CHAPTER – II

Review of Related Literature

The review of literature gives an indication of direction to the investigator and gives him up-to-date information about the literature related to his own problem. It helps the researcher to locate the problem for research. Review of literature provide the method, procedure, sources of data and statistical techniques appropriate for the solution of problem. It avoids implication of the work,

Robert et. al (2002) conducted a study on “The Socio-Economic Determinations of International Soccer Performance” Football conducted a study on “Effect of parental socio-economic status on the vocational aspiration of students from selected secondary universitys in Niger State”. This study considered the effect of socio-economic origin on the vocational aspiration of students for a sample of 600 students randomly selected from 20 senior secondary universitys In Niger State. The investigation was carried out using one-way analysis of variance to test the only hypothesis formulated to guide the study. Findings indicate that significant differences exist "between the socio-economic origin of students and their vocational aspirations. The students from middle and upper socio-economic "backgrounds had more preferences for vocations which have to do with computational, scientific and mechanical work whereas those from lower socioeconomic "background had preferences for persuasive, social and clerical work.

The result (p<0.001) and PFI Score were (p<0.001) was found to be significantly increased in rural farmer group compared to urban sedentary group. We found a negative correlation between BMI and % recovery heart rate, BMI and PFI Score in rural farmer group compared to urban sedentary group. Conclusion: The rural farmer group had lower BMI and less increase in peak heart rate, faster heart rate recovery after exercise, increase in PFI Score and increase in % RHR as compared to urban sedentary group. Results show a greater cardiovascular efficiency of rural farmer group of Gulbarga District of Karnataka as compared to their urban sedentary counterpart.
Proportional Weight has been calculated by the formula Weight (kg) x (170.18 /subjects Height in cm) 3. Heart Rate had been measured using Cardio-sport Heart Rate monitor (3). Relative strength has been calculated by the total weight (individuals Clean & Jerk and Snatch) divided by body weight. For speed test 30m standing start sprint test, Broad jump, back through (5 kg weight plate) and vertical jump were test for general fitness test of weightlifters. For each test two chances were given to each lifters and the best was noted for the records. In the present study only descriptive statistical tools such as mean and standard deviation were applied to analyze the data. For the calculation of Relative strength data of World Records have been taken from International Weightlifting Federation website (2007) and for China, Pakistan and SriLanka performance results from Doha Asian Games-2006 have been taken.

All the results of this study has been presented under different variables groups RESULTS namely Age, Height, Body Weight and Proportional Weight, Body-Composition, Somatotype, general Weight lifting Performance, General fitness test and Heart rate response during the actual lifting at 80 %, 85 %, and 90 % of their personal best.

Falls (2000). Four new fitness-related tests was added to the manual. They are

(1) A mile or nine minute runs for aerobic capacity.

(2) The sum of the triceps and sub scapular skin folds for body com position.

(3) Flexed – knee crossed –arm –sit ups

KoKo (2008). In his study felt that the response of heart muscle to exercise training is similar to that of skeletal muscle. After such training the heart can contract more strongly and in a better co-ordinate fashion, so as to pump out more blood with each contraction. The coronary circulation increase as a result of the exercise, increasing the endurance of the heart. The lungs are little affected by exercise since their capacity to ventilate air is not taxed even during maximum efforts.
Oded (2001). In his recent work carried out in Czechoslovakia and the United States, shows at the beginning of physical efforts oxygen capacity rises faster among adolescents than among adults. Thus, for example, the oxygen capacity of ten to eleven year old boys even in the first thirty seconds of maximal efforts reaches fifty five percent of its maximum attainable value. Among men aged twenty to twenty two years, the corresponding value is thirty three percent. This clearly shows that at the beginning of effort the initial oxygen deficit of children is considerably less than that of adult.

Khanna and Ahuja (2003). They conducted the study of to determine the level of physical fitness of trained university athletes from body composition, static strength and cardio-vascular efficiency and come to the conclusion that Indian sportsman of university /state / national level had optimum body fat which is lower than the normal sedentary persons.

Slaughter et. al. (2007). Conducted a physical fitness study in relation to somoto type and body composition on seven to twelve year old boys. They concluded that the somoto type was not highly related to physical fitness.

Jackson and Baker (2001). Conducted a study on 825 young females with the AAHPED health related fitness and test to measure back and hamstring flexibility of subject.

Amusa and Udoh (2006). They conducted a study to find out the physical fitness status of the university of Borden female member and staff especially as it related to the level of participation. The awareness of the health problems due to inactivity, early exposure and influence of physical exercise, economic status and the influence of education. A total of two hundred females made up of one hundred non academic members of staff responded to questions built around the above objective. The result indicated that half of the respondents were not engaged in any form of
physical exercise since after leaving school. However, 75.7 percent indicated that they had early exposure to well as economic factors contributed to some of the subjects continued participation in physical exercise.

Gostin and Burden (2003). Conducted a study on AAHPER test battery and the AAHPER battery was used to evaluate fitness levels in south African school children. This battery of field tests of various aspects of physical fitness was conducted on white (N=98), Colored (N=92) and black (N=32) senior high school pupils which subjects scored higher on tests of aerobic and anaerobic power, and speed sit-ups. Black subjects were stronger than the other two groups. There were no differences between the subject groups on tests of balance; upper body endurance and agility, than female result on all tests except flexibility male results were higher than female result on all tests except flexibility where the trend was reserved. It was felt that social and economic factors and the intensity of habitual physical activity played a significant role in the result of this study.

Amusa and Udoh (2006). Conducted a study on physical fitness using the AAHPERD position paper as a guide. South Carolina published a health-related fitness test and state wide norms. One unique feature of the test visits inclusion of both criterion and norms referenced standards. The battery includes the following components:

1. Cardio respiratory function
2. Body composition
3. Abdominal and low back muscular skeletal function and.

The test provides norms for boys and girls of age sixteen to nineteen years. Oriterian-referenced standards are also included to evaluate the physical fitness status of teacher, encouraging teachers to demonstrate the importance of fitness through participation.
Falls (2000). Established norms on the AAHPERD youth physical fitness. The norms were computed for more than 10,000 young subjects those who fall below the fifteenth percentile in any were advised to participate in a fitness development program.

Hincon and Waddell (2000). Conducted a study on two samples of fifty tenth erode girls were administered. Six items of AAHPER youth fitness test and were matched according to scores. Both the conditioning exercise and sports method groups scored higher on strength, power and flexibility of the arm muscle on both the initial and final test. Both groups made the largest percentile gain in speed, agility, flexibility and endurance. The difference between the means of the retest scores for the two groups was not statistically significant.

Lowry and Fletcher (2008). Conducted study on physical fitness using AAHPER test. In his study the selected subject of 1400 senior high school boys from fifty nine schools throughout Arkansas. It was found that six of the twelve factors investigated had a significant relationship.

To the fitness level of the subject’s percentile ratio for senior high school boys in Arkansas on each item of the Youth fitness test were also developed.

Alston and Doroty (2001). Conducted physical fitness test using the Virginia physical fitness test, AAHPER youth fitness test and north Carolina physical fitness test were administered to sixty girls in grade nine, ten and eleven. The correlation between the Virginia and the AAHPER test was 0.89, between AAHPER test and North Carolina test was 0.79, and between the two state tests was 0.80. The main difference of the three tests in standard score items were not significant at the 0.01 level. The three tests gave essentially equivalent results for assessing physical fitness of high school girls.
Anderson (1999). Conducted physical fitness test on the selected District school children who studied with Rogers physical fitness index. The subjects were 551 boys and girls from nine to sixteen years of age of seventeen schools. Raw data for each subject were converted to physical fitness index. Means were determined for each school, each district represented by the sample and for the entire sample. In addition, mean scores were calculated in the separate test items scoring age groups for boys were thirteen and fifteen. The scoring age group for girls was eleven.

Anderson (1999). Fitness Survey Completed Research, (1999), 80 of the city. percentile norms were established from a national sample of school children in grades four through twelve. In 1995 and in 1996, American samples were again tested and normative comparisons for the different years were made. The results showed that United States children made substantial improvement in motor fitness between 1995 and 1996, but removed essentially the same.

Field and Arthur (2001). Conducted AAHPER physical fitness test on fifty seven male university students. The test was administered four times in four weeks.

An analysis of variance was prepared for each item. Fishers’t ratio and co-relation coefficients were calculated for all possible combination between trails. The results indicated the amount of practice necessary to raise the reliability of individual items to a satisfactory level. Standard errors of measurement were reported for each item.

In 2001, the AAHPER Youth fitness test was proposed and percentile norms were established from a national sample of school children in grades four through twelve. In 1995 and in 1996, American samples were again tested and normative comparisons for the different years were made. The results showed that United States children made substantial improvement in motor fitness between 1995 and 1996, but removed essentially the same between 1997 and 1998.
Lane (2003). Conducted a study using the AAHPERD youth physical fitness test and the Hamilton motor ability test on sixty nine girls aged fourteen years. Before and after a planned physical fitness programme the group improved on both the test and the co-relation between physical fitness and motor ability was higher after the planned fitness programme.

Bucher (2003). Conducted a study to construct hull scores for medford Boys growth study. The data ran on the on the number of scores that were sufficiently extreme as to end above 1000 points and below one point in the distribution In the study a total of 412 boys were tested at six groups, nine to fourteen years with eight anthropometric tests.

Barrow and Rosemary (2003). Conducted AAHPER Youth physical test to measure status and achievement in the physical fitness objective. A jury of experts in the form of a committee selected the seven items, which make up this fitness battery. The survey research centre of the university of Michigan selected the schools from which the sample of 8,500 from which the sample of 8,500 boys and girls were drawn. The norms were based on the data from these numbers.

In his study, comparing American Negro and Caucasian females Terrel came to the conclusion that Negro females have significantly longer legs, longer arm and hands; longer feet, wider shoulder girdle and narrow pelvic girdle than Caucasians and therefore they proved better in 50 yards dash and softball throw for distance.

Garrity (2005). In his study involving college women found a general tendency for the subject classified as masomorphic ectomorphic to perform in a more efficient manner on physical fitness test. The echo-endomorphic group was consistently low in all test items.

Prem (2001). Conducted a comparative study of physical qualities of offensive and defensive foot ball players of college level. He selected 32 foot ball players of Laxmibai National college of physical Education, Gwalior, who took part in a district
level Foot ball tournament. He compared agility, speed, strength, endurance and height and weight in offensive and defensive players. He statistically analysed the data and calculated 't' ratio and concluded that:

1. Defensive players are heavier, taller and have more muscular power than offensive players.
2. Offensive players are fast and possess more endurance than defensive players.
3. There is no significant difference between offensive and defensive players in agility.

Nemour (2002). Did a comparative study of anthropometrical measurements of Caucasian and Negro boys and girls. This study was conducted on Caucasian and Negro boys and girls to find out the differences in anthropometric measurements and at the same time differences in standing broad jump, medical ball-put, and zig-zag run performance of boys and girls of both races. A total of 900 subjects were taken. Subjects were of different age groups of six to ten years of age. Anthropometric measurements were standing height, sitting height, weight, length of arm, length of forearm, length of the, length of the thigh, length of the leg, and length of the lower extremity. They found out at the age level of six to eight and ten years boys differed from girls in most anthropometric measurements. However, there were no differences in standing height, leg and lower extremity length,- Negro boys and girls had longer appendages and were taller than Caucasians. Still Negro boys and girls were not superior in the events of power and agility.

Layback and Mcconville (2007). Reported low co-relation between flexibility and anthropometric measurements and between somoto type and flexibility. A high negative relationship was obtained between body fat and flexibility somoto type components were found to co-relate highly with anthropometric measurements employed in the study. In a later study the same authors reported many significant co-relations between strength and anthropometric measurements. The only somoto type
component found to be co-related significantly with muscle strength was
mesomorphy.

According to Carter (2004). Among the most ponderous of Olympic athletes
are the throwers and weight lifters. Because of possible ethnic differences and paucity
of data on black oriented and mesliso athletes in Mexico City data, while only
samples consisting of 10 throwers and 34 weight lifters were compared. Correction
was made for unequal numbers in each weight lifting classes. He found five
significant differences. The weight lifters had Proportionately shorter arm and tibia
lengths. One might summarize this would be advantageous in throwing where length
of arm is important in generating momentum. The weight lifters were proportionally
smaller in two of the four skin fold thicknesses and this may reflect a slightly leaner
physique since the weight lifters in all but the unlimited weight capacity aim to train
to minimal adiposity so as to maximize their strength per unit body mass. The
throwers were more linear, being substantially lower in proportional mass than
throwers and weight lifters with standard error bass separated from these samples by a
distance of about 1.02.

Metheny (2009). Studied the differences between Negro and white athletes in
respect to their body measurements. The results indicated that superiority in certain
sports events might be attributed to these differences. The relationship of 17
anthropometric measurements to buoyancy for 69 white and 32 Negro subjects were
evaluated by lane and midterm. The four ratios: chest circumferences standing height,
weight / standing height sitting height / standing height and body surface. The three
variables in order to magnitude standing height, breathing capacity and sitting height
contributed most to the predictive of buoyancy for the white group white chest depth
made the greatest contribution to the prediction for the Negro group. The fact that the
measures of the Negro group were less buoyancy than those in the white group land to
author to suggest that bouncy should not be an intrinsic step in teaching Negros to
swim.
Seiwert (2003). Examined the impact of different elementary school experiences upon achievements in certain aspects of physical fitness and sports skills. He tested 85 grade nine boys (27 with rural background, 38 with urban background and 20 with parochial school background) for speed, power, muscular endurance and skills in different games study of total scores showed that boys rural, parochial and urban experience did not differ in physical fitness but boys from urban and parochial school were superior in sports skills.

Ikeda (2002). Took the IOWA test motor fitness in order to compare the physical fitness of children in IOWA and Tokyo, Japan. The results indicated that Tokyo children scored better in all motor performance tests except one, setups. He also found out that Tokyo children had more chances for activity through physical education classes than IOWA groups.

In the study on producing ability in basic modern dance skills through anthropometric and physical fitness measurements Voll studied height, weight, sitting height, tibia height and upper leg length of 24 female dancers and concluded that the ability in basic modern dance skills could be predicted from selected anthropometric measurements.

Yoest (2003). Investigated the relationship between cardiovascular fitness and selected anthropometric measurements in eighth grade boy and college male subjects. He concluded that age, height can body mass and body surface did not have significant limit performance in Ohio state University step test. However, body composition representing body fat, limited the performance of college men only. In adolescence scores in the step test improve larger percentage of lean body tissue.

Martin (2006). Conducted a study by comparing the selected anthropometric measurements and physical performance between Mexican - American and Anglo American adolescent boys and also comparisons of body size, body structure and physical performance were made between the subjects at adolescent age levels within
each individual racial groups. The body size was assessed by standing height and body weight measurements. The body structure was interpreted as upper arm girth and chest girth abdominal girth, and thigh girth and calf girth measurements. The physical performance was determined by selected motor ability tests.

It was concluded that the Anglo American subjects were significantly taller than the Mexican-American subjects. It was also concluded that excluding standing height, the Mexican and Anglo American Subjects did not differ in body size and body structure and also these two races did not differ in physical performance.

Kansal and Sidhu (2002). Conducted a study on physical growth patterns and predictions of adult sports probables. The anthropometric measurements were taken on 799 subjects belonging to Jat, Sikh and 421 to Bania community of Punjab (India). All the subjects ranged from 10 to 21 years. Growth patterns in the form of distance and velocity curves from age 10 to 21 years in various anthropometric variables have been reported for both Jat, Sikh and Bania males. Prediction tables have been prepared for finding adults physical status from that of the age of 10 and 11 years. The physical status of the males of the two communities has also been compared at early age levels from 10 to 21 years, Jat, Sikh were found to possess higher lean tissue measures as compared to their Bania age peers at all ages studied, while the reserve observation has been noticed in case of subcutaneous fat measures.

Sloan (2003). Administered the Harvard step test to compare the physical fitness concluded that the Caucasian subjects from both the integrated school and non integrated schools. The Caucasian subjects also surpassed the integrated Navajo group in balance and both groups in agility and in the test of strength. No significant difference were found between integrated Navajo subjects and Caucasian subjects in the test of endurance, power and speed or in the right elbow extension and left grip strength test.
Howard (2000). On the basis of geographical, social and economic criteria selected 45 representatives from city, town and village schools. A three percent random sampling was taken for enrollment lists. The A strand sub maximal test of work capacity was administered to 809 urban and 108 rural students and maximal $O_2$ intakes predicted from a Nomo gram. Urban and rural males and females differed significantly when work capacity was expressed in Liter / minute but not in terms of Me / kg of body weight. The co-relations between work performed and maximum oxygen uptake was 0.68 for both males and females. A co-relation between work performed and average knee extensor strength of 0.51 was found in the case of males only.

Piscopo (2002). Conducted a study to establish norms and to compare skinfold and other anthropometric measurements of pre-adolescent boys from three ethnic groups. The subjects were 647 Kalian, Jewish and Negro Pre - adolescent boys. The skin fold was measured at five sites, others measurements included height, weight, biliaiac dimension and selected girths. Co-relations were determined between scaffold and selected body builds components. Inter skin fold co-relation ranged from moderate to high levels. The largest percentile scores were found within the Jewish groups. Analysis of variance was employed to compare body fat, height and weight of each group significantly differences were found relative to certain skin fold and weight between ethnic groups at 0.01 levels.

Debnath and Bawa (2009). Conducted a study to find out the differences in physical fitness level among high level performance gymnastic groups. 46 girl’s gymnasts of the II sub junior national gymnastics championships were taken as subjects for the study. Tests measuring arm strength, abdominal strength, explosive legs strength, flexibility and sprinting ability were administered on each subjects to assess the physical fitness level on the basis on their competitive performance was applied to the compute differences in physical fitness variables among the three groups. It was found that high level performance group possessed better level physical ability than mediocre and low performance level gymnasts. The mediocre performance level gymnasts possessed significantly better physical fitness than low performance group.
Weeks (1995). The importance of physical fitness in the ability to do physical task in their study. Their purpose in the study was investigate to physical fitness levels in police cadets and to compare these findings to public physical fitness levels in a work force sample. Male police cadets were measured in the variables of percent body fat, upper body strength and aerobic fitness two weeks after entering the police academy. The researchers concluded that although police cadets may be more aerobically fit than the work force sample, there is a need to develop upper body strength as it relates to their job performance. The study suggests that individuals entering into the law enforcement profession at the onset may not be physically superior than the general public.

Bosen (2004). The physical fitness of Indian men javelin throwers with the international norms. Fourteen javelin throwers were selected as subjects. Seven among them were national level decathletes and four throwers were of medium ability. The subjects were tested in groups of twos and threes by carefully arranging the tests and other training requirement. The performance of each athlete with 800m javelin was recorded. General speed test, specific strength test, jumping explosive strength test, general maximum strength test were conducted. It was concluded that Indian men javelin throwers lack of ability to efficiently make use of the run up.

Khanna (2006). Was conducted the study cardiovascular efficiency and came to the conclusion that Indian sportsmen of university / state / national level had optimum body fat which is lower than the normal sedentary persons and physical fitness was higher than the normal sedentary persons.

Taddonio (2002). Compared the physical fitness of public school students from economically deprived areas with national norms. He also compared the physical fitness to public school students from high poverty area with those from lower poverty area. The national norms was developed from the 1978 national survey of youth fitness, the AAPHER test was used.
Grover and Reever (2007). Studied the exercise performance at the altitude of 300 meters and 3000 meters on young men natives to those two altitudes. Maximum oxygen uptake (VO$_2$) was 26 percent less at the higher altitude for both groups. The newcomers to the higher altitudes showed no change in maximum VO$_2$ during 18 days of study. Their performance after return to low altitude was not improved by their sojourn at medium altitude. The impaired performance at medium altitude resulted for limitations of the pulmonary differing oxygen and also probability from a smaller cardiac stroke volume. Athletically the young men native to low altitude was superior to those from higher altitude. Consequently, the sea level athletes were all track competitions at both low and medium altitude.

Barbant and Jose (2003). Conducted ten subjects for this were 2342 boys and girls enrolled in a public school system in Brazil and America during 1992 school year. Health repeated physical fitness test battery and athletic ability tests were administered. The light and weight of the subjects were also undertaken into consideration. The results of the study was indicated that height and weight increased at approximately same rate and the girls was significantly taller & heavier than the boys during adolescence. The American girls and body were taller and heavier than the Brazilian boys and girls.

Girish (2009). Tested 100 subjects from the rural area and 100 subjects from the urban area high school boys to compare the physical fitness AAHPER youth fitness test and NPED tests were administered to obtain the physical fitness level of the subjects. He from AAHPER youth fitness tests between rural and urban high school boys.

Cofield (2000). Comparison of the initial and final scores of the seventy samples tested for AAHPER youth fitness test revealed an improvement in each test and each component of physical fitness. It is recommended that niore planned
programmers of physical education could be planned for desirable physical development.

Vishwanatha (1992). Conducted a study on "Comparison of selected physical fitness components, physiological and self concept variables between rural and urban school boys in Kanyakumari District". He administered AAHPER youth physical fitness test. Finally he came to the conclusion that the physical fitness of the rural boys were better than the urban boys. The self concept of the rural boys was found to be better than the boys in an urban area.


Gregor and Barrie (2000). Tested 14 years old boys who had lived in typical rural and urban steins of prince Edward island. Their study proved that the urban boys performed better on selected fitness tests of jumping and sit-ups. They were inferior to rural boys in 50 yard dash and flexed-arm hangs.

Meqni (2006), Compared physical fitness of Philippines students with Japanese and American students. He found that Philippines students had generally lower performance in pull-ups, soft ball throw and sit-ups as compared to Japanese and American students.

Saha (2007). This study they were tested with selected items of AAHPERD youth fitness test it is 65 yards run, and 55 yards shuttle run, and 600 yards run and walk the selected anthropometric measures i.e. chest girth. In all tests and measurements, the mean score of the composite scores if tribal students were higher
than the non-tribal counterparts but none of the differences in the means were found statistically.

Abdulnour (2007). Conducted a study to compare the Kuwait data with those of high school boys and girls in the United States, as indicated by their performance on the AAHPER youth fitness test survey of 1975 and (b) compare the mean differences in physical fitness among three groups of boys and three groups of girls attending public secondary schools in Kuwait. The fitness tests included (a) for comparing the groups in Kuwait, the ANOVA method was applied. Whenever its F-test was found to be the significant at the 0.05 level, the Schaffer’s procedure was followed to deduce where reliable differences existed.

The statistical analysis revealed that:

1. The physical fitness status of boys and girls attending public secondary schools in Kuwait was significantly lower than that of their counterparts in America.

2. The physical fitness levels of three groups of boys and girls in Kuwait public secondary schools differed significantly in certain comparisons. Generally, Kuwait male and female students in the credit unit system performed better than their Kuwait and non-Kuwait counterparts in the general system.

In brief, boys and girls in Kuwait demonstrated low levels of physical fitness. Different programmers and research to improve the fitness of youngsters in Kuwait are recommended.

Ranganathan (2007). Conducted a study on "comparison of health related physical fitness between urban and rural school boys". He administered physical fitness tests between urban and rural higher school boys had better fitness than rural high school boys.
Mishra et. al (2012). He was conducted of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts (part of North Bengal) of West Bengal. Standard anthropometric methods were applied to measure the height and weight of the children. The children were selected randomly from the low socio economic group as per guideline of our State Government. Our study shows that average height of the girls was more than the boys. From the view of weight for age, nutritional status shows poorer when it was compared with the nutritional status from the light of height for age as per Waterlow’s classification. The weight of children was not increasing with the advancement of age. Physical growth as well as nutritional status of boys was affected more than the girls. Children of higher age group were more affected nutritionally. The weight for age classification shows that no child of 12+ year age was normal. Only 5.14 % children of 12+ year age were found with normal physical growth considering the nutritional status from the view of height for age.

Patil et. al (2012). Patil and other they studied on body mass index is on the factors that determine and howling is the favorite sport of perhaps even more. The six billion dollars or more invested in motorboats in the inland and slat waters of the country, when added to the amount spent by those who canoe or sail, brings boating into focus as one of the most popular sports on the American scene. More than seventy million people pay to attend baseball contests each year. They come to see hundreds of thousands of players. Roughly sixty million people watch football each season; the players in action range from little fellows barely able to see from under their oversized helmets to great professionals stars who play the game for money. Dancing in one or more of its various forms attracts vast numbers. Whether in the round dance of the ballroom or the square dance of the ballroom or the square dance of the husking bee or carnival young and old find in dance the answer to their need for self-expression and for fun. The dancing classes of the country are filled with children learning not merely the steps but also the social skills that go with the particular forms of dance most frequently used in our society. Summer find hundreds of thousands bound for the beach, the mountain lakes, and the neighborhood swimming pools. Swimming, diving, surfboarding, scuba diving, water-skiing, and boating have their devotees; the water seems to challenge the skills of people of all ages. These activities offer emancipation from the restrictions on movement which our society imposes.
through the highly conventional life we are supposed to lead. People fret under such restrictions and, when the opportunity is at hand or can be created, revert to the natural state of willing participation in play.

The participation in modern sports is influenced by various physical, physiological, sociological and psychological factors. During training, besides good physique and physical fitness of the athlete, main emphasis is laid on the development of various types of motor skills involved in the game as well as on teaching the strategies, techniques and tactics of the game. Until recently, the physical education teachers have been paying inadequate attention to the social and psychological factors which although have been proved to contribute to performance in events in the higher competitive sports. It is only recently that sports administrators and Physical Education teachers have realized the importance of the psychological preparation and training of players to enable them to bear the strain and stresses inherent in sports participation. So, now the sports trainer and physical Education teachers have started giving more importance to the psychological conditioning or the building the mental make-up of the players before their contests in the national and international competitions.

In these days, the teams are prepared not only to play, but to win the games. And for winning the games, it is not only the proficiency in the skills which matters but also the spirit and attitude of the players with which they play. The mental attitude of each individual player as well as of the team can help or hinder their performance. Most of the Physical Education teachers agree that the physical characteristics, skills and training of the players are extremely important, but they also feel that good mental or psychological preparation for competition is a necessary component for success.

The aim of higher sports in this age of competition is to win in international meets or to attain peak performance in competition. And it is on this factor that the Physical Education teachers try to concentrate. In order to reach the target and accomplish the social expectation, the players also work hard, ignoring their comforts in their daily lives and practice for many hours a day. Stress, both psychological and social inhibits the peak performance of players. Unless the players are prepared mentally and psychologically for the contest, they are not able to achieve the desired
results. The psychological training has to be provided to the players by the coaches to face stressful situation occurring during the competition.

Sport has become a psycho-social activity, full of tension, anxiety, fear and stresses. In competitive sports, teams and individual players play to win and this spirit of winning the matches and individual events causes many psychological stresses. So the job of the coach is to prepare or train the individual athlete as well as teams in such a way that the players individually as well as, in their capacity, as members of the team are to bear all types of stresses and overcome the effect of over-stresses and strains which may deteriorate the sports performance. The players need to undergo such an arduous, training that they should be able to have physical load during practice schedules and can have psychic stress during the period of competition, because it is during competition that athletes as well as teams inevitably come under psychological stress.

In modern competitive sports, the role of anxiety in sports performance has attracted the attention of sports scientists. As the physical load during training of sportsmen for international competition is increasing day-by-day, the psychic stress during competition has been intensified. It has been realized that during their participation in competitive sports, the players and athletes are also anxiety-prone. Hence in these days, psychological training of the players and athletes has.

It is agreed by most of the sports scientists that besides developing the physical and physiological aspects of the players i.e. power, strength, endurance, agility and speed as well as providing the best type of the training, unit and unless the players and athletes the mentally prepared for contest, they cannot win in any competition or attain their peak performance which is considered the optimum objective of the modern sports.

Thus, it has become necessary to conduct research to know which psychological factors enhance sports performance. There is a need to conduct research on the national and international sportsmen with respect to some psychological characteristic. It is also essential to know what type of emotional problems like anxiety, fear, aggressiveness or stresses occur when they have to face some strong opponent and how to overcome these problems to achieve the optimum level of
achievement/performance. It may be possible if proper research on scientific lines is conducted on the top level sportsmen. In view of this, five psychological variables namely visual reaction time, auditory reaction time, extraversion, neuroticism and competitive anxiety were selected and the relationship of disjunctive reaction time, both visual and auditory with extraversion, neuroticism and competitive anxiety was examined in the present study.

The great majority of empirical research in sport personality has utilized assessment devices which embody the factor theory as their main premise. As expressed by Cattell (1973), the factor theory searches for consistencies in behaviour. It is assumed that internal dispositions or traits are relatively stable and so enduring that they override environmental or situational influences. This infers that questions cold be asked in any situation and the responses to generalized to a sport situation. Thank for example he broad category of anxiety. Is knowing that a person low on an omnibus inventory of anxiety enough to conclude that he will never exhibit anxiety; are there no situations in which his heart rate may increase a little. The situation position as exemplified in Mischel’s [1969] social learning theory, appears to go too far to the other extreme, entering into open debate with personalize. This paradigm can be regarded as the antithesis of the factor theory and maintains that behavioural variation is primarily a function of the situation in which a person is placed.

In this research, researcher try to understand relation between obesity and health related physical fitness and how we can cope with health related fitness and obesity level among urban and physical collegiate students.

Keeping in view the fact that students physical fitness has important health consequences during adulthood ( Sallis et.al. 1992) a large number of studies on physical fitness have been reported form diferent countries of the world. Data on the physical fitness children from Denmark (Knutgen, 1961), Engalnd (Campbell & Pohndof, 1961), South Africa (Sloan, 1966), Belgium ( Hebbelinck & Borms 1969), Israel (Ruskin, 1978), & Japan (Ishiko, 1978) are available in the literature. All these reports made the health planners realise the importance of the contribution of the health education and physical fitness in the development of total fitness. The practice of physical testing in children started thereafter in various countries.
Over the past four decades, there has been an increase in provenances of overweight and physical fitness deterioration in adults across all genders, ages and racial groups (Ichinohe et al. 2004). The negative effects of degraded physical fitness in both the individuals and society are serious and multidimensional. It can cause many risk factors to health including coronary heart diseases, certain forms of cancer, diabetes, hypertension stroke, gallbladder diseases, respiratory problems, and gout and is associated with increased in all case mortality (Catalado 1999). In adults, relationship among physical activity, health related fitness, and health are fairly well established (Boucherd, Shepherd 1994). Low level of physical fitness is the ability to perform daily activities willingly and actively. Physical fitness includes not only components of sports but those of health as well regular physical activity prevents or limits weight gain, and weight in BMI, (Kyle et al. 2001). The national college health risk behaviour survey reported that 35% of American college students are overweight (Lowry et al. 2000). This is not surprisingly considering that more than two third of American adult population are classified as overweight (Flegal et al. 2002), making weight gains America’s leading health problem (Mokdad et al. 2001). The expert committee of the world health organization (1981) described the physical fitness as “the ability to undertake muscular work satisfactorily”. Physical fitness is the capacity to early out, reasonably well, various forms of physical activities, without being unduly tired and includes qualities important to the individuals health and wellbeing every person has a different level of physical fitness which may change with time, place of work, situation, and there is also an interaction between the daily activities, and the fitness of an individual, the point if where to put the level of optimum fitness. Form the physiological point of view physical fitness may say to be ability at the body to adapt and recover from strenuous exercise. Physical fitness recognized as an important component of health (Lamb et al. 1988; Twisk et al. 2002) and it may be important for the performance of functional activities and quality of life (Noreau, Shepherd 1995, Stewart et al. 1994). Low physical fitness may result in high physical strain during the performance of activities (Bruinings et al. 2007). As a consequence, activity level may decrease due to fatigue and discomfort, exacerbating low physical fitness.

Emotion is open to observation. It can be studied in the same way in which other phenomena in the universe can be studied. But among human beings there is
also experience alongside with emotion. The child who has learnt to speak will not only with draw his hand when he is pricked with a pin; he also shouts that it is hurting him. The pinprick not only leads to withdrawal, which is an observable emotion, it also leads to an experience, which is expressed in the statement that the is suffering pain. This experience is not open to observation by others; it is private, it is personal. Only the person experiencing can make an assertion about it. The ancient thinkers were generally concerned with the study and analysis of these experiences. These are the mental activities that we are conscious of. We not only experience them we are also aware of them. But every mental neuromuscular system is involved in all mental activity. A few decades ago the psychologist Watson tried to limit the scope of psychology to the near observation of human emotion so that other persons concern it only with phenomena open to observation. In other words, it was his intention that psychology should be completely objective. Since experience is private, subjective, he said, that it should not be included in the scope of psychology. Thus there was a swing from almost exclusive preoccupation with the analysis of experience to an almost exclusive preoccupation with the analysis of experience to a campaign for the abandonment of experience.

As we have seen, all mental activities involve the neuro-muscular system. The sense organs, the brain, the spiral cord, and the muscles are all very active whether the mental activity knows, feeling or doing. This is no way we can neither accept the old notice that psychology deals with the mind or the mental activities; nor can we accept the position of psychologists like Watson who assert that the scope of psychology should be limited only to emotion. Often emotion cannot be understood without knowledge of the experience, which influenced the action. Our desires and our thoughts influence our activities. While psychology in its quest for general principles must observe and measures external emotion, it must also get information from the grown up human beings by asking them to describe verbally their own experience.

In a broad way we may state that psychology deals with two aspects of the problems of emotion. There is on the one hand the interest in the general laws of human emotion and experience; the aim of psychology is to formulate general laws which hold good of all human beings irrespective of their sex, race etc. On the other hand it aims at the study of individual differences. While all human beings are
capable of learning, it is a familiar fact that some learn faster and take less time and some take longer time to learn the same activity, poem or song. This is due to differences in memory, intelligence etc. There are also differences regarding personality, leadership, and so on. Some of these differences are tied with age. There are differences between the activities of children, adolescents, adults and old people. It is the aid of development psychology to study these differences between the various stages in the growth of human beings. Differential psychology studies the differences between individuals. When we study them we find that these differences themselves obey certain general laws. Thus, the aim of psychology is to study the individual differences as well as the general principles of emotion.

We have studied different aspects of man: man the perceiver, man the needful, and man the adaptive. But it has always been clear that this tripartite division is merely one of convenience – for analytic purposes – and that man, functioning in his social and physical world is an indivisible unity who perceives and desires and learns simultaneously. We now turn to the task of synthesis – to – the task of describing the whole man.

One of the first things to become apparent as we turn our attention to the whole man is that he manifests himself in infinite variety. There has never been a person exactly like you, and there never will be. And one of the major factors which distinguish you from your neighbour is the way your perceptual, motivational, and learning processes are organized into unique patterns of capacities: intelligence, abilities, talents, and aptitudes. It is this patterning and synthesis which helps makes you, you; which make you Jim McGraw, or Shirley Cohen, or Tony Morales instead of Mr. any man.

The study of the abilities of man has been intimately tied up with intelligence testing. Literally millions of people, representing different ages, economic groups, cultures, nationalities and races have been subjected to intelligence testing of one kind or another. There are individual tests (where one person at a time is tested) and group tests (where hundreds of people at a time are tested); speed tests (where the scores are determined by the rapidity with which correct answers can be given) and power tests (where the difficulty of the task successfully completed determines the score); verbal
tests (requiring verbal responses to questions) and performance tests (involving such nonverbal responses as stringing variously coloured beads in a specified order.

Form these tests we have accumulated much useful information. We can fairly quickly and reliably determine where a person stands in relation to any reference group of his fellows, and on the basis of this we can predict a number of things about his performance in various situations. But the question of what it is we are testing, the question of what is “intelligence”, remains unanswered.

Intelligence is a concept variously used and variously defined. Some people define it as the ability to adapt to new circumstances, others as the ability to learn, and still others as the capacity to deal with complex and abstract material.

Different psychologists have championed these (and other) definitions of intelligence, and much research has been addressed to these questions. However, none of this research has resulted in a clear definition of intelligence. For this reason many psychologists today have reached the point where they no longer ask “What is intelligence?” They have decided that they can do a useful job in measuring intelligence without defining it. In this respect they are doing what the early physicists did when they studied heat. Long before the physicists could agree on a sound definition of heat they have invented reliable thermometers to measure changes in temperature and with these instruments they were able to discover many important physical laws.

Standardization of intelligent tests. But all of the above statements are relative to the group on which the test was standardized. To say that the “average” ten-year-old can pass certain items of an intelligences test implies, of course, that we have previously tested a representative sample of the entire population of then year old children. This procedure is called standardizing the test items. The problem of obtaining a sample truly representative of the entire population is beset with difficulties. If the unrepresentative of the entire population of children the intelligence test was standardized on a sample which did not adequately include children of the lower economic groups, merely use this test to measure the I.Q. for these children. This is but a reflection of the fact that the I.Q. is a relative score, not an absolute score.
Adult I.Q.’s  We have seen that intelligence, as measured by our available tests, does not grow at the same rate after puberty as it does prior to that age. This means, of course, that the concept of I.Q. cannot have the same meaning for an adult as it does for a person younger than about 16. In order to use the I.Q. unit for adults, several simplifying assumptions have been made. In computing a Stanford – Binet I.Q. for anyone over the age of 15 the person is given a chronological age of 15 no matter how old he really is. This is done because it is assumed that the average adult has stopped growing in intelligence at that age.

Since the Stanford-Binet test has been standardized on children and very young adults (up to the age of 18) many psychologists do not consider it an adequate test for older adults. In response to these difficulties a number of tests have been developed especially for adults. Among the most commonly used of these is the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale which consists of two parts – a verbal part and a performance part, each consisting of five kinds of items. The verbal part includes information, comprehension, vocabulary, memory span for digits forwards and backwards, arithmetical reasoning, etc. The performance scale includes tasks involving object assembly (putting together cut out parts to complete a figure such as a human profile – very much like a jigsaw puzzle), picture completion, picture arrangement, etc. It is of interest to note that the correlation between the Stanford – Binet and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale is about 85.

By way of summary, in selecting items to differentiate the more intelligent from the less intelligent children, intelligence test constructors usually follow several guiding principles in the first place, the content of the items must, on the fact of it, be “intellectual” in nature; secondly, items must discriminate between children of different ages, such that percentage of children passing the item must increase with increase in age. Other considerations also have been taken into account the items should be reasonably easy to administer and score, should sample a wide variety of tasks, and should reflect the experiences common to all children.

The use of such items when standardized on representative samples enables us then to convert the raw scores earned on intelligence tests into age scores and I.Q. scores. When this is done we find that intelligence shows a fairly constant developmental growth up to the age of approximately 14 years. This can be taken as
a “known group” validation of the intelligence test. But this very fact makes for difficulties in using the I.Q. concept when measuring adult intelligence.

Sports performance has been found to be related to some personality variables. Extraversion and neuroticism are among the variables which influence sports performance in addition to many other personality variables. Extraversion has been found to be highly related or supportive to dominance and sociability in athletes and sports participants by Sperling whose development of the two broad personality dimensions of neuroticism-stability and extraversion-introversion provides the major underlying theoretical structure of this trait. He describes extraverted individuals as:

They stick their necks out and take chances, act on the spur of the moment, are optimistic, aggressive, lose their temper easily, laugh a great deal, and are unable to keep their feelings under control.”

According to Eysenck (2007), extraversion is at best a behavioural description of personality, but that it does possess biological causal source implication. He believes that extraversion can be explained at the neural level in that his extraversion-introversion scale reflects the strength of the excitatory-inhibitory functions of the central (cortical) nervous system. He also proposed that the extraversion associated reticular-cortical loop systems of the brain stem. It means that the dimension involves the reticular activating system. His proposal was founded in the belief that cortical excitation in response to external stimulation (such as the effects of competition) is higher in introverts than in extraverts.

It is through the linkage of the reticular formation and hypothalamus with personality dimension that Eysenck believes differing personalities will reflect their positions on a level of arousal continuum. For example, cortical excitation in response to external stimulation (e.g. a tension situation in sports) is postulated as being higher in introverts than in extraverts. This is because he saw introverts as having weaker nervous systems than extraverts. Conversely, he believed that inhibition will be higher in extraverts as they possess stronger inhibitory mechanisms because of their stronger nervous systems. The reason for this is that weaker nervous system is more sensitive and begins to respond at stimulus intensities which are ineffective for strong nervous systems. This results in the weaker system’s responses being closer to the maximum
level of responding than those of a stronger system through the stimulus intensity continuum. Eysenck feels that this represents the cortical supremacy of introverts as producing a constraint of their behaviour in accordance with conditioned and learned patterns of response that lead to the emergence of those personality traits characterizing introverts. Conversely, the absence of such supremacy leads to an absence of such constraints and to the emergence of extraversion traits. “Eysenck’s view can be interpreted as indicating that extraverts are low on excitation and high on inhibition, which introverts being the opposite. Athletes, then, would react quite differently to a rise in arousal level from competitive circumstances depending on whether or not they are mainly extraverts or introverts. For example, an athlete, high on extraversion would have more trouble “getting up” for a game than one high on introversion, but would be better able to handle and channel arousal later in the game because of strong inhibitory mechanism”.

Several attempts have been made to identify the differences, if any, between the personality of the athletic and the non athlete Rushall (1970), in an evaluation of physical performance & personality, concluded that “Personality is not a significant factor in sports performance “ this conclusion was supported Ellison and Treschlog, who found that the pain tolerance, arousal and personality of made college athletes and non-athletes are substantially similar.

Kistler (1970) compared 116 college varsity male athletes with 116 non varsity athletes be found that varsity players demonstrated poorer sportsmanship than the non varsity players his findings are supported by those of Richardesen (1962) in a study. Comparing who had not using 233 students, Richardson discovered not only that the latter winners record lower in sportsmanship, than there who had not won latter, but that subsidized athletes scored lower in sportsmanship than athletes who were not subsidized.

Seymour (1956) made an attempt in 1956 to evaluate the effects of single baseball season on the personality traits of little league participants. Various traits of
114 little league baseball players were compared with their of 114 non participants before and after the baseball season.

Singer (2009) administered the Edward present performance schedule (EPPS) to baseball and tennis players and a group of non athletes. He found that’ non athletes scored higher’ than baseball group in other autonomy. The tennis group was higher than the baseball group.

Other studies have also shown that athletes are higher in those straits associates higher in those traits associated with leadership, power prestige esteem and sociability. The hypothesis that athletes in a given sport posses traits specific to that sport ini supported by the evidence as Kroll’s study indicated certain sports attract certain types of athletes. For example, at is the performance of the individual tennis players that determined whether the match is won or lost because tennis is not a sport requiring group to operation or effort, tennis players might not score on sociability or extroversion. On the other hand they might be expected to square high in dominance. Individual sport might attract participants who fit Alderman’s definition of dominance.

Researchers have attempted to differentiate between superior and inferior performance in various sports.

Kroll & Carlson (2006) reported no difference between participant of various levels of ability in wrestling and karate. Singer in a previously mention study comparing baseball and tennis players also found no difference between highly successful and less successful tennis players. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports offering unusual sensation and personal challenges.

For the purposes of the RESPECT project, however, it is necessary to have some sort of functional definition. This short discussion paper is designed as the first step towards the development of such a definition. As the project develops, this definition will be tested in relation to the actual practices of socio-economic
researchers, whose activities, qualifications and professional affiliations will be profiled as part of the project's work.

In the meantime, a brief survey of projects described as socioeconomic research projects indicates that they cover a very broad range in relation to the backgrounds and qualifications of the researchers, the methodologies used and the subject matter addressed. It is clear that drawing a clear boundary around these projects that will distinguish them from other fields of endeavour, is likely to be extremely difficult, if not impossible. There will therefore inevitably be areas of overlap with many other types of research, for instance with medical research, with mathematical modelling, or with documentary art. The outputs of socio-economic research may also be difficult to distinguish from other types of publication, for instance from journalism, biography or technical manuals.

Hayward (2011). conducted a study on “Socio-economic Benefits of Sport”, CIGEPS Journal. At the Plenary Session of the Intergovernmental Committee for Physical Education and Sport (hereinafter referred to as "CIGEPS"), which took place at UNESCO Headquarters from 7 to 8 July 2010, discussions were had over the best means to reorient CIGEPS to make it more effective. As part of this process, it was agreed that the Committee should have a strong advocacy function. It was also agreed that, in order to be credible and effective in this role, CIGEPS should consider commissioning high quality research into key sport and physical education issues and to oversee the wide dissemination of this information. One proposal, as outlined by the Secretariat, could be to develop a succinct economic analysis of the contributions that sport and physical education make to social and economic development.

This report presents draft terms of reference for research into the socio-economic benefits of sport and physical education. It is recommended that CIGEPS considers these terms of reference and directs the Secretariat to commission the research.

Maren (2012), Conducted a study on “A Socio-economic Analysis of Attendance Behaviour in Commercial Fitness Clubs”. According to Deloitte (2011),
by the end of 2010 a total of 7.31 m persons owned a membership card of a commercial fitness club in Germany. Although members pay on average € 46.90 per month for their membership (DSSV, 2010), it occurs that the price often lies above the actual utilization Malmendier & Delia Vigna, 2006. According to observations of fitness club managers, an estimated 30% of their customers attend only infrequently. Since under economic theory human beings are assumed to make rational decisions, it could be that people overestimate their future attendance when signing up (Stingel, 2007). Since most members are constrained by contract conditions where cancellation is only possible after one year, one would assume members who utilize their membership only little regret to have signed up because costs of membership outweigh benefits. However, it happens that members still do not cancel. Since the effort to cancel membership is rather little, the transaction cost theorem ' cannot hold to explain this behaviour (Malmendier & Delia Vigna, 2006). Moreover, the high number of members - 8.9% of the German population are commercial fitness club members (Deloitte, 2011) - comes as a surprise under profit maximization principles since for everything that is being offered in a commercial gym, there is a cheaper or even costless alternative - in monetary terms. Just to name a few: if "Health" is the driver to become a member of a fitness club, one could likewise just go running or biking. If "Meeting People" is the main determinant, one could surf the internet for contacts. If "Better Looks" motivates members to sign up, one could do sirups at home, get fresh air and take care of nutrition.

Aarthi (2008), conducted a study on “Socio-economic status of Indian, Chinese students going abroad, says study”. Patterns of employment status and financial independence of parents different between Chinese, Indian respondents

Financial resources of prospective students are one of the major driving forces of outward mobility from China and India though the U.S.-bound student populations of the two largest Asian countries appear to differ significantly by socio-economic background.

A study shows that while 60 per cent of Chinese students had adequate financial resources to afford overseas education, the percentage of Indian respondents was only 27.
"The higher socio-economic status of Chinese applicants is also manifested in their previous overseas exposure: one out of four Chinese applying to schools in the U.S had lived, studied or worked abroad prior to their application. By contrast, only one out of 10 Indian respondents had previously spent time overseas. Patterns of employment status and financial independence of parents were also different between Chinese and Indian respondents."

Singh (2004), selected 80 sportswomen and studied the socio economic background of sports women of Amritsar district and found that

1. Most of the sports women came from higher caste in terms of traditional caste system.
2. Most of them belonged to low and lower middle class families.
3. Religion could be seen as an influencing factor in sports participation.
4. Social background had effect on participation in sports.

Adhirana (2008) studied that female sports participation was a function of socio economic status. More specifically, team sport participants come from a lower social class background, whereas individual and dual sport participants come from higher social class backgrounds.

Sohi and Yusef (2009), conducted a study on 90 female elite athletes from 12 sports and found that the athletes of racket sports mostly come from middle and low social classes. Athletes from team sports more in number belonged to low status.

Mangayarkarasi (2001), analysed socio economic status and its influence on the athletic ability of high school girls and found that family plays a crucial role affecting athletic performance.

Thomson (2000), presents data of 185 females (age 10+2 years) who were actively involved in the sport of orienteering in New Zealand to illustrate characteristics of their participation and to highlight contrasts with women's sports participation in other sports. Results indicate that the predominant age group of orienteering (30-39 years) was usual for female sports participants, although their socio economic status (SES) was consistent with other research findings. Immediate social circles of friends and family appeared to be the strongest influences on
participation; however, enjoyment appeared to be derived predominantly from intrinsic aspects of the sport.

Pierson, (2008), peers were important agents for stimulating interest in most of the sports, while teachers and coaches appeared to be most influential than peers in stimulating interest in track and field. Family influence was noticed in generating interest in traditional spectators sport.

Synder and Spreitzer (2001). have worked on "Socialisation of Adolescent female athlete and musicians". The purpose of their study was to compare the social background, characteristics and psychological attributes of high school girls who were participating in inter scholastic athletics and music. The findings showed a clear correlation between selective parental encouragement and participation in these two extra curricular activities. More over, the findings showed no evidence of psychological stress among the female athletes in comparison to the musicians.

Geendolfer (2001). in his study examined whether differences existed between the systems of socializing agent’s family and peers of school, during three life cycle stages. She found that during childhood, the female participating was more likely to have been influenced by peers and family respectively, than by teachers and coaches. At the adolescent stage, the influence of family and teacher had great influence. During young adulthood, the most influential agent was the peer group.

Snyder and Spreadder (2003), analyzed family influence on sports and found that involvement in childhood is reinforced by parental encouragement continuously into middle age and diminished during the last stage of life cycle.

Masoud (2003), The role of the family in the socialisation of Children into sports", the purpose of this study was two fold: (1) to investigate the role of significant - others in general and the role of mothers in the socialization of children into sports, and (2) to examine in greater detail the role of mothers in the sports socialisation of children as well as to consider the process of sex typing and its relationship to sports.

It was concluded that the value that girls play on sports is equal to the value boys play on sports. Peers compared with family and teachers were the strongest predictors of children's active sports involvement within the family context, fathers proved to be the most important agents of sport socialization.
Greendolfer (2008), provides descriptive information related to age of first sports participation, type of sports and influence of socializing agents. His study was based on a sample consisting of 585 women athletes. He found that approximately 70 percent of women were participating in some form of sports by the age of 8. Furthermore, the entire sample was actively involved at the age of 14. Regarding relation to agents responsible for sports participation/involvement, he found that 39.5 percent were stimulated by family, 31.3 percent by neighborhood, 23.6 percent through school, 3.4 percent through community, and 1.7 percent through other clubs. In this study major population of the sample was stimulated by family, neighborhood and school.

Marie (2002), concluded that, attitudes towards women in sports have been slow to change the myth. It has become difficult to allay the fear that sport activities will produce bulging muscle which imply masculinity. Young girls are frightened away from the sports.

Sohi (2003), found that the family is an institution which has its own attitudes towards sports involvement and it has definite influence on the children. Parents have usually a tendency to be extra careful about the first issue. This protection again results in different type of sports involvement. Usually, the child coming first on the ordinal position, selects activity which is not full of risk and danger, the children at the lower position indulge in combative and dangerous games and sports.

1. A Significant positive relationship was reported between the attitude scores of mothers and fathers on physical activity, and
2. Positive attitudes towards physical activity by mothers and fathers were found.

Research findings relating the advantages of parental involvement have virtually gone unnoticed. A survey of 1,270 parents and 3,700 teachers conducted by EPSTEIN indicated that the majority of parents had neither the time nor the inclination to participate deeply in school matters. Over 75 percent never helped teachers or participated in school functions.

Alexander (2008), attributed the under representation of black women in sport to a number of factors, including lack of money for lessons and equipment, lack of role models, lack of affirmative action on the part of colleges, and lack of available opportunities in geographical areas of minority population concentration.
Jim et. al. (2006), in their study addressed the need to look at girls sporting participation from a different perspective. In addition to identifying girls sport participation and variables associated with participation and dropout. This study described the sporting experiences, and the decisions associated with those experiences, of a group of girls opposing traditional pressures by participating in a "Male" sport. This study involved 105 girls between the ages of 13 and 18 years. A structural questionnaire was administered to all the sample, with follow up semi structured interviews being conducted with fifteen of the participants. The issues of enjoyment and friendship were the key elements in the decisions of these girls to play soccer. They sought a social sporting experience rather than a competitive sporting experience.

Organised sports and self efficacy positively associated with physical activity. Enjoyment of vigorous physical activities, friend support for exercise, perceiving benefits from exercise and participation in organised sports were significant and correlates of physical activity among older (16-18 years) African American females. Among younger white females attitudes and enjoyment of vigorous physical activity significantly associated with physical activity. The sole significant influence on physical activity among older white female was participation in organised sports. Tentatively, determinants of physical activity appear to differ by age and race among adolescent females from rural south Carolina.

Genders on most of the nine items as well as the scale total for both samples. In all cases where differences were evidenced, women reported being more accepting than did men. In general this research suggests that the physical activity acceptance scale shows promise as a reliable and valid measure of individuals perceptions of women who engage in traditionally masculine sport and exercise activities. The physical activity acceptance scale may be particularly applicable in areas such as rehabilitation, where participation in sport or exercise may be hindered by gender role stereotypes.

Decker (2005), is of the view that orientation towards a moral or self interested point as was determined by children's moral point of view scale. The children's moral point of view scale was administrated to 106 children from a public elementary. They were randomly selected. The children's moral point of view scale to assess the moral point of view of fifth and sixth grade in both every day sports. Twenty eight prosocial behaviours were selected, 14 in sports context and 14 in every day life contexts. The 28 situations were
c^ullecj from an initial list of 45. Each subject was assigned a specific level of participation in youth sports and recorded a scale for sports point of view and life point of view. Means, standard deviation and standard errors were calculated on Apple Macintosh using super Anova programme. A three factor ANOVA was employed to determine the interaction of the variables. Significance was accepted at .05 level.

He found that it is probably unrealistic to expect students to adopt completely moral point of view. There is no difference found between limited, moderate or extensive participants on life or sports scores. When males and females were compared on level of sports participation, sports and life scores, moderate participants did not differ, indicating less influence of organised sports on their point of view.

Michelle's (2005), in his study examined the relationships between competitive and recreational sports structures, gender and athletic motivation. Subjects completed the sports motivation scale, valid reliable measure of sport motivation which assesses 3 types of intrinsic motivation, 3 types of extrinsic motivation and motivation.

Daniel (2005), felt that a variety of issues relating to gender and sports have been investigated, an examination into the possible inequalities in sports psychology and sociology journals had not been conducted. Such an investigation was focused in this topic. Specifically data relevant to the gender of the authors and subjects from sports psychology and sociology journals for the years 1987 -1991 were recorded. It was found that female authors were under represented in terms of overall proportion of authors, proportion of first authors, and proportion of sole authors. Further more female subjects were under represented in terms of studies examining, only one gender as well as those investigating both genders.

Al-khatib studies male elite athletes who were the participants in Iraqi National teams in a variety of sporting events. The data were collected my means of a questionnaire. The data were analyzed by descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients. Results of the study revealed that. (1) elite male athletes received the greatest amount of influence from peers. (2) Teachers and coaches encouragement of the athletes participation in sport was significantly related to the athletic participation.
(3) There was significant relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards associated with sports participation and commitment to sport (4) Significant relationship between participation and sports availability of facilities and programmes (5) No significant relationship between parent’s attitude and sports participation (6) elite male athlete’s current participation in sports was significantly related to their socio-economic status. (7) One of the significant findings in this regard was that the athletes reported “urge to excel” as the most important factor in their development in to the elite level.

Joy studied the social origin and social mobility patterns of selected samples of former athletes from the University of California at Los Angles. The sample represented 20 different sports. The results indicated that the migrants of athletes came from the middle class athletes competing in contact sports tented to come form lower social origins. The athletes competing in non-contact and no-team sports and 60% of the fathers are soccer players were foreign born. Other athletes who had a substantial number of foreign born fathers included wrestlers, tennis players and gymnasts. Athletes from catholic homes were found most in Soccer, Fotball and Basketball where as athletes of Jewish background were predominant in gymnastics, wrestling and swimming. A high % children only were found among tennis players whereas a predominant number of wrestlers were drawn from 2 children families.

Has brook’s study tested a theoretical explanation of low social class background influences the degree and kind of sports participation. A self administered questionnaire was administered to 340 students (80 female athletes, 119 female non-athletes, 80 male athletes and 61 male non-athletes) Results indicated that social class and gender interact such that degree of sports. Participation, as indicated by either of the team combative versus individual/ dual nature of sport or by the expense of participation in a sport, and the social class background of its participants was found.

Greendorfer (2000), studied the socio-economic variables that influence female participation in various types of teams, individual and mixed sports. She hypothesized that sport type would be a function of socio-economic status. The analysis of the social class data which included two measures education and occupation, revealed that team sports participants were identified with lower
identified with higher socio-economic status. Where individual and dual sports participants were identified with higher socio-economic status.

Sharma (2001), studied the differentials of non-sportsman and university representing sportsmen in the total sample on personality, self-concept, intelligence and socio-economic status variables. The subjects were 538 male college students drawn for the states of Punjab, Haryana and Union Territory of Chandigarh. He concluded that (1) He concluded that (1) Hockey sportsmen score significantly higher on the academic status (As) dimension of the socio-economic status. Variable than sportsmen of the remaining four sports groups. (2) The Mean difference in regard to the professional status (PS) dimension, Hockey sportsmen have obtained the highest mean score followed by Football, Hockey, Volleyball and Basketball sportsmen. (3) Intersport income status (IS) differences exist only in the Hockey Vs Basketball comparison, the former being positively higher than the letter. (4) On the social status (SS) dimension, followed by Hockey, Volleyball, Hockey and Basketball sportsmen. (5) The significant differential pattern among the selected sports groups on the composite socio-economic status variable is the same as for as dimension. Hockey sportsmen score the highest of all on this variable followed in the descending order by Football, Volleyball, Hockey and Basketball sportsmen.

Kumar and Singh (2001), studied 70 senior wrestlers undergoing National Coach camp for the XI Asian games held at Beijing, China, September, 1990 These wrestlers senior probable who were selected after the senior national wrestling championship. In order to assess selected psychological traits of socio-economic status, following standardized tests were administered and data was collected: (a) Sports Anxiety Test of Rainer Master’s (Hindi Version), (b) Maundsley Personality Inventory (Hindi Version) (c) Socio-economic Status Scale Questionnaire of Kappor and Kocher (Hindi Version) The analysis of data has clearly revealed that Indian wrestlers of National and International level are extrovert, have low level of sports competition anxiety and possess low level of neuroticism. It was also found that Indian wrestlers come from middle economic status group of the Indian society.

Ravi (2001), studied 314 university Men players selected from various universities of Tamilnadu. The purpose of his study was to ascertain the socio-economic status of Tamilnadu university Men players in Volleyball, Basketball,
Hockey, Kho-Kho, Hockey, Football, Ball badminton, Shuttle Badminton, Table Tennis, Kabaddi and Athletics during the academic year 1989-90. He administered a questionnaire and found that the university Men players preferred the sports and games on the basis of their community, area from where they hail, profession of their parents on the basis of income of their parents. The socio-economic status can also be considered as one of the influencing factors in their selection of the game and consequently their sports excellence.

Karuppain (2001), studied to determine how far the socio-economic status is associated with participation in sports and games. For this purpose he selected 639 university players in all teams. After careful analysis he derived that individual’s socio-economic status influenced his opportunity for participation in games and sports. Some were born from rich families and some from poor families but all the players didn’t participate in all games and sports activities. It was also found that young people growing in poverty ridden society play the games which incurred less expenditure and the people grown in upper class income society played the games which incurred more expenditure. This type of performance had been in existence not only today but from ancient times. This study revealed the same fact.

Muthuraman (2002), studied 420 district level Kabaddi players. The purpose of his study was to ascertain the socio-economic status of Tamilnadu district level school Kabaddi players during the academic year 1989-90. He concluded that out of 420, 190 (45%) were from scheduled community, 185 (44%) were from backward community. A total of 375 (89%) Kababbi players were from backward community and scheduled community.

Thomas (2001), studied the relationship of physical fitness to selected aspect of intellectual and academic performance, co-curricular participation and socio-economic status. His subjects were seventh and eight grade girls and a two called study model was used in conducting this project and combination of analytical and statistical method, for completing this study.

Gives study revealed “peers, as compared with family and teachers were the strongest predictor of children’s active involvement with in the family context, fathers proved to be more significant influential, mothers were from a higher educational background, had greater athletic and were more active both currently and childhood”
Broekoff (2006), studied the relationship between physical measurements and social status. The socio-metric questionnaire was administered to a mixed longitudinal sample of upper elementary school children. The subjects (N) Varied from 170 to 238) who participated in the “Toledo Growth” study were tasted for the physical variables at the end of the fourth, fifth and sixth school year. The socio-metric score were correlated with structural and functional physical variables through product moment correlation procedure. The coefficient was tested for significance at the 01 level. There was a relatively high correlation among boys and girls with regard to the three socio-metric categories such as friend, homework and sports. The agreement between boys and girls in rating of their peer was considerably lower.

Marlin (2006), studied the personality trait scores of South California high school girls in relation to their social class background. His findings showed that the characteristics of outgoing, intelligent, emotional stability, assertiveness, consciousness, imaginative and experimentation appeared to be influenced, by socio-economic background.

Dhami (2005), studied randomly selected students of the age group 14+ and 15+ drawn from classes IX and X of different categories of schools in Punjab and found that intelligence and emotional maturity contributed substantially to success in scholastic achievement. The contribution of intelligence was more than that of socio-economic status. Further the relationship between scholastic achievement and emotional maturity and between socio-economic status and scholastic achievement differed significantly from each other.

Aruna (2009), studied relationship and the extent of relationship of intelligence, adjustment and socio-economic status with characteristics and background of high level athletes of 1980 empire state games showed that those athletes, who were found to rank high academically come from upper middle class families and were early-born in a moderate to small size family unit.

Ross (2007), study has revealed that of the thirteen selected social factors. The student’s family income and the education of the father of the student accounted as the two strongest influences on the rate of participation by the student in recreational activities.
Slotted and Harold (2009), studied that socio-economic status exhibits an inverse relationship with task performance. It has been found that young boys and girls from lower socio-economic level are superior in selected motor coordination task than children hailing from the average and high socio-economic groups.

McIntyre (2009), studied the socio-economic background of athletes representing Football, Basketball, Wrestling and Gymnastics. The analysis revealed that gymnastics come from higher socio-economic background followed by Football, Wrestlers and Basketball players. Percentage of body fat refers to the proportion of an individual’s total body fat. Modern physical education sees these skills more as a means to an end than as absolute or continuing in themselves.

As a matter of fact there are very few movements performed, or skills developed, which are persisted in merely for their own value, even in infancy and childhood. As soon as a goal is desired the movement or skill needed to attain it is practiced. The child who wants the cookie learns to walk over and get it. A child learns to ride a bicycle not just in order to ride the bicycle but to preserve status with the gang, go to school, or show off. Physical training is an older but still used term to describe the training of the physical components of the body without any necessary reference to the purposes which are significant in modern education. It should not be confused with physical education. They are not synonymous, as we shall see in the chapters which follow.

Nor should the term physical education be allowed to imply a separation from the mental and thus perpetuate the unfortunate but traditional notion that man exists as mind and body, and that education is concerned with only one, or at the most two, of these parts. The concept of man as a unified being makes confusion on this score unnecessary. The physical education is most importance part of the score in human life. The natural movement of active plays or influence of everyone who are working in the field of physical education.

It has been said frequently that people in the United States are among the most sports-loving in the world. Each year millions play and other millions watch. It is common for a person to be a spectator at a contest one day and a participant the next. He may watch a baseball game, play golf, take in a tennis match, or fish, all on the
same weekend. There is no great class of spectators and another of participants. Many millions are skilled at both and gain from both certain elemental satisfactions.

How wide is the participation? Such things are not easy to appraise accurately, but it is probably safe to say that if there are forty million children less than 12 years of age, forty million of them at one time or another play tag or two o’cat or hide-and-seek. They develop their own version of baseball on city streets and call it stick ball. Or they play marbles under the elms in the village square. Hundreds of thousands of them annually put on their first roller skates or master the technique of the bicycle. And some are fortunate enough to learn to ski or ice-skate. More than half of them develop a love for swimming in pools and lakes and rivers. Over the years, there has developed a very real conviction that childhood is a time for play and that our children must have a full measure of it if life is to be judged good. Time enough later on, we say, for the serious business of making a living or establishing a home. Play now while you are young and can enjoy it to the fullest!

In American there are roughly fourteen million men and women who fish for sport each year, and thousands more who do it for a living. These fishermen spend a billion dollars a year on their equipment. There are millions of licensed hunters and millions more who shoot for fun at targets. Golf attracts six million people every year, and howling is the favorite sport of perhaps even more. The six billion dollars or more invested in motorboats in the inland and slat waters of the country, when added to the amount spent by those who canoe or sail, brings boating into focus as one of the most popular sports on the American scene. More than seventy million people pay to attend baseball contests each year. They come to see hundreds of thousands of players. Roughly sixty million people watch football each season; the players in action range from little fellows barely able to see from under their oversized helmets to great professionals stars who play the game for money. Dancing in one or more of its various forms attracts vast numbers. Whether in the round dance of the ballroom or the square dance of the ballroom or the square dance of the husking bee or carnival young and old find in dance the answer to their need for self-expression and for fun. The dancing classes of the country are filled with children learning not merely the steps but also the social skills that go with the particular forms of dance most frequently used in our society. Summer find hundreds of thousands bound for the beach, the mountain lakes, and the neighborhood swimming pools. Swimming,
diving, surfboarding, scuba diving, water-skiing, and boating have their devotees; the water seems to challenge the skills of people of all ages. These activities offer emancipation from the restrictions on movement which our society imposes through the highly conventional life we are supposed to lead. People fret under such restrictions and, when the opportunity is at hand or can be created, revert to the natural state of willing participation in play.

Loy (2009), who studied graduate athletes on the nature of their families and found taught 50 percent of Wrestlers. Footballers and Baseball players belonged to families where father did not complete high school education. The investigation further reported that 50 percent of Wrestlers, 30 percent of Baseball players, Track men and Football players, 16 percent of Baseball players, 13 percent of Swimmers and Tennis players come from families were rich people.

Chinmayasarma (2004), studid on Bhogeswar Baruah, the Arjuna award holder in Athletics, in the year 1985. This study shows that he comes under poor family. Bhogeswari baurah was born on 19th November 1940. His father was an uneducated man. The economic condition of his family was not good enough to maintain his outfit. After joining an Army, he set in the inter-state as well as National Level Sports met. He made a number of foreign trips for international meets. He won the gold medal in 800 meters in 1966 Bangkok Asian Games. He was selected for Olympic trail which at Patiala and New Delhi in the year 1966.

In 1967, Lawrence studied socio-economic backgrounds of the varsity better man athletes at the University of Indian. Some of Lawrence’s findings are as followed

1. Only a minority of the father of the athletes were common layman.
2. Athletes in individual sports : however, the team sports athletes fathers had considerably greater sports background22
3. More of the athletes come from city suburbs than from either the main city or from the rural areas.
4. Team sports athletes better in more than one sport to a greater extent than the individual sport athletes. Rajasekar 23 studied of socio-economic background in relation to soccer performance of engineering college
soccer players in Tamilnadu for the purpose of study has selected one hundred men soccer players from various engineering college in Tamilnadu. The variables selected for this study were soccer performance, social status, economical status and educational status.

The printed questionnaires were used to collect data. To find out relationship between variables, zero order correlation, partial correlation and multiple correlations were employed. It was found that there was insignificant relationship between the parent educational status, parents social status and soccer performance of the engineering college soccer players. It was further found that there are significant relationship between the parent economical status and soccer performance of engineering college soccer players.

Baker (2008), in his study dealing with athletes from combative and non combative sports. By using t-test found that athletes in no-combative sports came from families of higher social than did the non-athletes while athletes involved in combative sports come from families little different social status than those of non-athletes. The study also revealed that athletes in club related sports (golf, lawn tannins, swimming) can from families of higher social status than athletes from other sports. However, there was little difference in the social status of athletes in combative sports and the remaining non-combative sports.

Singh (2005), conducted a study on socio-economic background on Indian University Men Soccer players. He collected the subject from 36 university men soccer players from north zone, 32 university men soccer players from east zone, and 35 university men soccer players from south zone. From the results of the study shows east and west zone players comes poor background than the north and south zone.

This study conducted by Guizani et al., (2006) examined the linkage between physical effort, simple reaction time and choice reaction time in fencers and non-fencer subjects. Methods: Two age-matched groups participated in this experiment: 12 professional fencers and 12 sedentary subjects. Each subject performed both simple (SRT) and choice reaction time (CRT) tasks at rest, and while pedaling on a cycle ergometer at 20%, 40%, 60%, and 80% of their own maximal aerobic power (Pmax). Results: At rest, no significant differences were found between experts and
sedentary subjects neither in SRT nor CRT. The fencers showed shorter CRTs at 40%, 60% and 80% of Pmax compared to those measured at rest. In contrast, SRTs did not vary as a function of effort level. In sedentary subjects, workload did not affect SRTs and CRT. Moreover, the error rate remained stable for each group over all conditions. Conclusions: Current results showed that physical load results in enhancing information processing as measured by CRT without affecting SRT. The data provides evidence that aerobic exercise enhances attentional capability in fencers who are used to process information under similar physical conditions, but not in sedentary subjects unfamiliar to this environment.

Harmenberg et al., (2001) tested three different procedures to analyze fencing performances. The test subjects were ten world class épée fencers from the Swedish national team. The procedures involved measurements of reaction time and response time to different stimuli. Test 1 measured the lunging performance as a response to a light. Tests 2 and 3 measured more complex fencing movements as response to a more fencing-like starting procedure. The results showed that test 3 but not tests 1 and 2 could differentiate between world class fencers and beginners (p less than 0.006). The reaction time in test 3 correlated significantly (p less than 0.01) with competition success within the group of world class fencers.

Koutedakis et al., (1993) carried out, anthropometric measurements on seven British international male épée fencers, using a maximal treadmill running test, a 20-s Wingate-type test, and isokinetic dynamometry. Testing was conducted on two occasions, 5 to 6 months apart, during mid-off-season (preparation) and mid-in-season (competition) periods. Maximal oxygen intake (VO2max) and maximal respiratory exchange ratio (Rmax) were among the parameters obtained from the treadmill test, while peak and mean anaerobic power outputs were measured during a 20-s maximal effort. Knee extensor and flexor muscle forces from both dominant (leading) and non-dominant (trailing) legs were observed seasonal variations in performance related physiological parameters in fencers.

Sixty-six college women enrolled in either of 2 beginning fencing classes or 2 health classes in the required PE program were tested by Fiburzi (1970) for muscular
endurance of the legs and for agility, using selected tests. The Edgren Side Step Test and the Scott and French Shuttle Run were used as measurements of agility, and the successive number of leg lifts and the successive number of squat thrusts that could be performed until exhaustion, using a designated cadence, were used as measurements of muscular endurance of the legs. Testing was conducted at the beginning and completion of a 5 week programme of fencing, for the experimental group, or health, for the control group. The control group did not participate in any planned activity program.

Williamson (2002) conducted a study on validity of selected tests used to measure fencing ability of college women for this purpose he enrolled women in 6 beginning fencing classes (n=100) and were given a Subjective Rating of Bouting Ability and an alternative criterion of tournament ranks. The tests validated were a Lunge Accuracy Skill Test and a Subjective form rating. Results indicated that the Lunge Accuracy skill Test and the subjective form rating were not valid measures of beginning fencing ability.

Linder (2000) conducted a study in which two groups were involved: a “visual emphasis” group (n=9) practiced in the dark against luminous electrical wall targets for 5 min. each session; a “conventional” group (n=8) practiced against the same targets under standard conditions of light. Skills included in the study were the thrust, lunge, advance-lunge, and retreat-lunge, Assessments of S’s performances were recorded weekly for 6 weeks. Subjective reactions of Ss to their experience were solicited by means of a questionnaire. No differences in performances between degrees of complexity of footwork were found. According to the questionnaire, “visual emphasis” Ss generally agreed that the experience was unpleasant. A descriptive analysis of the data suggested that: the dependence on peripheral cues was more crucial for men than for women, especially during the addition of more complex footwork; autistic factors, transfer effects, the relationship of attention to reinforcement, and vie versa might account for some of the findings; and individual differences had a marked effect on the outcome of the study.
Reilly and Jean (2001) conducted a study to discover which instructional method—speed, accuracy, or speed and accuracy—should be used during the initial stages of skill acquisition to produce the most successful fencer. Sixty female college students in 3 beginning fencing classes served as Ss with each class receiving different instructional emphasis. A solid state testing apparatus was designed to measure 2 response time measures and an accuracy score. A significant difference was found in favour of the speed group, speed and accuracy group, and the accuracy group, respectively, on the response time measures. A fencing tournament was held to determine which in situational emphasis produced the most successful fencer. Four criteria were set up to evaluate fencing performance. Results showed no significant difference between the performances of the 3 groups. A correlation matrix showed no relationship between the skills tests and the fencing bouts.

Rattray (2007) using the State- Trait Anxiety Inventory, a method of limits procedure, and advancing and retreating frequency on the fencing strip, 49 co-ed students, enrolled in 2 beginning fencing classes, were tested for anxiety levels and interpersonal distance preference in both a social and a sporting situation. Results indicated low positive rs between state and trait anxiety for the total group, and for the high advancers, and high positive r for the close personal distance preference group. No significant differences were found to exist when the following data were compared: state1 and state2 anxiety for the total group, state 1 anxiety and distance preference groups, and trait anxiety and distance preference groups. No r was found between the 2 interpersonal distance situations.

Avimeleh (1977) tested 35 coed students from 2 fencing classes in the basic instructional program at PSU. The Bower Test of General Fencing Ability was employed to measure Ss fencing performance and the Gough ACL produced the achievement scores. A round robin tournament was conducted having Ss record (on the basis of 1-10 points per bout) how they thought they would do against each opponent, to determine level of aspiration. The discrepancy score was the difference
between the individual’s level of aspiration and actual performance. or % of bouts
won for high and low achievers; and males and females did not significantly differ in
need achievement, level of aspiration or performance.

Trautmann and Rosenbaum (2008) investigated the trained forty (n=40) male
college Kho Kho players aged ranged from 20 to 30 years from Pravra college of
physical education. Their cardiovascular efficiency was assessed by administering
three test viz., Harvard step test \( r = 0.63 \) \( p < 0.01 \) 8 minute run test \( r = 0.60, \) \( p < 0.01 \)
The experimental group underwent training of Pranayama (Viz., Anulom-Vilom,
Ujjayi, Suryabhedana & Bhashrika) in two session of 45 minutes each day morning
and evening 6 days a week for total period of 3 months. The subject of control group
did not participate in the above interesting activities separately during experimental
period. The result of ANCOVA revealed 1) Treatment affect of pranayama on three
test of cardiovascular efficiency were not effected 2) Harvard step test could measure
C.V. efficiency with insufficient reliability \( r = 0.30, \) \( p > 0.05 \) whereas the other tests
i.e. 8 minute run test and 1600 M run test could measure this variables with
acceptable reliability \( r = 0.82, P< 0.01, r = 0.80, p< 0.03 \) selected Pranayama were
found useful in improving cardiovascular endurance of Kho Kho players.
administered the Edward present performance schedule (EPPS) to baseball and tennis
players and a group of non athletes. He found that’ non athletes scored higher’ than
baseball group in other autonomy. The tennis group was higher than the baseball
group.

Other studies have also shown that athletes are higher in those straits
associates higher in those traits associated with leadership, power prestige esteem and
sociability. The hypothesis that athletes in a given sport posses traits specific to that
sport inj supported by the evidence as Kroll’s study indicated certain sports attract
certain types of athletes. For example, at is the performance of the individual tennis
players that determined whether the match is won or lost because tennis is not a sport
requiring group to operation or effort, tennis players might not score on sociability or
extroversion. On the other hand they might be expected to square high in dominance.
Individual sport might attract participants who fit Alderman’s definition of
dominance.
Researchers have attempted to differentiate between superior and inferior performance in various sports.

Kroll & Carlson (2006) reported no difference between participant of various levels of ability in wrestling and karate. Singer in a previously mention study comparing baseball and tennis players also found no difference between highly successful and less successful tennis players. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports offering unusual sensation and personal challenges.

For the purposes of the RESPECT project, however, it is necessary to have some sort of functional definition. This short discussion paper is designed as the first step towards the development of such a definition. As the project develops, this definition will be tested in relation to the actual practices of socio-economic researchers, whose activities, qualifications and professional affiliations will be profiled as part of the project's work.

In the meantime, a brief survey of projects described as socioeconomic research projects indicates that they cover a very broad range in relation to the backgrounds and qualifications of the researchers, the methodologies used and the subject matter addressed. It is clear that drawing a clear boundary around these projects that will distinguish them from other fields of endeavour, is likely to be extremely difficult, if not impossible. There will therefore inevitably be areas of overlap with many other types of research, for instance with medical research, with mathematical modelling, or with documentary art. The outputs of socio-economic research may also be difficult to distinguish from other types of publication, for instance from journalism, biography or technical manuals.

Hayward (2011). conducted a study on “Socio-economic Benefits of Sport”, CIGEPS Journal. At the Plenary Session of the Intergovernmental Committee for Physical Education and Sport (hereinafter referred to as “CIGEPS”), which took place at UNESCO Headquarters from 7 to 8 July 2010, discussions were had over the best means to reorient CIGEPS to make it more effective. As part of this process, it was agreed that the Committee should have a strong advocacy function. It was also agreed
that, in order to be credible and effective in this role, CIGEPS should consider commissioning high quality research into key sport and physical education issues and to oversee the wide dissemination of this information. One proposal, as outlined by the Secretariat, could be to develop a succinct economic analysis of the contributions that sport and physical education make to social and economic development.

This report presents draft terms of reference for research into the socio-economic benefits of sport and physical education. It is recommended that CIGEPS considers these terms of reference and directs the Secretariat to commission the research.

Singh (2004), selected 80 sportswomen and studied the socio economic background of sports women of Amritsar district and found that

5. Most of the sports women came from higher caste in terms of traditional caste system.
6. Most of them belonged to low and lower middle class families.
7. Religion could be seen as an influencing factor in sports participation.
8. Social back ground had effect on participation in sports.

Adhirana (2008) studied that female sports participation was a function of socio economic status. More specifically, team sport participants come from a lower social class back ground, where as individual and dual sport participants come from higher social class back grounds.

Sohi and Yusef (2009), conducted a study on 90 female elite athletes from12 sports and found that the athletes of racket sports mostly come from middle and low social classes. Athletes from team sports more in number belonged to low status.

Mangayarkarasi (2001), analysed socio economic status and its influence on the athletic ability of high school girls and found that family plays a crucial role affecting athletic performance.

Thomson (2000), presents data of 185 females (age 10+2 years) who were actively involved in the sport of orienteering in New Zealand to illustrate characteristics of their participation and to high light contrasts with women's sports
participation in other sports. Results indicate that the predominant age group of orienteering (30-39 years) was usual for female sports participants, although their socio economic status (SES) was consistent with other research findings. Immediate social circles of friends and family appeared to be the strongest influences on participation; however, enjoyment appeared to be derived predominantly from intrinsic aspects of the sport.

Pierson, (2008), peers were important agents for stimulating interest in most of the sports, while teachers and coaches appeared to be most influential than peers in stimulating interest in track and field. Family influence was noticed in generating interest in traditional spectators sport.

Synder and Spreitzer (2001). have worked on "Socialisation of Adolescent female athlete and musicians". The purpose of their study was to compare the social background, characteristics and psychological attributes of high school girls who were participating in interscholastic athletics and music. The findings showed a clear correlation between selective parental encouragement and participation in these two extra curricular activities. Moreover, the findings showed no evidence of psychological stress among the female athletes in comparison to the musicians.

Geendolfer (2001). in his study examined whether differences existed between the systems of socializing agent’s family and peers of school, during three life cycle stages. She found that during childhood, the female participating was more likely to have been influenced by peers and family respectively, than by teachers and coaches. At the adolescent stage, the influence of family and teacher had great influence. During young adulthood, the most influential agent was the peer group.

Snyder and Spreader (2003), analyzed family influence on sports and found that involvement in childhood is reinforced by parental encouragement continuously into middle age and diminished during the last stage of life cycle.

Masoud (2003), The role of the family in the socialisation of Children into sports", the purpose of this study was two fold: (1) to investigate the role of significant - others in general and the role of mothers in the socialization of children into sports, and (2) to examine in greater detail the role of mothers in the sports socialisation of children as well as to consider the process of sex typing and its relationship to sports.
It was concluded that the value that girls play on sports is equal to the value boys play on sports. Peers compared with family and teachers were the strongest predictors of children's active sports involvement within the family context, fathers proved to be the most important agents of sport socialization.

Greendolfer (2008), provides descriptive information related to age of first sports participation, type of sports and influence of socializing agents. His study was based on a sample consisting of 585 women athletes. He found that approximately 70 percent of women were participating in some form of sports by the age of 8. Further more, the entire sample was actively involved at the age of 14. Regarding relation to agents responsible for sports participation/involvement, he found that 39.5 percent were stimulated by family. 31.3 percent by neighborhood, 23.6 percent through school, 3.4 percent through community, and 1.7 percent through other clubs. In this study major population of the sample was stimulated by family, neighborhood and school.

Marie (2002). concluded that, attitudes towards women in sports have been slow to change the myth. It has become difficult to allay the fear that sport activities will produce bulging muscle which imply masculinity. Young girls are frightened away from the sports.

Sohi (2003), found that the family is an institution which has its own attitudes towards sports involvement and it has definite influence on the children. Parents have usually a tendency to be extra careful about the first issue. This protection again results in different type of sports involvement. Usually, the child coming first on the ordinal position, selects activity which is not full of risk and danger, the children at the lower position indulge in combative and dangerous games and sports.

3. A Significant positive relationship was reported between the attitude scores of mothers and fathers on physical activity, and
4. Positive attitudes towards physical activity by mothers and fathers were found.

Research findings relating the advantages of parental involvement have virtually gone unnoticed. A survey of 1,270 parents and 3,700 teachers conducted by EPSTEIN indicated that the majority of parents had neither the time nor the inclination to participate deeply in school matters. Over 75 percent never helped teachers or participated in school functions.
Alexander (2008), attributed the under representation of black women in sport to a number of factors, including lack of money for lessons and equipment, lack of role models, lack of affirmative action on the part of colleges, and lack of available opportunities in geographical areas of minority population concentration.

Jim et. al. (2006), in their study addressed the need to look at girls sporting participation from a different perspective. In addition to identifying girls sport participation and variables associated with participation and dropout. This study described the sporting experiences, and the decisions associated with those experiences, of a group of girls opposing traditional pressures by participating in a "Male" sport. This study involved 105 girls between the ages of 13 and 18 years. A structural questionnaire was administered to all the sample, with follow up semi structured interviews being conducted with fifteen of the participants. The issues of enjoyment and friendship were the key elements in the decisions of these girls to play soccer. They sought a social sporting experience rather than a competitive sporting experience.

Organised sports and self efficacy positively associated with physical activity. Enjoyment of vigorous physical activities, friend support for exercise, perceiving benefits from exercise and participation in organised sports were significant and correlates of physical activity among older (16-18 years) African American females. Among younger white females attitudes and enjoyment of vigorous physical activity significantly associated with physical activity. The sole significant influence on physical activity among older white female was participation in organised sports. Tentatively, determinnts of physical activity appear to differ by age and race among adolescent females from rural south Carolina.

Genders on most of the nine items as well as the scale total for both samples. In all cases where differences were evidenced, women reported being more accepting than did men. In general this research suggests that the physical activity acceptance scale shows promise as a reliable and valid measure of individuals perceptions of women who engage in traditionally masculine sport and exercise activities. The physical activity acceptance scale may be particularly applicable in areas such as rehabilitation, where participation in sport or exercise may be hindered by gender role stereotypes.

Decker (2005), is of the view that orientation towards a moral or self interested point as was determined by children's moral point of view scale. The children's moral
point of view scale was administrated to 106 children from a public elementary. They were randomly selected. The children's moral point of view scale to assess the moral point of view of fifth and sixth grade in both every day sports. Twenty eight prosocial behaviours were selected, 14 in sports context and 14 in every day life contexts. The 28 situations were collected from an initial list of 45. Each subject was assigned a specific level of participation in youth sports and recorded a scale for sports point of view and life point of view. Means, standard deviation and standard errors were calculated on Apple Macintosh using super Anova programme, A three factor ANOVA was employed to determine the interaction of the variables. Significance was accepted at .05 level.

He found that it is probably unrealistic to expect students to adopt completely moral point of view. There is no difference found between limited, moderate or extensive participants on life or sports scores. When males and females were compared on level of sports participation, sports and life scores, moderate participants did not differ, indicating less influence of organised sports on their point of view.

Michelles (2005), in his study examined the relationships between competitive and recreational sports structures, gender and athletic motivation. Subjects completed the sports motivation scale, valid reliable measure of sport motivation which assesses 3 types of intrinsic motivation, 3 types of extrinsic motivation and motivation.

Daniel (2005), felt that a variety of issues relating to gender and sports have been investigated, an examination into the possible inequalities in sports psychology and sociology journals had not been conducted. Such an investigation was focused in this topic. Specifically data relevant to the gender of the authors and subjects from sports psychology and sociology journals for the years 1987 -1991 were recorded. It was found that female authors were under represented in terms of overall proportion of authors, proportion of first authors, and proportion of sole authors. Further more female subjects were under represented in terms of studies examining, only one gender as well as those investigating both genders.

The findings suggested that socio cultural incentives affected collegiate athletes initial interest in Judo and personal excellency with in Judo participation. Also socio
cultural environment influenced the athletes participation in Judo more specifically their expectations and support for participation in Judo. Physical education 2. To determine the strength of the variables or factors which deter participation in organised physical education activity or programme. 3. To compare deterrents to participation in physical education and multiple socio-demographic variables.

Al-khatib studies male elite athletes who were the participants in Iraqi National teams in a variety of sporting events. The data were collected my means of a questionnaire. The data were analyzed by descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients. Results of the study revealed thal. (1) elite male athletes received the greatest amount of influence from pears. (2) Teachers and coaches encouragement of the athletes participation in sport was significantly related to the athletic participation. (3) There was significant relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards associated with sports participation and commitment to sport (4) Significant relationship between participation and sports availability of facilities and programmes (5) No significant relationship between parent’s attitude and sports participation (6) elite male athlete’s current participation in sports was significantly related to their socio-economic status. (7) One of the significant findings in this regard was that the athletes reported “urge to excel” as the most important factor in their development in to the elite level.

Joy studied the social origin and social mobility patterns of selected samples of former athletes from the University of California at Los Angles. The sample represented 20 different sports. The results indicated that the migrants of athletes came from the middle class athletes competing in contact sports tended to come form lower social origins. The athletes competing in non-contact and no-team sports and 60% of the fathers are soccer players were foreign born. Other athletes who had a substantial number of foreign born fathers included wrestlers, tennis players and gymnasts. Athletes from catholic homes were found most in Soccer, Fotball and Basketball where as athletes of Jewish background were predominant in gymnastics, wrestling and swimming. A high % children only were found among tennis players whereas a predominant number of wrestlers were drawn from 2 children families.

Has brook’s study tested a theoretical explanation of low social class background influences the degree and kind of sports participation. A self
administered questionnaire was administered to 340 students (80 female athletes, 119 female non-athletes, 80 male athletes and 61 male non-athletes) Results indicated that social class and gender interact such that degree of sports. Participation, as indicated by either of the team combative versus individual/ dual nature of sport or by the expense of participation in a sport, and the social class background of its participants was found.