CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related studies is one of the important step in research. For any worthwhile study in any field, the investigator needs an adequate familiarity with studies which have already done in the area of concerned research problem.

In the field of education, physical education and sports, some scholars and researchers have attempted to identify the socio-economic status of athletes. But very few researches have been conducted on social intelligence of athletes. Similarly, researches related to self-efficacy among athletes were also reviewed. The studies related to socio-economic status, social intelligence and self-efficacy conducted by various researchers have been discussed below.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

John (1951) has reported that sports like boxing, football and wrestling that require long practice hours seem to have a relatively larger population of competitors from families of lower social status. People of high income group preferred sports like golf, tennis and swimming.

Woytinsky and Woytinsky (1953) has mentioned in his book ‘World population and production-trend and outlook’, that countries with well developed economics obtained the high allocations for participation and point aggregates. Olympic participation is smallest in those areas of the world in which per capita income is lowest.

Wylie (1953) found that children from high socio-economic status had better physical fitness and healthy personality characteristics and hence high performance in sports.
Elkin and Westely (1955) reported that adolescents from better home are better adjusted than those coming from the families of low socio-economic status.

McIntyre (1959) reported a study on socio-economic background of white male athletes in four sports: basketball, gymnastics, football and wrestling and found that basketball players, gymnasts and wrestlers shared common social characteristics and were of higher socio-economic status than footballers.

Robinson and Phillip (1969) reported in his research that an individual’s socio-economic status may influence his opportunity for participating and his success. They found that very highly skilled team sports athletes come from the lower socio-economic class, and particularly from families in which the parents are engaged in physical labor.

Fread (1970) explored that civilization involves the social and psychological characteristics of man tend to replace the physical and biological characteristics as determinates of behavior where there is a little question that socio-psychological factor exert a greater force upon the natural and extent of sport and physical activity than physiological factors. Socio-economic status of the group and the status of an individual in society influence competitive and co-operative behavior. An individual from lower class competes for different reason and for different things from those motivating people in the middle and upper economic groups.

Young (1970) compared the motor performance by peer social children from middle and lower economic groups and found no significant difference between body weight, shuttle run, balance beam and broad jump. However, middle class social status was significantly better than lower class. Also, middle
class boys scored better in distance throw than girl of the same class.

Douglas (1971) has pointed out that there is definite relationship between specific sports activities and income brackets. Water skiing, tennis, golf, coming and hiking are activities pursued mostly by those belonging to upper middle class families whereas boxing, football, water sports, roller skating and cycling to people of lower income groups. The outstanding boxers of each generation generally come from ethnic and racial group experiencing the greatest degree of economic insecurity. Horse riding and sailing are upper class activities.

Buhrmann (1972) conducted a study of adolescent boys. He concluded in his study that athletic participation was more strongly linked with educational success of boys from poor socio-economic background. Participation in sports may be most important means for the low socio-economic status to gain social recognition and acceptance and through it, greater academic aspirations and higher scholarships.

John (1972) concluded in his study that poor and the under privileged tend to be more successful in field sports of higher socio-economic classes. The athletes belongs to low economic classes are more successful in vigorous contact sports.

William (1973) concluded in his study that black people were superior to white people on motor ability scores at each socio-economic level. The black excelled the white people. The white people excelled on the shuttle run. Different socio-economic classes were found in vertical jumps and the 400 meters yard run.

Van (1974) investigated the difference on motor ability in selected socio-economic groups of children. For the study, 960 children were selected to act as subject of the age group 6 to 9
years. The three socio-economic classifications were based upon the family status, and income. Motor ability test was administrated to each subject. The result revealed that the children from low socio-economic level were superior in performance to children of the average and high socio-economic level.

Renson et al. (1978) conducted a study on socio-economic status and physical fitness and concluded that socio-professional level of the father to be closely related to his educational level. Also family size and birth order sequence had a positive correlation with swimming ability. The sons of non-athletic fathers have poor general motor fitness, while boys with athletics parents showed greater interest in sports.

Sharma (1984) conducted a research on 538 college level sportsmen and non-sportsmen regarding personality, self concept, intelligence and socio-economic status of Punjab, Haryana and union territory of Chandigarh. He concluded that cricketers score significantly high score on academic status (dimension of socio-economic status) than the sportsmen of volleyball, football, basketball and hockey. The footballers possessed higher level of mean score regarding social status than cricketers, volleyball, hockey and basketball players.

Ray and Khanna (1987) found in their study on tribes and non-tribes with emphasis on socio-economic status and performance. They concluded that tribes were socio-economically backward than non-tribes. But tribes were superior in strength and cardio respiratory endurance capacity than non-tribes.

Kumar and Bhatnagar (1989) investigated the impact of socio-economic condition on physique and found that the females are tend to endomorphic than their counterparts of same socio-economic status group. It is also revealed that children of higher socio-economic group are mesomorphic in physique than low
socio-economic groups. It is also found that better nutrition and socio-economic status enhanced the performance in various sports consequently. Children of higher socio-economic status group were attributed better nutritional and living conditions.

Singh (1989) conducted a study on socio-economic status and cultural background of female sportsperson of Amritsar district consisting a sample of eighty subjects randomly selected. The participation level of subjects from district level to international level and found that most of female sportsperson came from higher castes, in term of traditional caste system and religion can be seen as influencing sports participation. The social background and early socialization experiences has effect on participation in sports.

Sohi and Yusuff (1989) concluded that the female athletes mostly belonged to low socio-economic class. However, athletes of racket sports mostly come from middle and low social classes.

Karuppain (1990) determined the relationship of socio-economic status with participation in sports and games. A sample of 629 university players in various games was selected for the study. He came to conclusion that individual’s socio-economic status effects his participation in sports and games. It was also found that some individuals growing in poor society play the games, which require more expenditure.

Kumar and Singh (1991) conducted a study on national level senior wrestlers during camp for Asian games. The socio-economic status of wrestlers was measured by using Kapoor and Kocher’s socio-economic status scale. The analysis of data revealed that Indian wrestlers came from middle economic status group of the Indian society.

Mathuraman (1992) assessed the socio-economic status of school level players of Kabbaddi in Tamilnadu districts. For the study, four hundred twenty districts level school Kabbaddi players
were selected and concluded that 45 % were from schedule community and 44 % were from backward community. A total of 89 % were from lower class community.

**Rao and Parthasarathy (1993)** studied the mental health risks among the socially disadvantaged of 120 high school students in Bangalore city. An interview schedule developed by the author, General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1972) and Kuppuswamy’s socio-economic scale was used for data collection. Students belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribe communities were prone to mental health risks especially in lower and lower middle economic classes. In middle and upper middle classes the non scheduled caste and scheduled tribe students faced more mental health risks than scheduled caste and scheduled tribe student.

**Ray and Yadav (1993)** conducted a study on 251 boys and 250 girls from grades nine to 12th of two urban and two rural higher secondary schools. The study revealed that mental health and socio-economic status were positively and significantly correlated.

**Crnic and Lamberty (1994)** found out the impact of socioeconomic status on children's performance in the school as well as in the sports ground. They concluded the segregating nature of social class, ethnicity, and race may well reduce the variety of enriching experiences thought to be prerequisite for creating readiness to learn among children.

**Shafiee (1994)** studied the socio-economic status of the participants in public sports and reported that the majority of the participants were from the middle economic class and only a fraction were from the high economic status groups. As to the occupation, the unemployed including housewives, the retired and students formed the greater percentage of participants, and there
was a significant relationship between parents' job and income and educational progress.

**Mehra (1996)** conducted a study on the socio-economic status of teammates in different sports and concluded that members of basketball, hockey, athletics, cricket and football team differed in their socio-economic status. He reported that cricketers belonged to the high socio-economic status group and track athletes to the lower group.

**Stone (1996)** studied the relationship of race and socio-economic status with physical performance. They divided the Nigros and Whit boys in four groups on the basis of age, physical performance and upper and middle socio-economic status. They were tested on 50 yard dash, shuttle run and softball throw. The softball throw was only item showing reliable difference between two social group with middle class.

**Prista et al. (1997)** conducted a cross-sectional study of 593 students (277 boys, 316 girls) 8–15 years of age to evaluate the physical fitness of children and adolescents relation to socioeconomic status and physical activity. Poor students exhibited significantly better results on the sit and reach and endurance runs, while privileged children performed better on sit-ups and the shuttle run. There were no differences in grip strength. The results suggest that socioeconomic status is an important determinant of fitness, especially because of its influence on body size and composition. In addition, cultural effects on the performance were also indicated.

**Kumar (1999)** studied the sociological consideration on sports involvement of female adults. A cross sectional cultural observation was conducted on 400 subjects. He found that Punjab state female players possessed better economic status. The female players of Himachal Pradesh comparatively belong to low economic status families. Nuclear families showed greater
interest in sports than joint families and nuclear families provide all type of facilities, which inspire them to participate in sports.

Ellen et al. (2000) conducted a cross-sectional study which tested direct and indirect contributions of socioeconomic to discipline responses, direct and indirect contributions of ethnicity to discipline responses. Parents' responses to multiple hypothetical vignettes involving child misbehavior were the measure of discipline.

Samaan (2000) investigated the influence of race, ethnicity and poverty on the mental health of children. The purpose of the study was to gain a better understanding of the positive and negative influence of socio-economic factors, cultural and ethnical characteristics and racial difference of the mental health of children. It was concluded that children whose parents were in poverty or who had experienced severe economic losses were more likely to be reported to have high rate of depression, anxiety and antisocial behavior.

Marsh and Kleitman (2002) found association between participation in high school extracurricular activities, including athletics, and postsecondary outcomes such as, coursework selection, educational and occupational aspirations, self-esteem. Participation in high school extracurricular activities, and especially athletics, was found to be associated with relatively higher rates of achieving a number of desirable outcomes than nonparticipation.

Bodzsar (2004) found in his study on “Socio-economic factors and body composition” that the social status was established on the basis of the parents' occupation, educational level, the per capita income, per capita room-quota and sibling number. Beyond these factors the effects of maternal age at childbirth and birth order were investigated in a sample of 3553 boys and 3371 girls aged between 7–14 years. Body composition
was studied by a two-component model. Results of body composition have shown that children living under better social circumstances are not only heavier, because they have more developed skeleton and musculature, but have more body fat mass too. The excess of their body fat mass is caused in part by the unaltered habits of nutrition, in part by sedentary lifestyle. These results stress the necessity for a more efficient somatic and environmental education.

Patrick (2005) conducted a study on 408 student athletes which were categorized by gender, race, socio-economic status, scholarship level, and sport played. There were 234 male participants and 174 female participants. One hundred fifty-six participants reported being on full athletic scholarship and 147 participants reported being on partial athletic scholarship, while 105 were non-scholarship. Socioeconomic status was ascertained from information the student athletes gave about the educational attainment of both parents. Forty-six participants stated that both parents (or one parent in a single parent household) had a high school or less education, 82 stated that only one parent had college experience while 280 stated that both parents had college experience.

Kamphuis et al. (2008) conducted a research on Socio-economic status, environmental and individual factors, and sports participation. Unfavorable perceived neighborhood factors (feeling unsafe, small social network), household factors (material and social deprivation), and individual physical activity cognitions (negative outcome expectancies, low self-efficacy) were significantly associated with doing no sports and were reported more frequently among lower socioeconomic groups. Interventions and policies should focus on all three groups of factors simultaneously to yield a maximal reduction of socioeconomic inequalities in sports participation.
Khan et al. (2009) conducted a study on socio-economic status of state level volleyball players of Maharashtra. For the present study the data was collected from the state level volleyball boys players under 14 to 18 years age group who had participated at State Level Volleyball competition and 72 players were randomly selected from six division namely, Mumbai, Pune, Nasik, Amravati, Nagpur and Aurangabad. The socio-economic status scale prepared by Kapoor and Kocher, was employed to evaluate the socio-economic status of the subject. They revealed that the highest percentage of socio-economic status was 43.05% falling in the Lower lower strata, 19.44% in the Upper lower strata, 16.66% in the Upper strata, 11.11% in Lower middle strata and 9.72% in Lower middle strata. This revealed that socio-economic status of the Volleyball players is Lower lower strata.

Chandrasekaran et al. (2010) conducted a study of socio-economic status and psychological factors potentiate the playing ability among low and high performers of state level football players. The purpose of the study was to analyze the playing ability among low and high performers of state level football players by influencing the socio-economic status and psychological factors. One hundred and fifty men football players in the age of 20 to 25 years were selected from Tamilnadu state level men football tournament held at Chennai in 2008-09. The selected subjects were divided into three equal groups of each fifty members. Group 1 - Chennai Team, Group-II Salem and Coimbatore Team and Group III Trichy and Madurai Team. The investigator has focused in to the following variables; socio-economic status, anxiety, and aggression. The data was collected before and after the competition. The study revealed that the socio-economic and psychological factors affect the playing ability in performing the game among low and high level football players.
Kundu and Singh (2010) found out in their study that the effects of environmental factors, socioeconomic status and facilities provided to college girls on psychological makeup and develop attitudes towards physical activities and sports among college going girls of Haryana.

Magklara et al. (2010) conducted a cross sectional survey on of 5614 adolescents aged 16-18 years-old from 25 senior high schools in Greece on a topic 'socioeconomic inequalities in general and psychological health among adolescents'. The following socio-economic variables: parents' education, parents' employment status, a subjective assessment of the financial difficulties experienced by the family and adolescents' own academic performance as a measure of the personal social position in the school setting. The results revealed that the out of ten (10%) and one out of three (32%) adolescents did not enjoy good general and psychological health respectively. For both health variables robust associations were found in adolescents who reported more financial difficulties in the family and had worse academic performance. The latter was associated with psychological health in a more linear way. Father's unemployment showed a non-significant trend for an association with worse psychological health in girls only. Socioeconomic inequalities exist in this period of life but are more easily demonstrated with more subjective socioeconomic indicators, especially for the psychological dimension of health.

Habibi et al. (2011) concluded that there is no significant relationship between the female athletes' socio-economic status and their participation in trainings. The low socioeconomic status does not affect their participation in trainings.

John (2011) conducted a study to examine the relationship between Black college football and basketball players' socio-economic status, social and cultural capital, college activities and educational outcomes. The institutional sample included 133
four-year post-secondary institutions that are members of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The student sample included 941 Black male students that attended the participating institutions. Results of the study revealed that football/basketball players, regardless of socioeconomic status, reported higher high school and college hours spent exercising or playing sports and were more likely to be recruited by the athletic department. High socioeconomic status football/basketball players also reported the most hours spent partying. The similarities between the athletes did not exist across the cultural capital measures. Low socioeconomic status football/basketball players reported the fewest high school hours per week studying or doing homework and had the lowest degree aspirations. In college, low socioeconomic status football/basketball players attending Division I institutions reported the fewest number of hours per week in classes/labs or studying/doing homework. The results of the regressions revealed that the variables that negatively influenced college grade point average were football/basketball participation and being recruited by the athletic department. The variables that had a positive influence on college grade point average were high school grade point average and highest degree planned. The variables that positively influenced bachelor's degree attainment were football/basketball participation, highest degree planned, challenged a professor's idea in class and college satisfaction. The variable that negatively influenced bachelor's degree attainment was hours spent in classes/labs or studying/homework.

Patil and Tuppekar (2011) conducted a study on socioeconomic status of Inter collegiate kabaddi and kho-kho players. The aim of the study was to find out the Socio-economic difference of Inter-Collegiate Kabaddi and Kho-Kho Players. For this study, 75 Kabaddi and 75 Kho-Kho players were randomly selected as a subject for the present study. Socio-economic
status difference were found between Kabaddi and Kho-Kho players \((t = 3.00, P<.01)\). Kabaddi players was found to have less score on high socio-economic status. Meanwhile, middle socio-economic status was concerned, significant Middle socio-economic status difference were found \((t=9.66, P<.01)\), where Kho-Kho players have high score on middle socio-economic status. So, for low socio-economic status was concerned, significant low socio-economic status differences was found to the Kabaddi and Kho-Kho Players \((t=6.56, P<.01)\), where Kabaddi players have high score on low socio-economic status.

**Sindik and Mihaljevic (2011)** conducted a study on socio-economic status and micro-social structure within female handball team. In a sample of 18 players, members of the senior major league handball team, the correlation between the micro structure of handball in relation to their socioeconomic status, using the socio-metric procedure, was analyzed. It was found that the players of the same socioeconomic status, have better mutual emotional acceptance. The hypothesis of a better mutual functional accepting players of the same socioeconomic status, may be only partially accepted, in a field of the trend of cooperation in the game, but not in relation to the selection of players with the authority of leaders or handball knowledge. Hypothesis about the hierarchical micro-social structure of groups can be fully accepted. Players are in relation to socio-metric status differentiated into four levels of hierarchy, while at the top of this hierarchy, team captain.

**Nezhad et al. (2012)** conducted a study to determine relationship between socio-economic status of family and adolescent students sports participation. The data was collected from 10 high schools and found that the families that have higher level of socio-economic status, their children were more active and participate in sports more than others.
Vandendriessche et al. (2012) examined the relationship between socio-economic status and sport participation, morphology, fitness and motor coordination in a sample of 1955, Flemish children 6-11 years of age. Gender, age and Socioeconomic status-specific values for morphologic dimensions, amount and type of sport participation and fitness and motor coordination tests were compared. Socioeconomic status was positively and significantly associated with sport participation in both sexes. Although differences were not consistently significant, morphologic dimensions and tests of fitness and motor coordination showed a trend in favor of children from higher socioeconomic status. The results suggest that public and local authorities should consider providing equal opportunities for children in all social strata and especially those in the lower socioeconomic status to experience the beneficial effects of sport participation through which they can enhance levels of physical fitness and motor coordination.

Deshmukh (2013) conducted a study to compare the socio-economic status between Kabaddi and Football players. The objective of the study was to find out whether there is any significant difference in the socio-economic status of Kabaddi and Football players. For this purpose, 30 Kabaddi players and 30 Football players were selected. From the statistical analysis, it is quite clear that Kabaddi and Football players do not differ significantly with respect to their social status but significantly with respect to their economical status and socio-economical status.

SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

Thorndike, E.L. (1920) formulated three aspects of intelligence, pertaining to the ability to understand and manage ideas (abstract intelligence), concrete objects (mechanical intelligence), and people (social intelligence) and concluded that
social intelligence is meant the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations.

Carter and Shannon (1940) showed that there were no significance difference between the two groups in scores of test of mental ability and that the difference in both general intelligence and high school progress between the athletes and non-athletes are insignificant should be gentrifying to those friends of athletics on less subject-centered ground.

O'Sullivan et al. (1965) conducted a normative study in which 306 high-school students received 23 different social intelligence tests representing the six hypothesized factors, along with 24 measures of 12 non-social ability factors. A principle factor analysis with orthogonal rotation yielded 22 factors, including the 12 non-social reference factors and 6 factors clearly interpretable as cognition of behavior. In general, the six behavioral factors were not contaminated by non-social semantic and spatial abilities. Thus, they apparently succeeded in measuring expressly social abilities which were essentially independent of abstract cognitive ability.

Lewis (1969) imposed the strong and unnatural constraint that a convention solves a coordination problem only in cases where all players are indifferent among the set of equilibrium from which the convention picks a member. This restriction has its origins in the problems in the philosophy of language and the philosophy of science that motivate.

Guilford (1981) were successful in devising measures for two domains of social intelligence: understanding the behavior of other people (cognition of behavioral content), and coping with the behavior of other people (divergent production of behavioral content). These component abilities were relatively independent of each other within the behavioral domain, and each was also
relatively independent of the non-behavioral abilities, as predicted (and required) by the structure-of-intellect model.

**Ford and Tisak (1983)** conducted substantial study involving over 600 high-school students. Social intelligence was measured by self-, peer-, and teacher-ratings of social competence. They found that the measures of academic and social intelligence loaded on different factors. Moreover, the three ratings of social competence were highly predictive of the interview ratings of social competence than the academic measures. Further, these results to the selection of social intelligence measures according to a criterion of behavioral effectiveness in social situations, rather than cognitive understanding of them.

**Lowman and Leeman (1988)** employing a number of performance measures, obtained evidence for three dimensions of social intelligence: social needs and interests, social knowledge, and social ability. Interestingly, the correlations of all three dimensions with grade point average, a proxy for academic intelligence, were either null or negative.

**Taylor and Cadet (1989)** have proposed that three different brain systems provide the neurological substrate of social intelligence: a balanced or integrated cortical subsystem which relies on long-term memory to make complex social judgments; a frontal-dominant subsystem which organizes and generates social behaviors; and a limbic-dominant subsystem which rapidly produces emotional responses to events.

**Stricker and Rock (1990)** administered a battery of performance measures of social intelligence, and found that subjects' accuracy in judging a person and a situation portrayed in a videotaped interview was correlated with verbal ability.

**Wong et al. (1995)** constructed measures of social perception (accuracy in decoding verbal and nonverbal behavior),
social insight (accuracy in interpreting social behavior) and social knowledge (awareness of the rules of etiquette). Factor analysis showed that social perception and insight were closely related, neither of these dimensions was closely related to social knowledge, and none of the social abilities was related to traditional academic ability.

Campbell and McCord (1996) postulated "social intelligence is just general intelligence applied to social situations" Social intelligence shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and salesroom, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory. It requires human beings to respond to, time to adapt its responses, and face, voice, gesture.

Kaukiainen et al. (1996) studied social intelligence and empathy as antecedents of different types of aggression and found a statistically significant correlation between indirect aggression and social intelligence.

Schneider et al. (1996) made efforts to generate descriptions of socially competent behavior. These descriptions were then collated and reduced to form a Social Competence Questionnaire of social behavior. A factor analysis revealed seven dimensions of social competence: extraversion, warmth, social influence, social insight, social openness, social appropriateness, and social maladjustment. Composite scores on these dimensions were essentially uncorrelated with measures of quantitative and verbal/reasoning ability.

Vijayalakshmi (1996) conducted a comparative study of intellectual abilities of tribal and non-tribal students and she concluded that the socio-economic status influence not only the physical setting but also the intelligence process. Thus, the socially intelligence behavior could be product of the socio-economic status to which individual belongs.
Arjun and Laxmi (1997) highlighted that different components of social intelligence were highly relevant to adjustment process. They observed a positive correlation between general mental ability and social intelligence. So, individuals with high level of social intelligence possess positive psychological health.

Jones and Day (1997) found some evidence that social intelligence can be divided into knowledge of the social world and the ability to perceive and adapt to ambiguous social situations. Their results extended previous findings on the multidimensionality of social intelligence and indicate that flexible application of knowledge may be an important cognitive aspect of social intelligence.

Howard-Hamilton and Sina (2001) concluded that athletes need special development help in academic, social and athletic areas of life.

Ostberg (2003) focused on social relations in school classes and their importance for mental well-being in middle childhood in a Scottish city. Peer status and both the individual's own status position and the status distribution of the school class as a whole were considered as the respect of social relations. The number of children analyzed was 13,932 and the number of school classes was 524. The results show a clear association at individual level: the higher the status position the more uncommon is malaise, which was supported by the teacher and by a parent report on malaise for both boys and girls. The association was generally present within school and existed regardless of grade, type of school and class size. Furthermore, a minority of the classes had a more compressed status distribution and here malaise was less common in all status positions. This was especially the case when the school class did not contain marginalized children. Consequently, that some children are
marginalized in the group indicates problematic conditions for the persons in question but also for the other group members.

**Kaur and Kalaramna (2004)** found inter-relationship between home environment, social intelligence and socio-economic status across various age levels and two sexes. Socioeconomic status has an effect on social intelligence and home environment also showed positive impact on social intelligence.

**Albrecht (2006)** explored that social intelligence is the ability to get along well with others and a set of practical skills (situational awareness, presence, authenticity, clarity, and empathy) for interacting successfully in any setting. The integration of these dimensions creates a comprehensive model for describing, assessing, and developing social intelligence at a personal level, as well as a set of practical guidelines. He concluded that the biggest single cause of low social intelligence is simply a lack of insight.

**Goleman (2006)** conducted a research on social neuroscience and proposed that social intelligence is made up of social awareness (including empathy, attunement, empathic accuracy, and social cognition) and social facility (including synchrony, self-presentation, influence, and concern). This research investigated and indicated that our social relationships have a direct effect on our physical health and the deeper the relationship, the deeper the impact and also found that some physical effects of our relationships upon our health are the blood flow of one's body, one's breathing, one's mood (such as fatigue and depression), and even decreased power of one's immune system.

**Drury (2007)** conducted a research on coaches' perceptions of emotional and social intelligence. In this study, a mixed model was employed, in which a qualitative paradigm was dominant and
a quantitative paradigm was also utilized. The group of 60 coaches was divided into four groups, which were determined by gender and by whether the coach coached a team or an individual sport. The findings of this study suggested that the coaches were not familiar with the concept of emotional and social intelligence and their leadership style was to maintain unilateral control or power over the athletes. Furthermore, the various coaching groups perceived and reported different levels of satisfaction and types of relating styles. The levels of happiness and interpersonal dynamics reflect these differences. Interestingly, coaches' self-perceptions differed significantly from the athletes' perceptions of their coaches in three areas— independence, flexibility, and stress tolerance.

**Hooda (2009)** conducted a study on social intelligence as a predictor of positive psychological health and found a positive correlation between social intelligence and psychological health.

**Thalos and Andreou (2009)** were skeptical about social intelligence hypotheses on the grounds that such hypotheses begin from the assumption that coordination arises when utility-maximizing individuals are confronted with political challenges. They maintain instead that the foundation of the extreme social integration found in humans lies in the fact that the evolution of coordination describes processes by which people evolved to face their most complicated social situations not as individuals but as members of teams. They, therefore, reject accounts that depend too heavily on internal cognitive representation of coordination dynamics by individuals.

**Salami (2010)** conducted a study to examine how emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and psychological well-being contribute to students' behaviours and attitudes. Two hundred and forty-two students from a college of education, in Kwara State, Nigeria responded to a set of questionnaires consisting of measures of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, psychological well-being
(happiness, life satisfaction and depression) and students’
behaviours and attitudes. Hierarchical regression analyses
conducted for each dependent variable showed that emotional
intelligence, self-efficacy, happiness and life satisfaction over
and above depression predicted students’ behaviours and
attitudes. This research indicated the need to emphasise positive
psychology in improving the positive elements in students
proactively rather than retroactively trying to solve problems that
emerge in order to improve the quality of higher education.

**Vig and Jaswal (2010)** conducted a research on emotional
adjustment of parents and quality of parents and teen ages
relationship. A sample of 400 respondents from middle and
upper-middle class of nuclear families were examined for role of
emotional maturity of parents in determining quality of the parent-
teen relationship. It was found the emotionally well adjusted
fathers were significantly more accepting, had more positive
influence of their good marital relations on their teen agers.

**Khan et al. (2011)** conducted a study on social intelligence
of the students of physical education. The sample consists of 45
students of physical education and further divided into two
groups. First group belongs to one year bachelor of physical
education course students and other group belongs to three years
bachelor of physical education course students. After analyzing
the data it was found that there was no significant difference of
social intelligence between first group and second group students
except tactfulness.

**Zamanian et al. (2011)** concluded that athletes have higher
emotional intelligence in comparison with non-athletes. The
results of study indicated that the level of emotional and social
intelligence of participants always increases as a result of
successful performance and a warm, desirable social environment
with a high degree of cooperation . It can be stated that athletes
have higher emotional intelligence in comparison with non-
athletes because they need to constantly control and manage their emotions under different conditions of training and competition. The study further revealed that handball and basketball players did not show any significant difference in emotional self-awareness. Possibly, the physical nature of handball on one hand and fewer numbers of goals on the other provides handball players with more opportunities for expression of emotions as compared to the conservative nature of basketball and more goals scored in a single match. Due to less expression of emotions, basketball players have less awareness of immediate emotions and more flexibility in comparison with handball players although this difference was not significant.

Behjat (2012) conducted a study to examine the interrelationship of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy drives, and diversity receptiveness of overseas college students. Factors of emotional intelligence, self-efficacies and diversity receptiveness were examined with these overseas students. The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence, the competencies of self-efficacy, and diversity receptiveness of college students.

Patial and Sharma (2012) conducted a study on social intelligence of boxers, weightlifters and wrestlers. For the study, total two hundred forty sportsmen of different colleges of Himachal Pradesh University were randomly drawn to act as subjects. Out of these, eighty male boxers, eighty male weightlifters and eighty male wrestlers were selected to act as subjects. Only those sportsmen were selected, who participated in inter college competitions. In order to measure social intelligence of subjects, Social Intelligence Scale developed and standardized by N.K. Chandha and Ms. Usha Ganesan (1986) was adopted. Mean and standard deviation, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey Post Hoc Test were used as statistical techniques. The findings of the study revealed that boxers,
weightlifters and wrestlers differ in perception of social intelligence. Boxers are more socially intelligent than weightlifters and wrestlers. The boxers possessed higher level of patience, cooperativeness, confidence and sensitivity level than weightlifters and wrestlers. Weightlifters possessed higher level of memory than boxers and wrestlers.

Sembian and Visvanathan (2012) conducted a study that was intended to find out the attitude towards regionalism of college students in relation to social intelligence of college students. Random sampling technique was used to compose a sample of 1050 college students. Mean, standard deviation, t value and r value were calculated for the analysis of data. The result revealed that there is no significant relationship between attitude towards regionalism and social intelligence of the college students.

SELF-EFFICACY

Bandura (1977) concluded that children who have a strong sense of efficacy in a given subject matter is expected to exhibit strong achievement strivings than those children who have poor self-efficacy. It is found that self-efficacious individuals consider themselves capable of performing any particular task.

Convington and Omelich (1979) conducted a study on adults as subjects and found that people expectations of successful performance were one of the best predictors of how well they later performed. Individuals view of personal worth as highly dependent on their ability and self-efficacy.

Weinberg et al. (1980) have conducted a series of experiments testing self-efficacy prediction in a competition and found that high self-efficacy subjects persist significantly longer in an aversive muscular endurance task than low self-efficacy subjects.
Gould and Weiss (1981) reported through their study that performance in both physical and academic tasks is enhanced by the appropriate type of self-efficacy. Those high in athletic self-efficacy are able to continue longer at exercise requiring physical endurance than those low in self-efficacy.

Feltz (1988) stated that self-efficacy is one of the most effective psychological elements which are supposed to have significant impact on getting result in sports competitions.

Meyer and Gellatly (1988) summarized self-efficacy as a generalized belief concerning one's task relevant capabilities. They found that it is individual's ability to execute a successful course of action.

Vealey (1988) found that athletes high in trait sport-confidence who held a performance orientation were also high in state sport-confidence. Athletes who have high state sport-confidence levels do so because these immediate, precompetitive feelings are based on controllable, flexible, and realistic performance goals that a performance orientation provides. Competitive orientations and trait sport-confidence may also influence self-efficacy, which is a specific form of state sport-confidence.

Tuckman and Sexton (1990) conducted an experiment on college students. They found that when college students were given the task of writing test questions for a class, questions written by those high in self-efficacy were rated as better than those written by low self-efficacy individuals.

Martin and Gill (1991) conducted a study on the relationships among competitive orientation, sport-confidence, self-efficacy, anxiety and performance. The subjects were 73 male middle and long-distance runners on high school track teams. The athletes ranged in age from 14 to 18 years. As hypothesized, trait sport-confidence predicted state sport-
confidence and outcome self-efficacy. However, competitive orientation did not contribute to the prediction of state measures. State sport-confidence and self-efficacy predicted performance, as hypothesized. Surprisingly, outcome self-efficacy was a stronger predictor than performance self-efficacy, which did not contribute to the prediction of performance time or place. The runners' youth and lack of competitive track experience may have prevented them from forming accurate performance self-efficacy judgments. In contrast, the familiar and small competitive field may have allowed these athletes to form accurate outcome self-efficacy judgments.

Gist and Mitchell (1992) reported the three significant aspects of self-efficacy are: firstly, it involves a comprehensive summary of judgments of one's perceived capability for performing a specific task and the information that is used in the formation of this judgment comes from the individual himself. Secondly, one must be motivated enough to form this judgment, thus, self-efficacy also involves a motivational component. Finally, self-efficacy is dynamic by nature and is changing all the time especially because one is undergoing new experiences as well as acquiring information.

Majors and Billson (1992) investigated human behaviour in order to create his theory of perceived self-efficacy. His research suggests that African American, particularly men, not had many opportunities to interact with social atmosphere that has enhanced or strengthened their self-esteem, self worth, and self-efficacy. Because of this, the coping skills of African Americans may not be as proficient as others.

McAuley (1993) reported the role played by exercise self-efficacy in the maintenance of exercise participation of previously sedentary middle-aged adults 4 months after the termination of a formal exercise program. He examined the influence of self-efficacy, physiological (aerobic capacity, sex, body composition),
and behavioral (past exercise frequency and intensity) parameters in the maintenance of exercise participation through correlation and multiple regression analyses. He observed that self-efficacy significantly predicted exercise behavior at follow-up when controlling for biological and behavioral influences. Aerobic capacity, exercise efficacy, and exercise behavior in combination were significantly related to current energy expenditure in aerobic physical activity.

**Watt and Moore III (1993)** conducted a study which shows that student athletes who participate in sports, namely football and basketball, have additional responsibilities such as practice, meetings and travels, and difficulties navigating their way successfully through college. Student-athletes have a very different college experience from their non-athletes counterparts, research shows that student athletes spend more time in athletic pursuits than on academics.

**Bandura (1994)** stated that students who feel more confident in specific domains will seek to improve and master learned skill in specific areas. Those who have high levels of self-efficacy are more confident that they will be able to accomplish goals in certain areas than those with low self-efficacy. He also contends that a student's belief in his or her ability to accomplish various tasks is highly influential on whether she or he actually accomplishes the task or succeeds in an individual area. It is important to note however, that it is more difficult for students to retain self-efficacy bolstered by social persuasion and somewhat easy to cause individual to doubt themselves and their ability.

**Kolt and Kirkby (1994)** concluded that competitive sports require athletes of high class in terms of physical and mental performance. Athletes from the beginning of sports activities are required to resist against excessive stress both in the course of competition and during daily exercises. This is a prerequisite for operation at high athletic level.
Krane and William (1994) found in their study that male and female athletes differed in their perception of self efficacy. Male athletes reported higher feeling of self-efficacy at a time. This is consistent with the research findings showing that male athletes report higher feeling of confidence and self-efficacy than female athletes. However, research has also suggested that male participants in sport tasks may overestimate their efficacy scores in relation to their performance.

Cornelius (1995) postulated that student with a strong sense of athletic identity participate in and support activities that are more sports related. He also found that due to the athletic time commitment, athletes may not have time to focus on educational and career development plan.

Mone et al. (1995) found that academic self-efficacy was a statistically significant predictor of personal academic goal setting and academic performance.

Paskevich (1995) examined the collective efficacy and cohesion relationship to performance in volleyball teams. Results showed that perceived collective efficacy and cohesion increased over the course of the season and that collective efficacy mediated the relationship between task-oriented cohesion and team performance at early season but not later season. There was also evidence for the independent effects of collective efficacy and cohesion on performance.

Bandura et al. (1996) reported that perceived academic efficacy fosters not only engagement in academic pursuits but also involvement in a constellation prosocial activities. Indeed, a secure sense of academic self-efficacy promotes academic attainment and social relations and reduces involvement in problem behaviour.

Terenzini et al. (1996) postulated that football and basketball players may suffer disadvantage as a result of cultural
implications surrounding the area of sports. They contended that participations in football and basketball may promote a set of "academic values and behaviours different from those of other intercollegiate sport." An athlete's level of self efficacy plays a part. Although research has shown that self-efficacy can impact the level at which athletes and/or student perform.

**Bandura (1997)** found that athletic self-efficacy is a complicated process by which athletes develop and master skill related to their sport or position of choice. Research stated that athletic skill is primarily built through modeling. Self-efficacy in sport is not built on skill alone. Athletes must learn to navigate competitive events that are comprised of many uncontrollable and unanticipated variables. Athletes in competition must contend with stressors, interruptions, crowds, losses of both players and of games, physical pain and emotional and cognitive distracters. The athlete’s ability to conquer these stressors and distracters will help athletes to improve their cognitive self-regulation and will aid in improving their sports self-efficacy. Often, they can gauge their confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. Moreover, when people experience aversive thoughts and fears about their capabilities, those negative affective reactions can themselves further lower perceptions of capability and trigger the stress and agitation that ensure the inadequate performance. This is not to say that the typical anxiety experienced before an important endeavor is a guide to low self-efficacy. Strong emotional reactions to a task, however, provide clues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome.

**Moritz et al. (2000)** examined the relationship between self-efficacy and performance in sport. The correlation between self-efficacy and sport performance was observed. Results indicated that the most important moderator was concordance, thereby highlighting the importance of matching the self-efficacy and
performance measures. Additional moderators examined by them included the types of self-efficacy measures, the types of performance measures, the nature of the task, and the time of assessments. These variables accounted for approximately 44% of the variance in the self-efficacy-performance relationship.

Zimmerman (2000) concluded that as a performance-based measure of perceived capability, self-efficacy differs conceptually and psychometrically from related motivational constructs, such as outcome expectations, self-concept, or locus of control. Self-efficacy beliefs have been found to be sensitive to subtle changes in students’ performance context, to interact with self-regulated learning processes, and to mediate students’ academic achievement.

Carodine et al. (2001) found in their study that in addition to attending classes, doing homework, socialization with peers and faculty members, student-athletes must also practice and learn game play books while training and performing in their respective athletic endeavours. Athletes may face many challenges to success as intercollegiate athletes and as students at institution of higher learning.

Beauchamp et al. (2002) concluded that athletes who exhibit high performance have higher degrees of self-efficacy, whereas, athletes who exhibit poor performance have lower degrees of self-efficacy.

Ayiku (2005) conducted a study on relationships among college self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, and athletic self-efficacy for African American male football players. Data for this study was collected from African American male student-athletes (N = 37) participating in football at a mid-size, Mid-Atlantic, comprehensive, public institution. The study found statistically significant relationships among college, academic, and athletic
self-efficacy for African American male student-athletes participating in football.

Kumar and Lal (2006) examined the role of self-efficacy and gender differences among the adolescents. A random sample of 200 students (100 Boys & 100 Girls) studying in I, II and III year of under-graduation was selected from different colleges of the city of Chandigarh. Significant gender differences were also found, where female scored higher than their male counterparts. No interaction was found in self-efficacy and gender.

Zinta (2006) conducted study is to investigate the impact of rural and urban background on performance among the high and low self-efficacious students studying in various senior secondary schools of Shimla District of Himachal Pradesh in India. The data were collected on a sample of 416 (208 rural and 208 urban) self-efficacious subjects (mean age of 16.5 years). The result revealed that there was a non significant difference (p > 0.05) in the performance of boys and girls with high and low in self-efficacy within rural and urban settings but highly significant (p<0.01) differences in performance were found between rural and urban setting. The urban students high as well as low in self-efficacy significantly (p < 0.01) outperformed the rural students in problem solving task. Overall the urban self efficacious students significantly outperformed rural self-efficacious students and the females of rural and urban backgrounds competed equally well with males in problem solving task.

Singh et al. (2009) studied the effect of self-efficacy on the performance of athletes. They investigated the effect of the psychological trait self-efficacy on the sports performance of the male and female athletes in the age group of 13 to 19 years from the schools of Punjab and Chandigarh. The subjects comprised of 200 athletes from the disciplines of Cricket, Kho-Kho, Volleyball, Softball and Athletics. Out of them 100 belonged to Inter-School level and 100 to School National level. The data was collected
using Self-efficacy Questionnaire developed by Bandura (1977). The results revealed that School National Level athletes were significantly better on perceived physical ability and self-efficacy than the School District Level athletes.

Gupta and Kumar (2010) found relationship of mental health with emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among college students. For the study, 200 participants (Male=100 and Female=100) were drawn from science and arts streams of Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra. The results indicated that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are positively correlated with mental health. It also revealed that male students were better than female students in terms of mental health, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy which underline the importance of training in emotional intelligence, self efficacy and mental health for female college students.

Patial et al. (2011) conducted a study to compare the stress level and self-efficacy level between male players and male non-playing college students of Himachal Pradesh University. For the study, eighty male students (forty male players and forty male non-playing college students) of different colleges of Himachal Pradesh University were randomly drawn to act as subjects. It was found that male players have higher physiological and emotional reaction to stressor than male non-playing college students. But no significant difference found in stress perception due to frustration, conflicts, pressure, changes and self-imposed between male players and male non-players. Further, self-efficacy level found higher in male players than male non-players.

Tripathi (2011) conducted a comparative study on self-efficacy of volleyball and basketball players of Madhya Pradesh. For this purpose 60 volleyball players and 60 basketball players were selected from various districts of Madhya Pradesh. Data was analyzed and found insignificant difference in the self-efficacy level between volleyball and basketball players.
Ozan et al. (2012) conducted a study to examine the sport confidence and self-efficacy beliefs in football players participating in either super league (N = 48) or second league (N = 53). Athletes completed the Trait Sport Confidence Inventory (TSCI), State Sport Confidence Inventory (SSCI), and Self-Efficacy Scale (SES). Pearson Moment Correlation results indicated a positive significant relationship between State Sport Confidence and Self-Efficacy levels (r = .492), Trait Sport Confidence and Self-Efficacy levels (r = .493) and State Sport Confidence and Trait Sport Confidence levels (r = .766) of the Super League players. Results also revealed a non-significant relationship between State Sport Confidence and Self-Efficacy levels (r = .227) and a positive significant relationship was found between Trait Sport Confidence and Self-Efficacy levels (r = .271) and State Sport Confidence and Trait Sport Confidence levels (r = .787) of the Second League players. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analyses revealed significant differences between the Super League and Second League players’ self-efficacy beliefs (F(1,99) = 7.188, p = .009). The linear regression results revealed that for both the Super League and Second League players, trait sport confidence predicted state sport-confidence and self-efficacy. Finally, it was revealed that the super league and second league football players were similar with regard to sport confidence, whereas, they had different self-efficacy beliefs.

Vaghefi et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and the performance of the elite table tennis players. The study results indicated a positive and meaningful relationship between the players’ self-efficacy and their performance, and that self-efficacy was able to predict the performance of the elite table tennis players. Based on the research findings, the performance of table-tennis players can be partly predicted from the players’ self-efficacy.
Mukulo (2013) concluded that athletes and coaches has been focused on various personal attributes. One attribute that has been found in many settings to influence behavior is self-efficacy. It will be helpful to understand for coaches the importance of sport coaching and self-efficacy in sport.

The literature revealed that several attempts have been made to assess socio-economic as well as psychological domains of athletes by social scientists and psychologists. There is definite relationship between specific sports activities and income brackets. Socio-economic status might influence his/her opportunity for participation, his/her desire to excel, choice of activity and success also. However, as athlete progress enhance social percentage and acceptance. Lower economic classes are more successful in the vigorous contact sports. Wylie (1953) found that children from high socio-economic status had better physical fitness and healthy personality characteristics and hence high performance in sports.

The socially intelligence behaviour could be product of the socio-economic status to which individual belongs (Vijayalakshmi, 1996). Social experience of sportsmen also affected their academic as well as sports performance. College sportsmen must learn to balance the competing demands, developing new social contacts, and being responsible for their own daily needs. Review of literature also revealed that this is an area that has not been explored.

In reviewing the literature regarding self-efficacy among playing students, Bandura (1977), Meyer and Gellatly (1988) and Carodine et al. (2001) found that athletes may face many challenges to success as intercollegiate athletes and as students. This empirical review literature argue self-efficacy theory, measurement of self-efficacy, research on athletes, teams and coaches and collective efficacy research on sport.
The studies discussed above revealed that socio-economic status is a very important factor which is likely to be affected by number of variables like social intelligence as well as self efficacy. Correlation studies between socio-economic status, social intelligence and self efficacy among athletes were also reviewed.