eat between meals far more frequently. When compared to urban children, the rural children's hip/waist ratio and arm muscle area were noticeably larger. Although the difference was not statistically significant, the body mass index of the rural children was higher than that of the urban children. In both urban and rural locations, there was a substantial positive association between body mass index and arm muscle area. Despite eating less frequently, rural youth had larger arm muscles and a higher hip/waist ratio than urban teenagers.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It will be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. The study highlights the methodology and process used to conduct the present research, the objectives and the procedures of the study. When appropriately conducted, research reduces any kind of ambiguity and brings clarity to the result and thus becomes helpful for the study to plan its goals and objectives accordingly. The attitude towards student participation in physical education and sports will be positive. It is a mistake to think that students lose their femininity by participating in sports.

The motivation provided by participation in sports reinforces self-discipline in the performance of good healthy practices and can lead to a more dynamic femininity. The research results showed that women shall more motivate than male students to participate in physical education and sports for aesthetic and social reasons and catharsis. The attitude of parents towards physical education influences the attitude of students towards active participation in sport. The socioeconomic status of parents and their lifestyle also influences students to participate in physical education and sports programs in Secondary school.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

The subjects shall near about 5000 (Five thousand) of 17 districts of Uttarakhand. In this study subjects shall from different categories of people such as teachers (male and female), guardians (male and female), day labourers, and business people and office goers, living in rural and urban areas in Uttarakhand.

RESULT AND DATA INTERPRETATION

Table 4.1: Comparison of upper arm length between rural and urban boys

Age Group	Rural (N=2500)		Urban (N=2500)		t- Value
	Mean (cm)	SD	Mean (cm)	SD	
12 years	24.30	2.28	22.30	1.62	3.72**
13 years	26.20	3.01	23.06	2.26	4.48**
14 years	26.90	2.39	24.23	2.04	4.52**
15 years	27.96	2.84	25.30	2.83	3.51**
16 years	28.33	3.03	27.40	2.57	1.24
17 years	30.20	2.47	30.03	2.02	1.94

** indicates $p < 0.01$

The upper arm lengths of the urban and rural boys. According to the table, boys from rural areas had considerably longer upper arms ($t=3.72$, $p < 0.05$) than their urban counterparts in the 12-year-old age group. In the 13-year-old age group, boys from rural areas had considerably longer upper arms than boys from urban areas ($t = 4.52$, $p < 0.01$). The upper arm length of the rural boys was substantially longer than that of the urban boys in the 14-year-old age group ($t = 4.52$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, when comparing rural and urban boys in the 15-year-old age group, it was discovered that the former had considerably longer upper arms ($t = 3.51$, $p < 0.01$). However, there were no discernible differences between the rural and urban boys in terms of upper arm length in the 16 and 17-year-old age groups.

Table 4.2: Comparison of lower arm length between rural and urban boys

Age Group	Rural (N=2500)		Urban (N=2500)		t- Value
	Mean (cm)	SD	Mean (cm)	SD	
12 years	35.90	3.36	36.26	3.34	0.71
13 years	40.43	3.23	37.56	4.63	1.74
14 years	40.86	3.74	37.56	3.33	2.44*
15 years	40.66	3.09	38.76	3.01	2.33*
16 years	41.76	2.84	40.40	2.58	1.87
17 years	42.33	2.28	41.86	2.18	0.77

* indicates $p < 0.05$

Table the lower arm lengths of the boys from the rural and urban areas. According to the table, there was no discernible variation in lower arm length between the boys from rural and urban areas in the 12-year-old age group. There was no discernible difference between 13-year-old boys from rural and urban areas in terms of lower arm length. In contrast to urban boys, the rural boys in the 14-year-old age group had considerably longer lower arms ($t = 2.44$, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, the lower arm length of the rural boys was substantially longer than that of the urban boys in the 15-year-old age group ($t = 2.33$, $p < 0.05$). However, there were no discernible differences between the rural and urban boys in terms of lower arm length in the 16 and 17-year-old age groups.

Table 4.3: Comparison of total leg length between rural and urban boys

Age Group	Rural (N=2500)		Urban (N=2500)		t- Value
	Mean (cm)	SD	Mean (cm)	SD	
12 years	80.53	6.37	77.00	6.35	1.51
13 years	80.40	6.06	78.56	7.70	1.01
14 years	82.30	9.75	80.30	5.77	1.43
15 years	85.76	10.16	82.80	5.51	1.38
16 years	87.46	6.43	83.86	6.32	2.13*
17 years	92.06	5.56	87.93	6.49	3.23**

Table show the overall leg length of the boys from the rural and urban areas. According to the table, there was no discernible variation in the overall leg length of the boys from rural and urban areas in the 12-year-old age group. Similarly, there were no appreciable differences in overall leg length between boys aged 13, 14, and 15 who lived in rural and urban areas. In contrast to urban boys, rural boys were found to have considerably longer legs overall ($t = 2.13, p < 0.05$) in the 16-year-old age group. In the 17-year-old age group, the overall leg length of the rural boys was similarly considerably longer than that of the urban boys ($t = 3.23, p < 0.01$).

Table 4.4: Comparison of upper leg length between rural and urban boys

Age Group	Rural (N=2500)		Urban (N=2500)		t- Value
	Mean (cm)	SD	Mean (cm)	SD	
12 years	36.20	3.36	34.40	4.57	1.69
13 years	36.46	4.01	36.26	4.67	1.04
14 years	38.13	6.52	36.03	3.30	2.27*
15 years	38.53	5.32	37.10	3.30	1.22
16 years	40.40	4.43	38.86	4.05	1.36
17 years	42.40	4.27	40.16	3.40	3.15**

* indicates $p < 0.05$, ** indicates $p < 0.001$

The upper leg lengths of the urban and rural boys. There were no appreciable differences in upper leg length between the boys from rural and urban areas in the 12 and 13 age groups. In contrast to urban boys, the rural boys were found to have considerably longer upper legs ($t = 2.27, p < 0.05$) in the 14-year-old age group. There were no discernible differences between the rural and urban boys in the 15–16 age range. However, in the 17-year-old age group, the rural boys' upper leg length was substantially longer than their urban counterparts' ($t=3.15, p < 0.01$).

CONCLUSION

When the boys from rural and urban areas were examined as a whole, the independent samples t-test showed that, with the exception of skinfold thicknesses, the boys from rural areas had considerably higher anthropometric measurements than their urban counterparts. While the skinfold thicknesses of the biceps, subscapular, and supra-iliac muscles did not substantially differ between the two groups, the skinfold thickness of the triceps was significantly greater in urban boys than in rural boys. The group of rural boys had a much higher lean body mass than the urban boys, according to the body composition analysis. The two groups' percentages of body fat and total body fat did not differ significantly. It was shown that the rural boys outperformed the urban boys in terms of speed, medicine ball put, standing wide jump, grip strength, endurance, and standing vertical jump when comparing the physical fitness factors between the two groups. However, there were no discernible variations in the two groups' flexibility performance.

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