5. The investigation of the study may work like a crusader, if properly disseminated, are likely to facilitate the task of the psychologist, coaches and physical trainer in their better understanding of the players. Such an understanding of players may prove to be great assistance in prediction of their future performance in games and sports as well as in actual life situation.

6. To understand the nature and limitation of anxiety of an athlete and help the coaches in identifying the right type of talent for a particular games and sports.

7. The results of this study would help to develop new scientific methods and concepts in training to enhance the performance of players.

8. The study would also be helpful in providing an appropriate guidance to the researchers to undertake similar problem in other games, so that the best criteria for selection of players may be constructed for better performance.
CHAPTER-II

Review of Related Literature
Chapter-II

Review of related literature

Review of related literature is a significant aspect of any research work to know, what others have learned from similar research situations and to help in the formation of hypothesis for the study. It also implies, locating, reading and evaluating reports of earlier conducted researches casual observation and opinion that are related to the researchers planned academic programme and brings to light the unexplored aspect and in a way it helps in providing guidelines for carrying out the research. A systematic survey of literature has many advantages such as (a) it gives insight and relevant information about the field understudy (b) it projects new thoughts and ideas for future research in the concerned area (c) it also provides the opportunity to compare different aspects of setups of the field in which research is being carried out.

In the light of above description, this chapter is set to deal with relevant studies and researches which sets light on the variables, which are used in the present study.
Self-esteem

Soyer (2011) the relation between the motivation to succeed and self-esteem in sports and determine their correlation with age, sport experience, sport type, gender, and the level of education. The study included randomly selected 467 athletes (275 male and 192 female) from 14 sport branches. The mean age of the participants was 21.84 ± 3.85 years and the mean duration of sporting experience was 9.57 ± 4.76 years. Based on the data regarding elite athletes, there was a statistically significant positive relation between motivation to succeed and self-esteem. There was a significant correlation between self-esteem and gender. There was also a significant relation between self-esteem values of athletes in team sports as well as in individual sports.

Karademir, Acak and Coban (2011) determined self esteem levels of the young people who are in search of identity in adolescence period according to some socio-demographic variables. The necessary support and assistance should be provided for the young people in order to create a positive frame of mind. The present study administered Rosenberg’s Self Esteem Scale to 124 males and 46 females, a total of 170 people all of whom participated in the special ability examinations in order to attend physical education and sport teaching departments at university. It was
found that there were statistically significant differences in levels of self-esteem according to age, graduation degree, hometown, self-description and description of family, participation in social activities, attitudes and behaviors of the families towards the adolescent. However, there was no significant difference according to gender, alma mater, income level of the family. The levels of self esteem are found highly in other variations except for variations of fragmented and indifferent family.

Maleki, Mohammadzadeh, Seyed and Sani (2011) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and achievement motivation among successful and unsuccessful athletes in West Azerbaijan Province. Two-hundred athletes were divided into two groups of successful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females) and unsuccessful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females). The results showed that there is a significant correlation between self-esteem and achievement motivation in both studied groups. Moreover, successful and unsuccessful athletes significantly differed in terms of self-esteem and achievement motivation so that self-esteem and achievement motivation were significantly higher in successful athletes compared to unsuccessful athletes.

Aryana (2010) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement in the pre-university students. Additionally, it
aimed to identify whether there are differences in academic achievement between boys and girls. The random sampling was used for collecting the data and as a consequence 50 male and 50 female were chosen randomly. The questionnaires were distributed amongst 100 students in Qaemshahr schools. The results demonstrated that there was significant (p<0.01) positive relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. Moreover, there was significant difference in academic achievement between boys and girls. However, no significant difference was found in self-esteem between males and females.

Orth, Robins and Trzesniewski (2010) examined the development of self-esteem from young adulthood to old age. Data came from the Americans’ Changing Lives study, which includes 4 assessments across a 16-year period of a nationally representative sample of 3,617 individuals aged 25 years to 104 years. Latent growth curve analyses indicated that self-esteem follows a quadratic trajectory across the adult life span, increasing during young and middle adulthood, reaching a peak at about age 60 years, and then declining in old age. No cohort differences in the self-esteem trajectory were found. Women had lower self-esteem than did men in young adulthood, but their trajectories converged in old age. Whites and Blacks had similar trajectories in young and middle adulthood, but the self-esteem of Blacks declined more sharply in old age.
than did the self-esteem of Whites. More educated individuals had higher self-esteem than did less educated individuals, but their trajectories were similar.

Lai, Lu, Jwo, Lee, Chou and Wen (2009) explored the effects on junior high school students' self-esteem of a self-esteem program incorporated into the general health and physical education curriculum. 184 seventh-grade students at two junior high schools in Taipei City were randomly selected and separated into two groups. The experimental group received one 32-week self-esteem program incorporated into their regular health and physical education curriculum, which was administered in three 45-minute-session classes each week. The control group received the regular health and physical education with no specially designed elements. The experimental group was significantly superior to the control group in respect to physical self-esteem \((p = .02)\). For girls, the experimental group was significantly superior to the control group in family self-esteem \((p = .02)\). However, there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of global self-esteem.

Joshi and Srivastava (2009) investigated the self-esteem and academic achievement of urban and rural adolescents, and to examine the gender differences in self-esteem and academic achievement. The sample of this
study consisted of 400 adolescents (200 urban and 200 rural) from
Varanasi District. The boys and girls (aged 12 to 14) were equally
distributed among the urban and rural sample. Self-esteem was measured
by Self-esteem questionnaire and academic achievement was measured
by academic school records. The findings indicated that there were no
significant differences with regard to self-esteem of rural and urban
adolescents. There were significant differences with regard to academic
achievement of rural and urban adolescents. Urban adolescents scored
higher in academic achievement as compared to rural adolescents. Boys
would score significant higher on self-esteem as compared to girls.
Significant gender differences were found in academic achievement.
Girls were significantly higher on academic achievement as compared to
boys.

Baharudin and Zulkefly (2009) investigated the quality of relationships
between college students and their mothers and fathers, and its correlates
with their self-esteem and academic achievement. A sample of 386 on-
campus students of University Putra Malaysia, who were identified via
cluster sampling, completed a self-administered questionnaire. Results
showed that generally the students had good quality relationships with
their mothers (adjusted mean=3.78/5.00) and fathers (adjusted
mean=3.67/5.00). Girls seemed to report better relationships with both
parents compared to boys. The students rated themselves as having high level of self-esteem (adjusted mean=2.99/4.00) but, moderate in academic achievement ($M=3.10/4.00$). Female and male students did not show any significant difference in self-esteem; however females outperformed their male counterparts in academic. Further analysis showed that the quality of parent-students relationship was positively and significantly related to self-esteem and academic achievement. Students with good quality relationship with their parents evaluated themselves positively compared to others. Nonetheless, only those with good relationships with their mothers rather than their fathers showed good performance in school.

Nagar, Sharma and Chopra (2008) have been conducted with an aim to know the self-esteem of adolescent girls and the factors affecting in Kangra District of Himachal Pradesh. A total sample of 112 school going girls in the age range of 14 to 19 years were selected from five villages of Kangra district. Self esteem was measured through self esteem scale and the means and percentages were calculated. Results indicated that majority of the girls had average scores of self-esteem with an average of 83.56. Self-esteem scores were found to be positively correlated with the educational status of the girls. The analysis also revealed that the family type of girls affected the scores of self-esteem.
Madlem and Bridges (2007) studied increases in self-esteem of eighth-grade students after participation in regular physical education and yoga-enhanced physical education classes. Self-esteem was measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was given pre, mid, and post test in both the experimental and control group. The results showed that over the course of the eight-week intervention, self-esteem did increase in both the experimental and control groups. There was no significant difference in self-esteem between regular physical education activities and yoga. The study revealed the importance of physical activity, including yoga, for enhancing self-esteem.

Griffin and Kirby (2007) investigated that physical activity is associated with improvements in self-esteem and body image perception. This study examines the differences between the sexes on the affect of activity on self-esteem and body image. Self-esteem was measured using the 10-item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale; body image was assessed by the 23-item Body Cathexis Scale. These questionnaires were given to individuals belonging to three different groups: physical exercise (n=20), computer course (n=20) and no intervention control (n=20). They were administered on two occasions, at the start of the activity and after six weeks. It was found that in males but not in females, Body image
perception of individuals in the physical exercise group showed a significant improvement after 6 weeks as measured by the Body Cathexis Scale. Again, for males only, the self-esteem of individuals on the computer course significantly improved as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.

Hein and Hagger (2007) examined a theoretical model of global self-esteem that incorporated constructs from achievement goal and self determination theories. The model hypothesized that self-determined or autonomous motives would mediate the influence of achievement goal orientation on global self-esteem. Scales were administered to 634 high school students aged 11 – 15 years. A structural equation model supported the hypotheses and demonstrated that autonomous motives mediated the effect of goal orientations on global self-esteem. The results suggest that generalized motivational orientations influence self-esteem by affecting autonomous motivation and is consistent with theory that suggests that experiences relating to intrinsic motivation are the mechanism by which global motivational orientations are translated into adaptive outcomes like self-esteem.

Aktop and Erman (2006) investigated relationship between achievement motivation, trait anxiety, and self-esteem. One hundred seventy five male
engage in sport active, were a student in Akdeniz University School of Physical Education and Sport, aged from 18 to 25 years participated the study voluntarily. As a result of correlation analysis, it was found that there was a significant positive correlation between power motive, motive to achieve success and self-esteem and there was a significant negative correlation between trait anxiety and self esteem. As well as sport experiences level showed that there were significant differences in favour of high sport experiences group in power motive, motive to achieve success and self-esteem. It was found that self-esteem and trait anxiety value of subject were related significantly. Self-esteem was affected by sport experiences level and subjects who were in high experiences group had higher self-esteem value than the other groups. Results indicate that self-esteem is an important trait for achieving success in sport.

Milligan and Pritchard (2006) examined whether gender, type of sport (lean vs. non-lean), body dissatisfaction and self esteem were associated with disordered eating behaviors in Division I college athletes. More female than male athletes displayed disordered eating behaviors; approximately one-quarter of the population was at risk for a clinically diagnosable eating disorder. The results also revealed that females in non-lean sports (basketball, tennis, golf, soccer, and skiing) and males in lean sports (track, wrestling) displayed the highest level of disordered eating
behavior and body dissatisfaction. Finally, results showed that for women, disordered eating behaviors were predicted in order by: body dissatisfaction, self esteem and type of sport (lean v. non-lean), whereas for men, disordered eating behaviors were only predicted by body dissatisfaction.

Basich (2006) studied that Females have historically been discouraged from participating in physical activity and sports. Research however has found that females, especially young adolescents, benefit greatly from physical activity and sports. Physical activity not only promotes a higher sense of self esteem in women but also provides a greater sense of body image and overall well being throughout life. It has been shown that women that engage in physical activity as young adults tend to continue to stay active later in life, leading to a greater sense of self esteem. With the evidence that has been shown in past research and the research that was administered, the researcher attempted to encourage the inclusion of regular physical activity and sports participation in the daily lives of adolescent girls. The purpose of this study was to determine whether regular physical activity and sports participation had an impact on the self-esteem of adolescent girls. A quantitative experimental design was used, utilizing stratified sampling. The researcher used a nominal scale survey to gather data from girls between the ages of 14 to 18. It was
hypothesized that girls would show that regular physical activity and sports participation affected their self-esteem in a positive way.

Binsinger, Laure and Ambard (2006) studied to measure the influence of a regular extra-curricular sports practice on self-esteem and anxiety. They conducted a prospective cohort study, which has included all of the pupils entering the first year of secondary school (sixth grade) in the Vosges Department (east France) during the school year 2001-2002 and followed during three years. Data were collected every six months by self-reported questionnaires. 1791 pupils were present at each of the six data collection sessions and completed all the questionnaires, representing 10,746 documents: 835 boys (46.6 %) and 956 girls (53.4 %), in November 2001, the average age was 11.1 ± 0.5 years (mean ± standard deviation). 722 pupils (40.3 %) reported that they had practiced an extra-school physical activity in a sporting association from November 2001 to May 2004 (ECS group), whereas, 195 (10.9 %) pupils had not practiced any extra school physical activity at all (NECS group). The average global scores of self-esteem and trait anxiety of the ECS pupils were, respectively, higher and lower than those of the NECS group. However, the incidence of moderate or severe decrease of self-esteem was not significantly different between the two groups, a finding that was also evident also in the case of trait anxiety. Finally, among ECS pupils, the
incidence density of severe decrease of self-esteem was lower at the girls’.

Rattan, Kang, Thakur and Parthi (2006) examined the Individual’s self-esteem has been shown to be linked with physical appearance. A random sample comprising of 100 male and 100 female (N=200) adolescents was selected. The subjects were administered the Current Thoughts Scale and the Dieting Beliefs Scale for assessing their state self-esteem and their weight locus of control. The result revealed that boys had significantly higher appearance self-esteem than girls, while girls had significantly higher dieting belief in comparison to boys. Performance self-esteem was positively and significantly correlated with social self-esteem and appearance self-esteem in the total sample, and the sub-samples comprising of boys and girls.

Frost and McKelvie (2005) investigated on one hundred and twenty seven male and female elementary school, high school and university students who were classified as high or low exercisers completed questionnaires that measured global self-esteem, body satisfaction, and body build. For all participants combined, high exercisers reported greater self-esteem than low exercisers, showing that the positive relationship between exercise activity and self-esteem is robust across sex and age. High
exercising male participants had a bigger body build than low exercising male participants, and they also reported greater satisfaction with specific aspects of their bodies (body-cathexis).

Ekeland, Heian and Hagen (2005) found the adolescents who engaged in a regular extracurricular sports practice had greater self-esteem and lower trait anxiety than adolescents who did not engage in these activities. However, the link of causality between sports and self-esteem remains to be established: some studies show that physical exercise can improve self esteem in children and young people.

Wild, Flisher, Bhana and Lombard (2004b) have found no “protective impact” of an extra school physical activity over a period of 3 years: the ECS group showed as much moderate or severe variation of self-esteem or trait anxiety as the NECS group. Considering that self-esteem and trait anxiety certainly do not only depend on sports practice, but also on the adolescents’ social, school, and family life.

Bowker, Gadbois and Comock (2003) studied to examine the role of gender, sports participation, and gender orientation in predicting individuals’ domain-specific and global self-esteem. A sample of 100 Grade 11 students completed measures of self-perception, body image, gender orientation, and sports participation. The results showed that
although boys reported greater satisfaction with weight and appearance, there were no gender differences in general self-worth. In addition, more feminine individuals who participated in competitive sports reported lower levels of perceived athletic competence and global self-worth, but reported higher self-esteem when they participated in more noncompetitive sports.

Emil (2003) examined the frequency of university students with self-esteem level. Three hundred forty one university students from different grades and departments of Middle East Technical University have been participated in this study. To examine the percentage of students with high and low self-esteem, frequency of the participant was calculated. In addition, independent samples t-test was applied to investigate the difference between male-female and achiever non-achiever students on self-esteem, while Pearson product moment correlation was applied to examine the relationship between self-esteem and stressful life events. It was found that there were 302 students (88.6 %) with high self-esteem level, while there were 39 students (11.4 %) with low self-esteem level. According to independent samples t-test results, it was found that achiever students’ self-esteem score was higher than non achiever students whereas there is no significant difference between male and female on the self-esteem score. Finally, it was found that there is a
significant relationship between self-related anxiety/problems, environmental, adjustment, family problems and academic events/problems and self-esteem.

Gotwals and Wayment (2002) stated that the relationships between self esteem, self evaluative information use, and athletic performance were examined among 103 intercollegiate athletes. As predicted, personal standards were rated as the most useful form of information with downward social comparisons and feared selves information as the least useful. Athletes high in self esteem used more personal standards and ideal selves information and fewer feared selves. Higher self esteem was associated with better athletic performance. Controlling for self esteem, hours practiced, and social desirability, better athletic performance was associated with using upward, lateral, and downward social comparisons. Athletes using negative performance information from the past performed more poorly.

Richman and Shaffer (2000) did find a positive relationship between sports participation and general self-esteem, in the absence of enhanced physical self-esteem and positive body image as moderators, sports participation had a negative influence on global self-esteem in college women. Sports participation may influence global self-esteem indirectly.
Greater sports participation may enhance physical self-esteem, which in turn, predicts more positive global self-esteem.

Paterson (1999) conducted a study of identify self esteem development as an explicit objective in youth sport has received some attention during the past decades. This study explored the relationship between the self perceptions of cricketers aged 13-15 years (N=22) and their perceptions of their coaches’ application of 10 instructional strategies. Data collection included: (a) pre and post-season (10 weeks) measures of players’ self esteem using Harter’s (1985) self perception profile for children; (b) pre and post-season measures of players’ cricket self-perceptions, affective outcomes derived from cricket participation, and cricket motivation orientation using a cricket-specific adaptation of Klint’s (1988) affect inventory; and (c) players’ post-season perceptions of their coaches’ application of 10 coaching strategies using an inventory designed by the author. Pearson product moment correlations (r) were used to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables. Results revealed: (a) significant correlations between dimensions of self esteem, cricket self-perception and the affective outcomes of pride, excitement and happiness, and (b) significant correlations between the cricketers’ perceptions of their coaches application of the instructional strategies and
dimensions of their post-season self esteem cricket self perceptions, affective outcomes and intrinsic motivation orientation.

Rowley, Sellers, Chavous and Smith (1998) examine the relationship between racial identity and personal self-esteem (PSE) in a sample of African American college students \((n = 173)\) and a sample of African American high school students \((n = 72)\). Racial identity was assessed using the Centrality and Regard scales of the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity, Riur predictions were tested: (a) racial centrality is weakly but positively related to PSE; (b) private regard is moderately related to PSE; (c) public regard is unrelated to PSE; and (d) racial centrality moderates the relationship between private regard and PSE. Multiple regression analysis found that racial centrality and public racial regard were unrelated to PSE in both samples. Private regard was positively related to PSE in the college sample. Racial centrality moderated the relationship between private regard and PSE in both samples, such that the relationship was significant for those with high levels of centrality but no significant for those with low levels.

Blake and Rust (2002) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and self-efficacy among college students with physical and learning disabilities. Participants included forty-four (44) undergraduate students
and four graduate students registered with a university's office for students with disabilities. Collective Self-esteem, Membership Self-esteem, Private Self-esteem, and Public Self-esteem were positively and significantly correlated with General and Social Self-efficacy. Scores were found to be similar to scores from the normative samples. Thus although self-esteem and self-efficacy were significantly related to each other, they were largely unrelated to disability status.

Zimmerman, Copeland, Shope and Dielman (1997) studied self-esteem levels of male and female students across four years of high school and grouped the participants into four different categories characterized by the trajectory of their self-esteem. These four groups were: consistently high, moderate and rising, steadily decreasing, and consistently low. Females were more likely to be classified in the decreasing steadily group compared to males, whereas males were more likely to be classified in the moderate and rising category than females. Although the relationship between gender and self-esteem is still not completely understood, there is evidence to suggest that females experience a decrease in self-esteem during adolescence. This evidence is contrary to the increasing self-esteem patterns found for adolescents in general. However, when self-esteem levels for male and female adolescents are reported as a combined group, the higher levels of self-esteem for males may mask the patterns of
females’ self-esteem and produce an overall increasing trend in self-esteem for adolescents.

Baldwin and Courneya (1997) examined the relationship between exercise participation and self-esteem in women who had been treated for breast cancer. The RSE was used to measure self-esteem and the Godin Leisure Time Exercise Questionnaire measured exercise participation. This included questions about the frequency of mild, moderate and strenuous exercise in a typical week. Physical acceptance was measured by the Body Image Visual Analogue Scale (BIVAS) and physical competence was assessed by the Physical Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES). Significant correlations were found between exercise participation, physical competence, physical acceptance and global self-esteem, except physical acceptance was not significantly correlated with exercise participation. Path analysis demonstrated that physical competence mediated the effect of exercise participation on self-esteem.

Gordon (1995) found that students who participated in extracurricular activities placed more emphasis on goals and goal setting. Her study revealed that students believed that they gained immediate and long-term benefits from their participation in extracurricular activities. So the Self-esteem is associated with successful goal accomplishments.
Nelson (1994) investigated the relationship between girls' self-esteem and sports participation indicates a positive correlation. During this time of emotional and physical maturation and uncertainty, there is reason to believe that girls who actively engage in sports will have higher self-esteem than their non-athletic peers. Sports participation affords girls the opportunity to develop physical competence and de-emphasize the importance of physical attractiveness as the greatest measure of their self-esteem.

Leith (1994) examine that women would have poorer self-esteem and body image than men, that body image would improve as a consequence of physical activity (this would have a affect on self esteem), that self esteem might improve as a consequence of participating in an academic course intervention (but this would not effect body image) and there would be differences between the genders in scores on both of these indexes. It was also predicted that in both genders self-esteem and body image would improve when compared to a control (no intervention) group.

Horn and Claytor (1993) found that “exercise as a therapeutic intervention had the greatest positive impact on the self-esteem of emotionally disturbed youth”. But can one expect the same gains in self-
Review of Related Literature

esteem in a physical education class that includes yoga as an integral part of its curriculum.

Battle (1993) stated that self-esteem is a subjective evaluative phenomenon that gradually develops and once established, "tends to be stable and fairly resistant to change". Battle supports the notion that self-esteem is multidimensional, i.e., it consists of an overall or general element; a social dimension which consists of an individual's perception of his or her interpersonal peer relationships; an academic dimension which refers to an individual's perception of his or her ability to succeed academically, and finally a parental or home dimension which accounts for the individual's perception of parental influence.

Jaffee and Manzer (1992) has shown that “girls aged nine to twelve build self-esteem through challenge, achievement in sports, risk taking experiences and skill development. The 76 subjects are used for conduct the study. Older girls derived positive self esteem through the approval of others and a belief that girls in general are capable and able to play sports well.”

Merrill, Melnick and Mookerjee (1991) investigated the effects of advanced weigh training on body-cathexis and self-esteem. The 27 college students participated in an advanced weight-training course while
a control group of 30 completed a physical education major theory course. Both groups were administered the Rosenberg self-esteem scale and Jourard body-cathexis scale prior to and at the conclusion of a 16 week field experiment. The weight-training subjects had significantly higher self-esteem and body-cathexis scores than the control group which were attributed, in part, to significant improvement in their body composition, maximal strength, and strength endurance scores.

Scanlan and Passer (1981) conducted a study that examined the pre and post game expectancies of young male soccer players. The post game expectancies were significantly affected by level of self esteem, especially if the player's team had lost the game. Losing players with high self esteem had very positive outlooks (hoped for future selves information) concerning a rematch with the team that had just beaten them. However, losing players with low self esteem expected to be beaten by the same team if a rematch occurred (feared selves information).
Self-Concept

Kumar, Sharma and Singh (2011) associated between self-concept and abuse of alcohol and psychoactive substances have been documented in empirical studies involving high school and college students. For this study 30 drug addicted subjects were selected. After pre test of self concept divided into two groups i.e. pranayamic activities group or experimental group and controlled group with 15 subjects each. Pranayamic activities group have been given a training for 10 weeks in their respective discipline where as controlled have not been given any such type of specific treatment as per the nature of the study. Result of the study shown significant effect of pranayamic activities on all five dimensions of self concept where as controlled group could not show any significant result.

Bisht and Tiwari (2011) compared the self concept and socio-economic status (SES) of Indian soccer referees of different levels. The total 200 Indian male, (active and retired both), FIFA, national and state football referees were taken as subjects. The subjects were divided into two groups, group one consisted of India’s 100 FIFA and national referees combined together (elite referees) and group two consisted of India’s 100 state level referees (state class 1st, 2nd, 3rd referees combined together).
The result indicated that elite soccer referees (FIFA and National referees) have better self concept than state level cocker referees. Level of self concept of Indian soccer referees is not significantly related to their socio-economic status.

Khan and Ahmed (2011) compared the psychological variable of self concept upon 24 north zone and all India (N=12 north zone and N=12 all India) football player participants. The finding of the statistical analysis revealed that the major contrast of study was insignificant difference between the north zone and all India football players on variable self concept.

Awan, Noureen and Naz (2011) examined the achievement and its relationship with achievement motivation and self concept. The subjects consisted of 336 students (146 males and 172 females) from four public and four private schools of the Sargodha district at the secondary level. Intact groups of all eight schools enrolled in 9th grade were involved in the study. An Urdu translated version of ‘Academic Self-Description Questionnaire II’ (Marsh, 1990) and ‘General Achievement Goal Orientation Scale’ (McInerney, 1997) was used. The results revealed that achievement motivation and self concept are significantly related to academic achievement.
Neeraj and Saini (2011) studied the self-concept of adolescent girls from rural and urban areas. A sum of 200 adolescents girls from six different colleges from Muzaffarnagar district ranging in age from 13-19 years were served as sample. Out of which 100 adolescent girls from urban area and 100 adolescent girls from rural areas were included to the sample. Self-concept of the respondents was assured through self-concept rating scale developed by Dr. Rajkumar Saraswat. There was found to be significant difference between the respondents from rural and urban area at self-concept. The adolescent girls from rural areas had high self-concept.

Kumari and Mangayarkarasi (2010) compared the self concept between male and female hockey players of different age categories. To achieve this purpose of the study, 300 hockey players were randomly selected as subjects. Among them, 75 male hockey players and 75 female hockey players with age category 15 to 17 years and 75 male hockey players and 75 female hockey players with age category 18 to 20 years were selected. The results of the study indicated that there was a significant difference between male and female hockey players of different age categories.

Carraro, Scarpa and Ventura (2010) examined the relationships between physical self-concept and actual indicators of physical fitness among
youth in early adolescence. A total of 103 Italian boys and girls, ages 12 to 15 years were studied. Physical self-concept was assessed using the Physical Self-Description Questionnaire, Euro-fit tests were used to measure physical fitness, and BMI was calculated based on height and weight measurements. Results showed several significant correlations between the variables, revealed some sex differences on physical self-concept and fitness, and indicated significant correlations between Euro-fit scores and physical self-concept variables.

Aktop (2010) analyzed the physical fitness, self-concept, attitudes toward physical education, and academic achievement of Turkish elementary school children by socioeconomic status. 198 (101 boys, 97 girls) students were taken for the study. Significant differences were found between the groups of Low and High socioeconomic status (SES) in terms of physical fitness and academic achievement. While the Low SES group had higher mean scores on physical fitness, mean academic achievements of the High SES group were higher. Mean differences in height, self-concept, and children's attitudes toward physical education by socioeconomic status were not statistically significant.

A survey of 140 female students selected through random sampling was conducted in Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, southern Iran. The finding of the research indicated that there is a significant negative correlation between the physical self-concept and body image dissatisfaction. The correlations magnitude ranged between 0.49-0.79 for body image dissatisfaction. Body image dissatisfaction correlated strongest with physical self-worth and with body physical self-concept in female students in Iran.

Yahaya, Ramli, Boon, Ghaffar and Zakariya (2009) studied to identify the relationship between the dimensions of personality, self-concept and family influence. The sample consists of 214 students from two secondary schools in the FELDA settlement in Johor. The results show a weak relationship between the dimensions of personality and self-concept, and between the dimensions of personality and family cohesiveness. However, there is no relationship between the dimensions of personality and the religious/moral and freedom aspect. The results also show that there is a strong relationship between self-concept and family cohesiveness and a moderate relationship between self-concept and the religious/moral aspect. However, there is no relationship between self-concept and freedom.
Gupta and Kumar (2007) explored the impact of yoga on adjustment and self-concept. The study was conducted on 100 subjects (60 males and 40 females) doing a fourth-month Hindi certificate course in yogic studies at Bihar Yoga Bharti, Mungar, Bihar. Results indicated that the practice of yoga had a significant impact on different areas of adjustment as well as in building a positive image about oneself.

Murcia, Gimeno, Lacárcel and Pérez (2007) studied the practice of physical activity and sport and the extent of physical activity and sport practice outside of school hours in relation to the physical self-concept of older primary schoolchildren in Physical Education classes. The sample was comprised of 1086 participants, 570 boys and 516 girls ranging in age from 10 to 11 years. The construct validity of the measure was supported by findings that revealed that individuals who engaged in sport practice outside of school hours, and who engaged in a greater frequency of sport practice outside of school hours, had more favourable self-concept of competence and confidence in physical activities than did those engaged in less physical activity outside of school. Results in relation to gender indicated that boys had higher levels of perceived competence and greater self-confidence that did the girls in relation to sport activities, whereas the girls had a more favourable perception of their physical appearance and physical strength than did boys.
Dishman et al. (2006) examined the self-concept and self-esteem would mediate cross-sectional relations of physical activity and sport participation with depression symptoms among 1,250 girls in 12th grade. There was a strong positive relation between global physical self-concept and self-esteem and a moderate inverse relation between self-esteem and depression symptoms. Physical activity and sport participation each had an indirect, positive relation with global physical self-concept. The finding revealed that physical activity and sport participation might reduce depression risk among adolescent girls by unique, positive influences on physical self-concept that operate independently of fitness, body mass index, and perceptions of sports competence, body fat, and appearance.

Knapen et al. (2005) study was to compare the changes in physical self-concept, global self-esteem, depression and anxiety after participation in one of two 16-week psychomotor therapy programs for non-psychotic psychiatric inpatients. One hundred and ninety-nine inpatients were randomly assigned to either a personalized psychomotor fitness program. The results suggest after 16 weeks, both groups showed significant improvements in all outcome measures, with no between group differences. In both groups, the improvement in physical self-concept was correlated with increased global self-esteem and decreased depression.
and anxiety levels. Finally both psychomotor therapy programs are equally effective in enhancing physical self-concept.

Mummery, Schofield and Perry (2004) examined that how self-concept, social support and coping style can act as protective factors against the potentially deleterious effects of negative performance in competitive sport. A cohort of swimmers ($N = 272$) competing at the Australian Age National Championships was examined to discriminate between three performance-related outcomes - initially successful performance, resilient performance and non-resilient performance. A discriminant function analysis revealed two main discriminant functions. The first discriminated resilient performers from the other two groups. Resilient performers showed higher self-perceptions of physical endurance, but lower perceptions of perceived social support from significant others than the other two groups. The second discriminant function discriminated initially successful performers from resilient and non-resilient performers. The initially successful performers scored more highly than the other groups on the coping with adversity, this study demonstrates a relationship between psychological constructs and a measurable performance outcome.
Barkhoff and Heiby (2004) investigated that some athletes repeatedly fail in competition in spite of good results during training (training champions). Some athletes are able not only to transfer their achievements from training to competition, but often surpass them and achieve even better competition results (competitor types). Other athletes are less consistent in the transfer of performance during training and competition (mixed types). They studied on these three types of elite athletes differ in terms of self-concept, body-concept, and daily mood. Thirty-two athletes in artistic roller and figure skating participated in this study. Findings indicated that, compared to training champions, competitor types exhibited more positive self- and body-concept. Concerning mood, there were no differences among the three groups but changes over time were found.

Klomsten, Skaalvik and Espnes (2004) investigated the gender differences in physical self-concept among elementary- and secondary-school students. The results indicated significantly higher physical self-concept in boys than in girls in eight sub-domains, as well as global physical self-concept and self-esteem. Physical self-concept decreased with increasing age, and there was a significant age by gender interaction in the global physical, body fat, appearance, sports competence, and strength dimensions. Physical appearance was the sub-domain that most
strongly predicted global self-esteem. The present investigation demonstrated gender differences in multifaceted physical self-concept.

Chung (2003) examined differences of Physical self-concept between PE major and non-PE major students in Hong Kong. 184 university students (92 PE majors and 92 non-PE majors, with equal numbers of males and females in each major) studied in a university in Hong Kong. The result revealed that the mean vector scores of PE major in the following scales: coordination, endurance, flexibility, activity, sports competence, strength, and global physical were significantly higher than that of non-PE major was not significantly different in this study. The result may reflect that males and PE major students, who usually spent more time on physical activity and sports training, tend to have better fitness and skill oriented self concept than their counterparts.

Kha (2002) ascertained the significant differences and relationship between the self-concept, interest and motives between school sports girls and non-sports girls of Rajasthan. The sample comprised of 800 sports and non-sports girls of age range 14-16 of class IX and X from 32 districts of Rajasthan. The result showed: (1) Sports girls belong to secondary schools are having better self-concept and interest in sports activities than non-sports girls. (2) Sports girls and non-sports girls have
similar type of motives and equal self-concept. (3) Sport girls have better motives than the non-sports girls. (3) Sports girls of secondary schools were excellent in the variables i.e. interest, motives and self-concept. (5) Regression equation results demonstrate that self-concept could be predicted on the basis of scores of interest and motives. (6) The interest is positively and significantly related to self-concept. The relationship of motives and self-concept, however, is significant and negative and as such motives alone cannot be a reliable predictor of self-concept.

Kaur (2001) found the correlation with the values of self-concept and independent variables such intelligence, creativity and achievement of rural and urban schools. A sample of 510 girls students (230 rural + 280 urban) were taken, studying in Class IX. The result revealed that the variable of intelligence and creativity to be positively significant with self-concept in urban as well as in rural. No correlation found between the variable of achievement and self-concept. It is revealed that variable of achievement contributed 13.6% variance in predicting the self-concept of urban girls.

Marsh (1998) examined the physical self-concepts of both athletes and non athletes in grades 7-10. Results indicated significant gender differences between boys and girls across ages on all subscales of
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physical self-concept (except Health) and although the differences were smaller, male athletes reported higher levels of physical self-concept than female athletes. Both male and female athletes reported higher levels of physical self-concept compared to non-athletes, indicating that sport participation can contribute to positive perceptions of the physical self. The contribution that sport participation makes toward positive physical self perceptions may be especially true for females, as the difference in athletes’ and non-athletes’ physical self-concepts was significantly larger for females compared to males.

Sharma (1993) investigated relationship of self concept adjustment of performance of team sport. The sample consisted 240 male players selected randomly from the institution of Chandigarh. He used the Saraswat (1984) Self Concept Scale and found that high performance of football players found negative relationship with physical, temperamental self concept, physical and moral self concept, significant difference was observed among four groups on moral, intellectual and total self concept.

Marsh (1993) studied the relationship of the physical fitness, self concept and academic achievements for a large national representative sample of more than six thousand Australian boys and girls. Correlation between self concept and corresponding external criteria increased steadily with
age in both the physical and academic domains. Findings suggest that the fitness and self concept were strongly related to some individual measures such as 1.6 km run, 50 mt. dash, push-ups, skin fold thickness, long jump and body girth scores and some components of physical fitness such as cardiovascular endurance, power, dynamic strength and body composition than others. The finding of the above mentioned study indicates that the self concept and athletic performance are related with each other.

Gill and Rao (1992) investigated that relationship between self concept and physical fitness among 169 secondary school boys aged between 13 to 18 years. The physical fitness of each subject was gauged by AAHPER Youth Fitness Test (1973). Self concept was measured by administering the written test of self concept in Hindi standardized by sharry, verma and goswami. Data was analyzed statistically by computing correlation, co-efficient and applying the test of “least significance difference”. Results showed no significant correlation between scores on physical fitness and self concept except a low correlation between the scores of health and physical dimensions of self concept with composite physical fitness scores. The group a very good self concept was found to be much superior in physical fitness as compare to the group having lower degree of self concept.
Raj (1991) compared the motor fitness self concept and adjustment and the effect of self concept and adjustment problems on motor fitness among Indian and Anglo-Indian boys of St. Mary school, madras. The data was collected 200 hundred school boys (N-100 Indians N-100 Anglo-Indians) ranging in age from 13-17 years. The findings revealed that Anglo-Indian boys scored higher on motor fitness and self –concept in compression to other group. Self concept had positive influence on motor fitness for both the groups with adjustment problems negatively influence the motor fitness of both the groups.

Zaharopoulos and Hodge (1991) suggested that sport participation enhances self-concept and also investigated the relation between sport and self-concept. This cross-sectional study examined differences between adolescent athletes (n=63), and non-athlete (n=50), and gender, in levels of multidimensional self-concept. The result found that athletes differed significantly from non-athletes in physical ability self-concept but not in global self-concept and that female did not differ from males in physical ability self-concept. They also refute the assumption that sport participation enhances self-concept in general, suggesting instead that sport may affect a particular area of self-concept rather than other areas.
Kumari (1988) investigated the self-concept of sports and non-sports school girls of Himachal Pradesh. The total sample drawn was 600 (300 sports and 300 non-sports). Saraswat (1984) self-concept scale was administrated. The finding indicated that sports girls from rural as well as urban areas scored comparatively higher on physical concept and social concept and temperamental self-concept as compared to non-sports girls.

Mathew and Ranganathan (1987) compared volleyball and football players on various dimensions of self-concept towards their physique and health. Overall behavior and habits showed similarity for volleyball and football players, and both the group tended to have similar emotional tendencies but the volleyball players showed significantly higher self-concept with regard to mental health.

Singh and Debnath (1986) studied the relationship of competitive performance and self-concept of Indian gymnasts. The results indicate that the higher performance group scored higher on self-concept and compared to the poor performance group. They claim that the better performance of the group could be attributed to its better self-concept.

Guyot, Fairchild and Hill (1981) assessed the relationship of sports participation, body build and self-concept in 50 boys and 58 girls scoring below the 59th percentile, and 87 boys and 88 girls scoring above the 70th
percentile on a physical fitness motor ability test. The subjects were in grade 4-6 both boys and girls in high physical fitness group scored significantly higher on self concept than boys and girls in low physical fitness group. Sport participation correlated higher with self concept and physical fitness of the girls. Finally, body build correlated with the self concept of girls but not with self concept of the boys.

Young (1981) compare the self-concepts of two specific groups of female athletes, tournament level high school and college basketball players. Subjects were 107 High School and 66 college women in various tournaments. In each instance the college players received the higher, more positive score. Investigates the self-concept of two specific groups of females (high school and college basketball players) and compares these groups with each other and with the norm group. Data were collected from athletes using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Found significant differences between the high school players and the norm groups in four of the TSCS subscales and on three subscales for the college players and the norm group. The greatest number of significant differences occurred between the high school and college players.

Bruggeman (1977) studied the relationship between self concept and the ability to learn a novel motor skill was examine 301, eight grade female
physical education students were given as self concept, from these scores, one group was labeled low self concept. Both the group was given and adopted dyer backboard tennis test as a measure of their ability to learn a novel motor skill. The initial and final novel motor skill tests of six trails were compared. It was found that both the group improved significantly between their initial and final novel motor skill tests. However there was no significant difference between the two groups on their initial novel motor skill test, but the greater gain was within the high self-concept group.

Gomatimani and Gonsalves (1977) conducted a study on self concept of student teachers in relation to their performance in practice teaching. They found that teachers with more teaching experience have better self concept than teachers with less teaching experience. Besides age has some influence on self concept. Lower age accompanied by better Review 99 self concept and more effective teaching. Socio-economic background have also influence on self concept.

Hilmi and Morrison (1976) conducted a study on 100 athlete representing men and women from both high school and college, were compared to 100 non athletes in their self concept and self actualizing traits and less than average in their self concept while male high school athletes differ to
some extent, from the non athletes in both self concept and self actualizing female college athletes from the non athletes in self actualization only. Female high school athletes and male college athletes did not differ significantly from their counterparts.

Darden (1972) compared the self-concepts of athletes belonging to individual sports, team sports and team individual sports. In multiple discriminate analyses, the researcher found significant difference in self concept among the individual sports and team-sports whereas no difference was observed in the self-concept between the combined individual sports and combined team-sports.

Johnson (1971) carried out the study to gain an understanding of the inter relationship between a student's level of physical fitness. He found out that Negro high school boys were superior to white boys in strength, cardio-vascular endurance, state of health, physical appearance, skill and sexuality. A greater relationship between physical fitness and self-concept was found among white than that of the Negro high school students.

McClanney (1969) studied on two groups of college men, namely high fitness group and lower fitness group, on a comparison of their personality characteristics a measured by cattell’s sixteen personality
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factors questionnaire. Self concept and academic aptitude, he concluded that high fitness group appeared to be more dependent while the lower fitness group was more self-sufficient. Also the subjects high fitness group appeared to be more trusting free of jealousy. Whereas those were in the low fitness group seemed to be more suspicious and self opinionated.

Competitive Anxiety

Khan and Ali (2011) carried out to examine possible significant differences in cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and self confidence among elite male and female wrestlers. The present investigation was used to form the samples as twenty five (N=25) medalist (12 male and 13 female) randomly selected from different weight categories in All India interuniversity wrestling competition. For this purpose measuring instruments was used Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2, after that collected data was analyzed by using t- test to find out the significance differences between male and female elite wrestlers on above mentioned sub- psychological variable and the level of significance was set at 0.05 level of confidence .The obtain result advocate that each sub-variable (cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and self confidence) findings in
contrast and that found insignificance difference among elite male and female elite wrestlers.

Singh, Singh, and Yadav, (2011) compared the pre-competitive and post-competitive anxiety in inter-university basketball players. A group of 30 players (15 of each sex with age group of 18-25) were selected from Amritsar, Punjab, India through purposive sampling technique. Data were collected from athletes using a Sports Competitive Anxiety Test. The result of the study reveals that there was significant difference in 0.01 levels of pre-competitive anxiety and post competitive anxiety among the male and female inter-university basketball players.

Sharma (2011) examined the multidimensional pre-competitive state anxiety of university badminton players. The sample consisted of 49 male players and 41 female players who had competed in the badminton competition organized by the Manipur University, Imphal from 25.12.2009 to 31.12. 2009. The Revised Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 was used to examine their multidimensional pre-competitive state anxiety. Result indicated that there was no gender difference in pre-competitive somatic anxiety, however, gender difference was found with male players experienced higher than female players in pre-competitive cognitive anxiety.
Sisodiya and Purashwani (2011) studied the relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety of inter-university level male and female shuttlers i.e. badminton players. For this purpose, 30 (15 males and 15 female) shuttlers were randomly selected as subjects, who participated in west zone inter-university badminton tournament. Findings showed no significant relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety of male and female badminton players of inter-university level.

Khan, Haider and Ahmed (2011) explored the difference of competitive anxiety between male and female badminton players. The data was collected from the 40 badminton players (20 male and 20 female) from the north zone interuniversity badminton tournaments. The result found that there is insignificant difference between the male and female players on the variable of competitive anxiety.

Tsopani, Dallas and Skordilis (2011) examined the competitive state anxiety and self-confidence of rhythmic gymnasts participating in the Greek national competition. 86 participants, ages 11 and 12 years, completed the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2, 1 hr. before competition. The athletes, classified by performance (high and low performance) and participation in the finals (finalists and nonfinalists),
responded to the three subscales: Cognitive Anxiety, Somatic Anxiety, and Self-confidence. The result indicated differences in Self-confidence between high versus low performance groups and finalists versus non-finalists. No significant differences were found on Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety. In a regression analysis, Self-confidence was the only significant predictor of performance for this sample.

Sharma and Hussain (2011) examined the relaxation technique is prerequisite to get rid from pre-competition anxiety and master self-confidence. 45 subjects were selected and were randomly allocated to one of the three groups. Group-1 (autogenic relaxation); Group-2 (progressive muscular relaxation) and Group-3 (control). Autogenic relaxation technique and progressive muscular relaxation technique was administered for 15-20 minutes. Pre-test and post-test control group design was used for this research experiment. Somatic anxiety, cognitive anxiety and self-confidence were measured. There was significant reduction in somatic anxiety and cognitive anxiety and improved self-confidence in both group 1 and 2 than group 3 (p<0.05) whereas no significant difference was observed in group 1 and group 2.

Kumar, Bhukar, Jhajharia and Rathore (2011) found the anxiety level between the medalist and non-medalist male weight lifters. The subjects
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(N=32) weight lifters from different universities, who had participated in all India intervarsity of weight lifting championship 2009-10 held at GNDU, Amritsar. It was hypothesized that there would be a significant difference of anxiety among medalist and non-medalist male weight lifters. The result revealed that medalist and non-medalist male weight lifters had significant difference in relation with state anxiety, as the calculated t value 2.41 was found more than tabulated t value 1.69 for state anxiety. Whereas, calculated t value 1.00 for trait anxiety was found lesser than tabulated t value 1.69 to be insignificant at 0.05 level of significance.

Besharat and Pourbohlool (2011) examined the moderating effects of self-confidence and sport self-efficacy on the relationship between competitive anxiety and sport performance in a sample of Iranian athletes. A total of 246 volunteer athletes (149 males, 97 females) were included in this study. All participants were asked to complete Multidimensional Competitive Anxiety Questionnaire and Sport Self-Efficacy Scale. To measure the athletes’ sport performance, their coaches were asked to complete the Sport Achievement Scale. The results revealed that self-confidence and sport self-efficacy moderated the relationship between competitive anxiety and sport performance. Analysis of the data revealed that moderating effects of self-confidence
for the association of cognitive and somatic dimensions of competitive anxiety with sport performance were partial. On the other hand, the moderating effects of sport self-efficacy for the association of cognitive and somatic dimensions of competitive anxiety with sport performance were full.

Ali, Singh, Khan and Rahaman (2011) compare the level of multidimensional trait anxiety between university and national level hockey players of Uttar Pradesh. For the purpose of this investigation 40 male subjects (20 university and 20 national level players) were recruited as subjects of the study. Their age was ranged from 17 to 25 years. To find out the level of anxiety of university and national level players the multidimensional trait anxiety Test developed by Martens (1977) was administered on the subjects. 't' test was employed to analyze the data. Results have revealed that there was no significant difference found between intervarsity and national level hockey players of Uttar Pradesh in regard to multidimensional trait anxiety.

Ali, Rahaman and Khan (2010) studied to compare the level of anxiety between male and female national weight lifters of Manipur. Forty (40) weight lifters (male = 20 and female = 20) who have participated in the national championships were taken as the subjects. The age of the
subjects ranged from 17 to 25 years. Results of the study revealed no significant difference between male and female national weight lifters of Manipur with regard to sports competition anxiety.

Singh and Singh (2010) studied to compare the anxiety level between cricket and athletic players. The total N=40 interuniversity level (20 cricketer+20 athletes) male players between the ages of 18 to 25 years were selected for this study. The result showed that there were significant difference among athletes and cricketers in the level of anxiety. While comparing the level of anxiety between athletics and cricket players the cricket players got lesser range of scores than athletes. This shows the higher level of anxiety among athletes in comparison to the cricket players presented in this study.

Cooper (2010) evaluated the relationship between level of competition and competitive sport anxiety in youth recreational soccer players. Participants consisted of 76 youth athletes’ ranging from ages 10-15 who participated in two specific levels of youth soccer: recreational league (beginner) and classic league (advanced). Results revealed a significant difference in cognitive A-state anxiety for the classic league participants over the recreational league participants. Univariate analysis results confirmed no significant effect from the interaction between level of
competition and gender or level of competition and age for both anxiety subscales.

Dureha, Singh, Yaduvanshi and Mishra (2010) studied to compare the status of national and international hockey players on the selected psychological variables. Sixty male hockey players of India divided into two groups national (n=30) and international (n=30). The age range of the subjects was 17–25 years. They found insignificant difference in incentive motivation, achievement motivation, state anxiety and trait anxiety between national and international hockey players and significant difference was found in sports competition anxiety.

Mudimela (2010) studied the impact of level of participation on psychological factors such as aggression, anxiety, achievement motivation and performance. Six hundred and twenty-five soccer players representing three different levels that is, inter-university, inter-district, inter-collegiate, constituted the sample of the study. Significant differences were found among three levels of participation with regard to aggression achievement motivation and performance only. Aggression and achievement motivation contributed significantly to performance whereas anxiety is found to have negative impact on the performance.
Parnabas and Mahmood (2010). Examined competitive anxiety level as influenced by gender, levels of skills, and performance. The main aim of the study was to describe and compare the anxiety differences before and during competition among different categories of skills of athletes and genders. The data were collected from nine hundred two (902) athletes using a 27 item Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2. After analysis of collected data, their results showed that national level and male athletes obtained the lowest score on competitive state anxiety variable.

Bois, Sarrazin, Southon and Boiche (2009) investigated the psychological characteristics of professional golfers and their relation to golf performance. The data were collected from 41 male professional golfers the day before an official competition. Results revealed that players who made the cut were characterized by higher scores on performance-approach goal, cognitive and somatic anxiety, relaxation strategies, attentional control, emotional control and lower score on performance-avoidance goal. Subsequently, a multiple regression analysis revealed that higher cognitive anxiety, more frequent use of relaxation strategies and emotional control strategies were associated with better player’s ranking at the end of the competition.
Parnabas, Mahmood and Boateng (2009) used of cognitive and somatic coping strategies to deal with anxiety (cognitive and somatic) to increase performance is an integral part of sports. The sample consisted of 902 Malaysian athletes, and comprised of national athletes (N=53), state athletes (N=395), district athletes (N=120), university athletes (N=211), and school athletes (N= 123). The results showed that male and national athletes used the highest level of cognitive strategies. It was also found that male and district level athletes used the highest level of negative coping strategies. There was also a negative correlation between cognitive and somatic coping strategies, and cognitive anxiety. National and state level athletes had the highest level of performance and school level athletes’ the lowest. Athletes, who used the highest levels of cognitive, somatic or negative coping strategies, achieved the highest performance in sports.

Rokka, Mavridis, Bebetsos and Mavridis (2008) evaluated the levels of intensity and direction of the competitive state anxiety in junior handball players prior to a competition and to investigate any possible differences between male and female players, as well as in relation to their athletic experience. The sample of the study consisted of 115 handball players, members of eight handball teams (four male and four female), which participated in the Greek Junior Handball Championships finals held in
Athens in 2008. The results showed that male junior handball players reported lower scores of cognitive anxiety, which was facilitative to performance. On the other hand, females displayed a higher score in cognitive anxiety, which was rather debilitative to performance. Furthermore, junior male handball players displayed higher self-confidence, with positive effects on their performance, while female handball players stated lower self-confidence, which was neither facilitative nor debilitative to performance. In relation to years of experience, the results revealed that players with four to six years of experience showed higher self-confidence with facilitating direction, while players with less years of experience displayed lower self-confidence, with neither facilitative nor debilitative effects on their performance.

Kaur, Sharma and Dureha (2007) studied to find out the relationship between achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety among inter university hockey players. 50 male hockey players who participated in the All India Interuniversity Hockey Championship 2007 held at Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi were randomly selected for this study. Their age ranged between 18 years to 25 years. Finding of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety of interuniversity
level male hockey players and there was a significant difference in the level of achievement motivation of high pre-competition anxiety group and low pre-competition anxiety group of interuniversity level male hockey players.

Hatzigeorgiadis and Chroni (2007) have examined to explore relationships between pre-competition anxiety and in-competition coping in swimmers. Thirty nine male swimmers with international competitive experience participated in his study. Correlation analysis showed that intensity of cognitive anxiety had low to moderate negative correlations with approach coping strategies, and low to moderate positive relationships with avoidance coping strategies.

Neil, Mellalieu, and Hanton, (2006) examined multidimensional anxiety and psychological skills usage as a function of skill level in rugby union players. For their study they collected the data from 115 male rugby players under the age of 18 to 36 years. They found that elite and nonelite athletes differ in their use of psychological skills to cope with their experiences of symptoms associated with competitive anxiety. Specifically, nonelite performers primarily use relaxation strategies to reduce anxiety intensity while elite athletes appear to maintain intensity
levels and adopt a combination of psychological skills to interpret symptoms as facilitative.

Stoeber, Otto, Pescheck, Becker and Stoll, (2006) argued that perfectionism in sports is maladaptive because it is related to dysfunctional characteristics such as higher competitive anxiety, the present article argues that striving for perfection is not maladaptive and is unrelated to competitive anxiety. Four samples of athletes (high school athletes, female soccer players, and two samples of university student athletes) completed measures of perfectionism during competitions and competitive anxiety. Across samples, results show that overall perfectionism was associated with higher cognitive and somatic competitive anxiety. However, when striving for perfection and negative reactions to imperfection were differentiated, only the latter were associated with higher anxiety, whereas striving for perfection was unrelated to anxiety. Moreover, once the influence of negative reactions to imperfection was partial led out, striving for perfection was associated with lower anxiety and higher self-confidence. The present findings suggest that striving for perfection in sports is not maladaptive. On the contrary, athletes who strive for perfection and successfully control their negative reactions to imperfection may even experience less anxiety and more self-confidence during competitions.
Amy (2005) examined the relationship between multidimensional pre-competitive state anxiety and situational factors of university badminton players. The sample consisted of 49 male players and 41 female players who had competed in the badminton competition organized by the Hong Kong Post-secondary Colleges Athletic Association in 2004. Results indicated that there was no gender difference in pre-competitive somatic anxiety, however, gender difference was found with male players experiencing higher than female players in pre-competitive cognitive anxiety.

Aufenanger (2005) examined the relationship between mental skills and interpretation of anxiety in athletes participating in open versus close skill sport. Eighty-eight open skill athletes and 40 close skill athletes were taken for the study. The results indicated that open and close skill athletes differed in intensity, but not interpretation, of somatic anxiety and self-confidence. Several mental skills were predictive of athletes' interpretation of anxiety and self-confidence as facilitative to their performance. Also, open and close skill athletes differed in how their mental skills related to intensity of anxiety and self-confidence.

Kais and Raudsepp (2005) examine the relationship between the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety, self-confidence and
performance in basketball and volleyball players prior to different matches. Male basketball (n=12) and volleyball players (n=12) completed a modified version of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 prior to 11 different matches, and a total of 132 questionnaires overall. The inventory included an intensity subscale as well as direction sub-scale for somatic and cognitive anxiety. The findings revealed a moderate level of state anxiety and very high self-confidence of the players before the matches. The cognitive and somatic anxiety and self-confidence were stable prior to the different matches. Correlation analysis showed that the intensity and direction of somatic and cognitive anxiety and self-confidence of the players were not related to their athletic performance. However, the intensity of cognitive anxiety was positively and moderately related to their athletic performance.

Hanton, Thomas and Maynard (2004) investigate the symptom responses associated with competitive anxiety through a fine grained measurement approach. Male athletes (N = 82), separated into two skill classifications (club N = 45 vs. national N = 37) taken for the dimensions of intensity, direction and frequency at five pre-competition times (1 week, two days, one day, 2 h, 30 min). The result indicated main effects for skill level and time-to-competition with no interactions. For skill level differences, national athletes were more facilitative in their interpretation of the
symptoms associated with cognitive and somatic anxiety. For change-over-time effects, intensities of cognitive and somatic anxiety increased and self-confidence decreased between 2 h and 30 min pre-competition. Frequencies of cognitive anxiety increased from seven to two days, one day to 2 h and 2 h to 30 min pre-competition; frequencies of somatic anxiety increased from seven days to two days and 2 h to 30 min pre-event; frequencies of self-confidence increased from seven to two days.

Hanton, Mellalieu, and Hall, (2004) explored the psychological skills. Specifically, elite performers reported using cognitive confidence management strategies including mental rehearsal, thought stopping, and positive self-talk to protect against debilitating interpretations of competitive anxiety. Collectively, therefore, these findings suggest therefore that elite athletes may be utilizing more psychological skills in order to enhance self-confidence and protect against the potential debilitating effects of stressful situations.

Hamstra, Burke, Joyner and Hardy (2004) determine that psychological skills training (PST) programs influenced athletes’ levels and interpretations of anxiety, concentration, motivation, and coping resources. Two female collegiate swimmers high in anxiety and low in motivation and coping skills were selected from a participant pool of 53
swimmers, divers, volleyball, and soccer players. Both athletes completed an inventory packet consisting of a modified version of the Sport Anxiety Scale, Sport Motivation Scale and the Athletic Coping Skills Inventory-28 as well as an interview before and after an eight-week personalized PST program. Overall, the findings in this study were positive and indicated benefits from the PST program. Results indicated positive changes in both participants. Both had a reduction in total anxiety levels and an increase in total personal coping resources.

Koivula, Hassmen and Fallby (2002) showed the relationship between different patterns of perfectionist dimensions and sport-related competitive anxiety and self-confidence, for elite athletes with different self-esteem strategies. The results revealed that the relation between self-esteem and perfectionism differs depending on which dimensions of self-esteem and perfectionism that are being considered. Athletes with a high self-esteem based on a respect and love for themselves had more positive patterns of perfectionism, whereas athletes who have a self-esteem that is dependent on competence aspects showed a more negative perfectionism. Further, negative patterns of perfectionism were in the present study related to higher levels of cognitive anxiety and lower levels of self-confidence. Hence, it seems that sport related anxiety is positively
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associated to certain patterns of perfectionism, patterns that are more common in individuals with specific self-esteem strategies.

Fletcher and Hanton (2001) examined the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety in Non-elite competitive swimmers \(N=114\) who differed in their use of psychological skills. Findings showed that performers who reported a greater usage of relaxation strategies experienced lower levels of anxiety and interpreted symptoms as more beneficial to performance than their comparison groups. Maynard and colleagues found similar results when they employed an intervention approach with non elite soccer players.

Miguel (2001) examined the relationship between anxiety and performance from a cognitive-behavioral perspective. Previous research in the field has suggested that the majority of consultations conducted by sport psychologists are related to anxiety. Included is a discussion on the theoretical underpinnings of anxiety and how it relates to performance. Research conducted on the relationship between anxiety and performance is also discussed. A review of the cognitive-behavioral treatments that have been used for anxiety reduction and performance enhancement within the field of athletics is included.
Tojari, Sharifnegad and Nemati (2000) investigated the relation and correlation among self-efficacy, Competitive anxiety and wrestling skill performance. A sample of 16 wrestlers of Iran and Russia National teams (M=24.18 \(\pm\)2.65) 20 minutes before competition. The results indicated that the correlation between competitive anxiety and performance was strongly negative. In addition, the correlation between self-efficacy and competitive anxiety was strongly negative. It could be said that, the overall result founded in the present study support the Bandera’s social cognitive theory.

Barber, Sukhi and White (1999) investigated the effect of parent-coaches on participation motivation and competitive state anxiety. Parent-coached (n = 36) and nonparent-coached (n = 26) children participated in this study. A principal components factor analysis was conducted on the PMI and revealed eight factors labeled: Achievement/Status, Being Active, Fitness, Team, Energy Release, Friendship, Skills, and Fun. Participant motives between parent-coached and nonparent-coached participants did not significantly differ. No significant differences were found on competitive state anxiety between parent and nonparent-coached athletes. While parent involvement in youth sport has often been negatively regarded, this investigation did not support a differential impact on children.
Ntoumanis and Jones (1998) investigated differences in the cognitive labeling of competitive anxiety symptoms generally experienced prior to an important competition as a function of locus of Control beliefs. Eighty three university and county sport performers, including 45 males and 38 females. The results showed that although there were no significant differences between those having an internal and those having an external locus of control on the intensity of their cognitive and somatic anxiety symptoms, the internals viewed their trait anxiety as significantly more facilitative and less debilitating than the externals. Discriminate function analysis corroborated these findings by showing that the best predictors for distinguishing between the two locus of control groups were the direction scores for cognitive and somatic trait anxiety. The results of the present study provide support for the need to assess the direction as well as the intensity of competitive trait anxiety. Furthermore, they corroborate findings of other studies which have shown that internal locus of control is associated with more adaptive emotional responses in sport.

Hall, Kerr and Matthews (1998) investigated that the smith’s (1996) model of performance-related anxiety to examine links between perfectionism, achievement goals, and the temporal patterning of multidimensional state anxiety in 119 high school runners. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that overall perfectionism was a consistent,
significant predictor of cognitive anxiety. Perceived ability was a consistent predictor of confidence, and ego and task goals contributed to the prediction of cognitive anxiety and confidence, respectively. Concern over mistakes, doubts about action, and personal standards were consistent predictor of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and confidence, respectively. The findings help further develop Smith’s (1996) model and suggest that the appraisal process underlying multidimensional state anxiety is influenced by individual differences in number of achievement-related constructs.

Ntoumanis and Biddle (1997) examined the relationships of achievement goal orientations and perceived motivational climate to perceptions of the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety in a sample of university athletes representing a variety of team sports. The results showed that perceptions of a performance climate were associated with ego orientation, whereas perceptions of a mastery climate were linked to task orientation. Furthermore, no significant links were found between task orientation and direction of competitive anxiety, while it was shown that the impact of ego orientation on the intensity and direction of both cognitive and somatic anxiety was exerted through self-confidence. No significant direct links were found between motivational climates and competitive anxiety, thus implying that motivational climates may have
an indirect impact on affective responses through the different goal orientations. The findings of the present study are discussed along with suggestions for examining situational and individual difference variables that may explain the relationships between intensity and direction of competitive anxiety, and achievement goals and motivational climates.

Lavallee and Flint (1996) investigated on the sample, 55 male varsity athletes (42 football, 81% of the football team, and 13 rugby, 74% of the rugby team), ages 19-28 yr (x = 22). Internal consistency of the self report measures was tested using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. Injury rate and severity were recorded by the head student therapist throughout the season. Correlational analyses revealed that competitive anxiety (r = .29, p = .03) and tension/anxiety mood states (r = .43, p = .001) were related to injury frequency, and that tension/anxiety (r = .44, p = .008), anger/hostility (r = .30, p = .02), and total negative mood state (r = .28, p = .038) were related to injury severity. Individually, the two sports yielded somewhat different results: for football, injury frequency and injury severity were related to tension/anxiety (r = .43, p = .004 and r = .47, p = .002, respectively). Vigor/activity was found to be significantly related to injury rate (p = .02), but since the internal consistency of vigor/activity was less than .70 on the Cronbach alpha scale, this significant finding was disregarded. In rugby, injury frequency was
related to tension/anxiety \( (r = .58, p = .04) \) and depression/dejection \( (r = .57, p = .04) \).

Jones (1995) investigated that performers who perceive themselves as being in control and able to cope with their anxiety and achieve their goals are predicted to interpret symptoms associated with competitive anxiety as facilitative. In comparison, those who perceive themselves not to be in control, and possess negative expectancies regarding goal attainment, are predicted to interpret symptoms as debilitative.

Krane and Williams (1994) studied to examine cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and self-confidence in male and female high school and college track and field athletes in the USA. Athletes \((N = 216)\) completed the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 within 20 minutes of each event in which they competed at a prestigious invitational track and field relay meet. The study revealed male athletes reported lower somatic anxiety and higher self-confidence than female athletes and college athletes displayed lower cognitive and somatic anxiety than high school athletes. Contrary to hypotheses, the place main effect was not significant. A significant three-way interaction was found on the cognitive anxiety subscale. College male non-placers displayed the lowest levels of cognitive anxiety while high school male non-placers displayed the
highest levels. When examining the hypothesis that athletes in sports of differing complexity and duration would have different anxiety and confidence levels, only cognitive anxiety was found to differ in athletes in events of differing complexity with the high complexity athletes displaying greater cognitive anxiety than the low complexity athletes. No significant anxiety or confidence differences were found among athletes in events of differing duration.

Mace and Carroll (1986) studied arose as a result of two squash players, one male one female, seeking advice on how to improve their mental approach to playing. They both felt that their game suffered badly through too much anxiety. After preliminary interviews it was decided to use a programme of stress inoculation training to help them learn to control their anxiety. In order to obtain baseline measures of anxiety, both subjects completed a state anxiety questionnaire on five occasions, immediately prior to playing important league or team matches. They were then given eight training sessions. On completion of the training, subjects were asked to complete a further five state anxiety tests immediately prior to analogous matches. There was a considerable decrease in self-reported anxiety levels and both players reported that their performance had improved. It is argued that stress inoculation training is potentially very useful as a technique for controlling anxiety in certain competitive sports.