CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The survey of literature has been carried out before and after the selection of the problem. It helped in the formulation of proper study. It has provided insight into the selection of appropriate problem and making the researcher familiar with what has already been done in this area. It also helped in providing directions to conduct a better investigation of unexplored area and that helped in avoiding unwanted duplications. The review in this chapter has helped the researcher to develop an understanding that contributed to overall rational and interpretation of data. In the process of gleaming through the studies, the researcher developed sophistication and awareness of the peripherals issues which helped her in framing scientific references.

The abstracts of relating the study cited in this chapter were drawn from various sources vice versa journals, periodicals, unpublished thesis etc. The citation of related studies has been given under three headings: sports achievement, academic anxiety, and self-concept.

SPORTS ACHIEVEMENT

Sports achievement is the value of rewards and special excellence and status which have been found consistent with the purpose of competitive sports. Sports is distinct in the sense that excellence, status and prestige are largely available in competitive sports. The basis of excellence and status are thought to be present in the trait, need for achievement.
The findings of a study done by Baljeet (2000) on self concept variables which indicated that self concept is an important factor in achieving goals in sports. Athletes who were found low on self-concept could hardly achieve goals in terms of performance.

According to Dahiya (2010), the modern era is an era of competitive sports and performance that is influenced by varied factors and abilities of sports persons. Among these factors psychological training plays the major role in determining the performance of any sports person. Alderman very rightly said, "One essential point which must be stressed is that regardless of how much ability, skill or fitness level a person possesses for a task or sport, the success or the quality of his performance will, in the final analysis, probably depend on his particular psychological makeup". Further, on the basis of these, self-instruction modules were prepared and validated for further use of the sports persons. Increasing importance of psychology in the field of sports, the present paper aims at the development and empirical validation of self instructional modules in sports psychology for enhancing sports performance. To achieve this aim the self learning modules were prepared and these materials were empirically validated this process undergone the four stages that is preparatory stage, writing stage, tryout stage and evaluation stage.

Paul (2010) commented on sports to help young individuals imbibe healthy culture and cultivate moral values like support, cooperation and solidarity. According to him, in today's era, the trend has shifted to winning which at times surpasses the sportsmanship and players tend to exhibit aggression. Similarly stress also plays the major role affecting the performance. Keeping this in mind the present study
was designed to study the differences in aggression and stress between sportspersons and non-sportsman.

ANXIETY

The player exerting himself to the full in match, the student working hard for the exams, the parents are working about their children’s health and placement in life, and all other related individuals undergo stress. Everybody wants to achieve his goal. The whole world is dynamic and nobody wants to lag behind in this competitive life. This complex and mysterious thing is anxiety which has become the universal phenomenon of the human being. The twenty first century, with its emphasis on competitiveness achievement and result oriented, rat race and uprooting of earth certainties, can be truly called an era of anxiety.

Anxiety itself needs no description, everyone has personally experienced this sensation or to speak more correctly this effective conditions sometimes or other. Some people even say that anxiety starts just after one’s birth. Anxiety thus occurs at the point when some emerging potentiality faces the individual, some possibility of fulfilling his existence but this very possibility involves the destroying of the present security thus often giving rise to the tendency to deny the new potentiality.

Freud (1924), legendry psychodynamic pioneer also pointed at anxiety and stress fast becoming characteristics of the contemporary Indian scene to be both internal and external factors contribute to perpetuate anxiety. Under stress, people know why they were pressured, frustrated, or upset. In contrast, anxious people do not
always know why they felt this way. There was dearth of literature on relationship between academic stress and anxiety.

Handful of studies that availability show that majority of people responding to stressful situation with increased anxiety and that anxiety reactions are characterized by feelings of apprehension, tension and activation of automatic nervous system.

According to Drener (1936), “Anxiety is a complex of many emotional states with apprehension or dread as its most prominent component characteristic of various nervous and mental disorders. Excessive anxiety is also known to be source of many behavioral disorders”.

Freud (1936) was the first who attempted to lay open the meaning of anxiety, the differentiated three types of anxiety in respect of their sources.

- The reality anxiety – in which the source of danger lies in the external world.
- The neurotic anxiety – in which threat resides in the instinctual object.
- The moral anxiety – in which the source of threat lies in the conscience of super ego system.

A large number of studies reviewed by such as those by Zeligs (1939), Printer and Lev (1940), Jesild et al. (1941), Brown (1954), Angelino et al. (1956) Sarason et al. (1960) etc. show clearly that school and particular situation were source of anxiety and fear in large numbers of children of both sexes and of both lower and upper socio-economic levels. Teacher also often observed that some children
appeared to perform below their best situations characterized by a high degree of stress.

Holtzman (1952) reported that high anxiety subjects would be more affected by feelings of stress or personal implied threat than the low anxious subjects.

Mandler and Sarason (1952, 1953) while describing the characteristic of a test anxious child said that a child who experienced the test and test like situation was markedly unpleasant, tinged with vague feeling of uneasiness and bodily tension with more or less awareness of the whole phenomenon.

Lipsitt (1958) in a study found that usually children with poor self-concept were more anxious than children with good self-concept.

Sarason (1959) examined the research literature on test anxiety among school children and concluded that the performance of high test anxious students may be both facilitated and impaired by experimental conditions. Personal evaluation or threat leads to decrement in the performance of high test-anxious students, whereas reassurance facilitates their performance. Achievement oriented instructions impaired the performance of high test-anxious subjects but seemed to have a salutary effect on low test anxious subjects. Observing successful model facilities the performance of high test-anxious subjects, while observing models who failed result in poorer performance. He concluded that students who differed in assessed test anxiety differed with regard to their attentiveness to environmental stimulation and the way they interpreted and employed these ones in problem solving.

Cox (1960) found a middle degree of anxiety to be favorable to school work.
Lum (1960) revealed that, "A little anxiety may well be the sine qua-non of academic success. In general term, anxiety can be defined as a persisting, distressing psychological state arising from conflicts".

Lynn & Gordon (1961) suggested that there was a golden mean of neuroticism or anxiety neither too little nor too much being desirable for efficient performance.

Izgard (1962) opinioned that anxiety is a pattern of emotions, a complex emotional reaction that includes fear as well as other fundamental emotions and their interactions and it cannot be adequately conceptualized and understood or effectively assessed and treated when considered as a unitary concept.

Speilberger (1962) reported positive correlation between anxiety and achievements.

Ruebush (1963), state that the anxiety may referred to be a secondary drive acquired by the child, the operation of which was an avoidant response to a particular situation. The child was assumed to become anxious if and only such an avoidant response in stimulated.

Cowen et al (1965) report that most investigations correlating CMAS scores of school children with measures of achievement report low negative and significant correlations. Essentially the same relation holds when other anxiety indices eg. TASC are used as the measure of anxiety (Broen, 1959, Sarason et al. 1963 and Ruebush, 1963).

Spence and Spence (1966) also found that people with anxiety proneness respond to stress with differential elevation in anxiety. This would mainly depend on the nature of stress situation. Performance difference in high and low anxious subjects was found most often to be under conditions of stress.
Spielberger (1966) stated excessive anxiety to tense the muscles and decrease the co-ordination of the body. It might also reflect in a perceptual pattern of athlete. The central feature of the Anxiety Theory is the distinction between trait anxiety and state anxiety. State Anxiety (A-state) is a transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism that is characterized by subjective consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension and heightened autonomic nervous system activity.

Anxiety tension, strain and other emotional disturbance are the symptoms of psychological stress, which are caused by frustration. Anxiety is refers to the circumstances that result in the failure of motive to be satisfied. Whittaker (1970) says “Interference with the satisfaction of motives is only one of the many sources of anxiety”.

Kumar (1971) test anxiety, in very simple terms, can be defined as the stage of tension or mental conflict related to the quality of performance in test situations. Today students are much affected in our daily life by test performances. This test anxiety is not only frequent but is also associated with severe personality disorders and concomitant difficulties in the school learning situations.

Nijhawan and Cheema (1971) studied stylus maze learning under stress in normal and high test anxious children of 11-13 years of age. Results showed that stress adversely affected the learning of both high and low anxious subjects.

Muller and Spuhler (1976) suggested that anxiety may be induced in an individual when the positiveness of self concept is lowered. After that, anxiety rather than self concept impairs learning.
Agarwal (1977) & Seth (1978) found that under achievers were less emotional, mature, calm, placid, prone to getting into difficulties, socially bold, and compulsive by self-control, than over achievers.

May (1977) characterized the mid 20th century as ‘age of anxiety’. Camus’s poem, “Century of fear” and, Auden’s poem “The age of anxiety”, also present powerful images of stress and anxiety in today’s world.

Sharma (1978) on the basis of review of 120 studies conducted in different countries concluded that anxiety is related to different school courses.

Kobasa (1979) studied from close quarters a group of people who tolerated stress exceptionally well. What these stress-resistant people had in common was a trait that is called hardness. They felt very much in control over their lives, were deeply committed to their work and their own values, and experienced difficult demands from the environment as challenging rather than frightening.

Culler, Ralphu, Holahan and Charles (1980) found that high test anxious subjects had poor study skills.

Ganguli (1981) found no significant difference between high and low anxious subjects on a non standardized mathematical test.

According to Raina (1983), the physical effects of academic stress are pale faces, sunken cheeks, and disheveled hair. Psychological effects are still more serious in nature. They include anxiety, aggression, apathy boredom, depression, fatigue, frustration guilt, shame, low self esteem, nervousness and loneliness. Co-guilty effects lead to inability to make decisions and concentrate, and cause forgetfulness and mental blocks.
Wine (1980) and Eysenck (1983) criticized the concept of anxiety as a unitary state. They have recognized the importance of the cognitive component of state anxiety on attentional performance.

Hetherington (1984) found that temperamentally easy children are better able to cope with stress than temperamentally difficult children. High self esteem and low anxiety are some important positive characteristics which are associated with low distress and ease of adjustment to stress.

Kessler et al. (1985) emphasized that several factors determine whether or not one finds a particular situation stressful. Someone who is self confident feels adequate to cope with life events.

Smith (1986), symptoms like headache, chest pain, abdominal pain or dizziness are some psycho-physiologic response to stress, anxiety and depression.

According to Battle et al. (1988), when the peak of anxiety is reached, the adolescents possess very poor self concept and there adolescent are characterized as those who bite their nail, pick their noses, pull their hair, chew an object, giggle, grind their teeth and twitch nervously.

According to Cratty (1989), the term anxiety has been used to describe both a healthy, normal condition, as well as a pathological one. Some believe that the word fear should be used to denote a reasonable concern about an obviously threatening event, while anxiety should denote an emotionally unhealthy conditions involving unreasonable dread.

According to O'Neil (1991), presently, a movement to create national standards for the student achievement-linked to some form of national assessment is picking up stream. A growing number of policy
makers believe that student's achievements will not increase markedly until high standards are set and quality work by all students is expected and rewarded. Now-a-days children are increasingly judged by their accomplishment rather than by their human qualities.

Shekhar and Chadha (1991) concluded from their study that average achievers were least anxious followed by high achievers and low achievers respectively. In case of personality perceived self, high achievers performed best while average achievers were best on socially perceived self.

Katyal (1996) remarked on anxiety to be a complex and puzzling contributor to stress. It is rampant in modern societies. It makes the sufferer feel himself to be nothing more than a last point has empty space and responsible for producing incorrect responses under stress. In extreme cases of stress, people become so anxious and disorganized that their behavior becomes maladaptive or maladjusted.

Sukhjeet Kaur, (1996), no gender differences were found with regard to general anxiety, parental anxiety, and introversion-extroversion. Boys and girls also did not differ with regard to their total self-concept. However, boys were found to have higher intellectual self-concept in comparison to girls whereas girls were found to have higher moral self-concept in comparison to boys.

Many studies according to Sandhu (2010), have widely reported that self esteem, like subjective well-being, is also significantly associated with personal life satisfaction, effective functioning and mental health of individual. Individuals high on subjective well-being have been found to have more satisfactory work place relationships, have positive attitudes towards their work and also show less physical symptoms of stress.
Kumar (2010), it's vital for health, physical fitness and happiness. The benefits are worth it. Professor Mario Maranhao, President of the World Heart Federation said, “Moderate exercise, such as a brisk walk for 30 minutes most days, helps control weight, cuts stress, anxiety and depression”. In fact studies show that jogging for 30 minutes three times a week can be as good as psychotherapy in treating depression; and there’s more good news. For health and happiness we need exercise as much as we need to sleep, breathe and eat.

ACADEMIC ANXIETY

According to Mechanic (1962) and Nijhawan (1972) academic anxiety stems from an extremely important educational problem, namely, the discrepancy between performance and potential.

Barness (1963) states that once upon a time the children said good night to their parents and went to bed; now-a-days often enough, the parents may say good night to the children and go to bed leaving the young scholars to finish their endless home work or prepare for an examination sometimes before dawn.

Keller & Rowley (1964), Singh (1972), Singh & Kumar (1977) reported either negative or insignificant relationship between anxiety and academic achievements.

Spielberger and Smity (1966) commented that anxiety undoubtedly occupies a very important place in the study of human personality and a multitude of activities of mind. It has been found that the circumstances in which failure is experienced or in which an individual’s intelligence is evaluated are particularly threatening to the individual resulting in high trait anxiety.
Huston (1966) used a parallel anxiety battery to assess levels of anxiety in six women enrolled in a beginning riding class. The findings showed that as the students increased in skill, their anxiety tend to decrease.

Jersild (1968) and Nijhawan (1972) remarked that the problems of the anxious child take on an added importance in the school because it is here that anxiety will start showing its most disabling effect. If the school program was suited to the learner he would derive joy from his achievements but if the school program threatened to expose weakness within, he was likely to suffer from anxiety that would manifest itself in various ways.

Sinha (1980) found that high achievement exhibited minimal anxiety as compared to low achievers who reported to be commonly overwhelmed by anxiety and have more adjustment problems. They also used depression and avoidance as common measures to handle anxiety.

Kapur (1982) found many studies to suggest that anxiety has a depressing effect on student's intellectual achievement. It also has a damaging effect on the students learning process and that low anxious students always did better than high anxious ones.

Gercia (1986) and Gupta (1989) opinioned that academic stress was increasingly becoming common among children and adolescents. Shakespeare's description of the child "Creeping like snail unwilling to school" reminds us of the stresses which exist in the system and the neurotogenic limitations that education places. According to there were many situations in the educational field which were stressful to the child like negative consequences of failure, future life, too much home work, cut throat competition etc.
Pangotra (1986) many children are unable to cope with the overloaded burden of academics, constant disappointed with exams, reading difficulties, dislike for schools subjects and failure to see relationship between the courses of study and daily life experience may all lead to dropping out of the child from school.

Brien (1988) stated that the curriculum seemed to be steadily creeping downwards. Things which were once taught at higher grades were over the time introduced at lower grades. He also remarked that system of grading, promotion and mastery all blame the child for any lack of performance and recommended a formula for producing stress in students in our schools. It is as follows:

Create a climate in which

a) An academic achievement is more valued than individual’s worth.

b) Blame is more common than praise.

c) Opinion of others are always more important than one’s own

d) Keeping a head of the pace or keeping up with the pace produces stress.

Shah (1988) remarked that as a result, the children of today are under more pressure to take in and be aware of the information that is important through education. Several studies show that children high in academic anxiety complained of symptom like suffocation, difficulty in breathing, palpitation gastrointestinal uncertain. They also reported to be suffering from headache, stomachache and fever during examinations (Sarason and Davidson, 1961; Steptoe and Vogle, 1992; Verma and Gupta, 1990).

Verma, (1990) found that high achievers had significantly greater academic motivation as compared to their low achiever counter parts.

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but that high achiever and low achiever did not show any significant difference on the test anxiety and its components worry and emotionality.

Lamborn (1991), attitude of parents was also seen as stressor for the school going child and is linked to the adolescent academic achievement, personality and mental health. There also exits a relationship between parents handling child rearing practices and academic stress among their children. Authoritarian parenting styles scores reasonable high on measure underlying absence among adolescent but they are relatively poor in self confidence hand have a higher level of academic anxiety.

Grad Rashmi (1992) in her study of academic and non-academic self concept in 150 undergraduates, showed that past academic performance, family structure and family satisfaction were important predictors of academic self-concept.

In one such study done by Kochaway (1993) high academic anxiety has also been related to grater adjustment problems. The administrated academic anxiety scale for children as adjustment inventory among 200 grade and 10 student and categories into high anxiety and low anxiety group. Finding indicator grater adjustment problems in the case of high ensure group in areas pertain to home, health, social and emotional aspect. Academic anxiety was also found to be significantly related to overall adjustment.

Chopra (1993) said that as a temporary expedient, academic stress is crucial for task completion, but if it is not terminated in time, the effects are disastrous.

Vasudev (1994) remarked that as we are moving nearer to 21st century, we seem to surge a phase where there is rat race among the
individuals to the finish- a debilitating competition for college seats and ultimately for better paying jobs. With higher standards, rising stress on intellectual content, and heightened expectations of parents, teachers and educationalists, and more and more youngsters are joining the long queues of stress-stricken individuals every year. Academic stress makes them walk precariously and nervously on the tight rope of guilt and efforts toward performance.

Super Stein (1994) and Law & Kwokeleung (1992) reported that positive relation with school was found to be associated with high academic performance as predicted by higher class ranks and high grades total scores. Poor relation with school was found to be associated with more self reported delinquency as well as more school records of misconduct unfavorable attitude of adolescents towards schooling discourages them to further take in active part in school activities.

According to Patri (1995), schools were dual, heavy and examination oriented. There was over emphasis on academic mournfully in adequate is the method of teaching where there is emphasis on memory which leaves the over bounded students listless and often feeling suicidal.

According to Bhardwaj (1996), children were born deprived of childhood itself, by making them carry a bag load of books and a head load of stuff which do not interested him at all. The children did not get any time to play, they had to do homework and mug up so much only to be vomited out in examination without what it all means.

In a study by Katyal (1996), findings revealed that majority of adolescents are moderate to high academic stress. With the girls have high academic stress as compared to boys, adolescents of average
intelligent faced higher academic stress than that of their high and low intelligence level counterparts. Social personal variables had sufficient impact or academic stress, high parental hostility rejection and authorization attitude, parental aspiration, anxiety and negative attitude towards schools facilitated high academic skills among adolescents.

D'Mello (1997) bereaved and reported that the schools, the heavy syllabus, poor teaching facility, highly competitive system, type of examinations are playing havoc with the mental health of the children. Psychiatrists are concerned with the agency of education as serious sources of stress for school going children's leading to incidence of suicide deaths.

Omizo et al. (1998) analyzed various stressors and symptoms experienced by students in elementary, intermediate and high school levels. The stressors as cited by high school students were failure, school related problems, peer pressure, substance abuse and family problems.

Paul (2006) in their study reported that academic anxiety differences between sports and non sports persons within the residential group of subjects were not found significant. A perusal of mean scores, however, indicated that sports persons of this group were having a little higher level of academic anxiety as this group had obtained higher mean score.

SPORTS COMPETITION ANXIETY

The authors acknowledged, however that this was the first empirical evidence for the independence of sport- specific achievement and anxiety measures. Clearly, the sport-specific relationships between these two constructions need to be clarified.
Levitt (1967) in recent years psychologists, coaches and athletes have become increasingly aware of the detrimental role that anxiety play in an athlete’s performance in competition. This awareness has been followed by an increased interest in assessing anxiety responses and analyzing the sources. In athletic performance nearly every concern of human endeavour is thought to be affected somehow by anxiety.

As quoted in Encyclopedia of Sports Science and Medicine, (1971), Education Survey, anxiety may be motivating force or it may interfere with successful athletic performances. As a positive motivating force it can be instrumental in motivating the athlete to work harder to find new and better ways to improve performance and to help set goals. The athlete who used his anxiety in this way would seek out ways to improve himself. These would not only reduce his anxiety but help him increase his athletics skills and his self confidence. As a negative motivator anxiety might interfere with productive as well as constructive thinking. Athletics might attempt to handle anxiety by denying their mistakes, denying their weakness and thus, denying the need to work hard. This could lead to the development of poor work habits or athletics techniques. And this as per the observation could often lead to failure and in turn, lack of confidence and increased anxiety.

The Encyclopedia of sports science and Medicine, (1971) the ability to deal effectively with anxiety to be one of the prime considerations in athletics. It was mentioned that each athlete must learn to cope up with anxiety involved in his career. The various behaviors indicating anxiety were rather disparate and one often hard to be recognized, as anxiety reactions what the athlete might do about anxiety were equally varied.
According to Frost (1971), anxiety is uneasiness and feeling of foreboding often found. A detrimental role that anxiety placed in athletics performance had become a major concern to sports psychologist. He further said that to one and some stimulus, individual's respond differently and their anxiety level also varies, while there seems to be an interaction affect between the amount of anxiety necessary to maximize the performance in certain specific tasks. Also, theories seem to agree that maximum performance is reduced by too much anxiety. Excellence is housed in all kinds of shapes, size, colours and cultures. It comes from all sports and systematic programs and even from non-systematic programs. Performance, he said was a major topic of concern to a sports psychologist.

As per Cartty (1973), there were many researchers that reports anxiety to improved motor performance on simple tasks, but impeded complex motor behaviours. Attempted to reduce situational anxiety related to motor performance had mixed results.

According to Tutko and Tosi (1976), the area of maximum athletic performance was no exception and both coaches and athletes were a beginning to give considerable attention to the area of completion anxiety and its management. As per their findings, they said that a number of articles had begun to appear and had focused on ways to reduce and manage anxiety and stress in competitive situation. The prevailing belief behind the anxiety management programs was that too much anxiety would decrease the maximum athletic performance and individual could achieve and therefore, reduction of that anxiety would help to improve the level of performance. A number of specific management technique and emerged including cybernetic training.
According to Martens (1982), a tendency to perceive competitive situations as threatening and to respond to these situations with feelings of apprehension or tension is sports anxiety.

Agyajit Singh (1982) commented that in modern competitive sports, the anxiety in sportsmen had affected their performance as the physical load during the training of sportsmen for international competition had also intensified. The sportsmen like other athletes were anxiety prone while participating in competitive sports."

In terms of its relationship to completion anxiety, Gill (1986) defined competitive anxiety as the sport-specific counterpart of the motive to avoid failure (i.e., low achievement orientation) or the tendency to become anxious and worried about failure in sport competition, similarly, competitiveness was defined as the motive to approach success (i.e., high achievement orientation) in the sporting environment, or the tendency not become anxious and worried about failure in sport competition. Gill et al. (1988) however, reported a weak relationship between competitive trait anxiety and suggested that competitiveness and competitive anxiety may not be bipolar opposites but independent constructs that should be assessed separately.

Mahendra and James (1986) conducted a study on the effect of anxiety and need for achievement on the performance of high school wrestlers. Data was obtained from the Thematic Apperception Test; the test anxiety question were expectancy rating by the individuals and by their coaches. Performance data was obtained from match score books and observations. It was concluded that the personality trait of anxiety and need for achievement both the expectancy and the actual performances of these high school wrestlers. Subjects who measured low in anxiety performed better than those high in anxiety. The groups
scoring highest in performance was that of low anxiety and high need for achievement. The lowest level of performance was demonstrated by the group high in anxiety and low in need for achievement.

Singh (1986), anxiety plays a paramount role in sport. It is the challenge in sports participation which produces anxiety. How an athlete handles the anxiety determines how successful he would be. Anxiety may be positive motivating force or it may interfere with successful performances in sports events. The degree of anxiety also varies with a number of different conditions. Anxiety is likely to be greater in high competitive sports than in relatively non competitive sports, because in the competitive sports, participants are expected to win and great demands are made upon them to succeed. The study of the effect of anxiety on sports performance has become a major topic of interest to sports psychologists in recent years. The degree of perceived anxiety is an important variable to be consider in the performance of an individual.

Singh and Debnath (1986) found a non-significant difference in anxiety level among different sports groups. From the study it may be concluded that participation in sports decreases the anxiety level.

Cox (1986) concluded in his study that the male athletes and players had less competitive anxiety as compared to females. Among athletes, both male and female differed significantly in competitive anxiety while among hockey players competition anxiety was not related to positional play.

Bharat Bhushan (2002) had written in his research work that, “The problem of anxiety has been considered important in all areas of human endeavour including sports”. According to his findings both the performance as well as gender groups were found to fall in high levels of state and trait anxiety as per manual classification. He recommended
that measures should be taken to control and manage their anxiety and to bring it down to desirable levels through various psycho regulatory techniques. Regarding sports competitive anxiety, the performance groups as well as gender group have exhibited “optimal” level as per the manual classification. Endeavour should be made to maintain this level through appropriate efforts.

Parminder Sandhu (2003), a study of anxiety and self-concept with special references to socio-economic status and performance of female athletes, self-concept is an individual perception of himself.

SELF CONCEPT

Different thinkers have different aspects of self concept. James (1950) makes a mention of material of self and pure ego as component of the self.

Hutton and Johnson (1954) remarked that self-concept is not an inherited quality; it is formed as a result of one's experience and reaction to the environment. Strong self-concept provides an individual more confidence and self-assurance displayed by athletes and in the results of evaluation of their self-concept. Self-confidence for example has been identified as being high in athletes.

Sutherland (1956) self concept as the attitudes, perceptions, traits thoughts, feelings and other characteristics an individual perceives to be a part of himself. As the ‘self’ changes gradually, integration of self is a slow, long and difficult process. The self is not a furnished product of birth but is something which is developed. Self concept is self awareness, which a person acquires not only from his/her birth but also outcome of his interactions with the environment and social surroundings.
Smith (1959) supported by a number of findings which state that there is a positive significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.

Jersild (1963) comments, self-concept is a composite of a person’s thoughts and feelings, strivings and hopes, fear and fantasies, his views of what he is, has been, what he might become and his attitudes pertaining to his worth.

Cooper Smith (1967), this also supported by a number of findings which state that there is a positive significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.

Clelland and Winter (1969) say that, what seems to be essential is that man develops a strong faith in himself as an origin or agent of change, as someone who solve problems officiously on his own. The most effective strategy, in other words, appears to be to change the man’s image by direct insertion on this key point and then to leave the rest to him.

Gale and James (1969) has described the self as bodily social self, perceived self and ideal self. Physical changes, skill developments, skill evaluations and multiple role expectations according to their findings were the main sources for the development of self-concept. It was observed that an individual's way of seeing, feeling, perceiving and thinking about him are the determinants of his success and happiness in life.

Maw & Maw (1970) and Underwood & Rosenham (1973), reported that there is an experimental evidence indicating that children with unfavourable self-concepts were strongly motivated to avoid failure by trying to avoid competitive situation where their deficiencies may be highlighted. They tend to set goals for themselves that are either
sufficiently low that they can be easily achieved or are so unrealistically high that they could not be expected to attain them and consequently, suffer no humiliation following failure. On the other hand, children high in self esteem were willing to prove themselves and perceived competitive situations as a challenges and even the likelihood of failure was not too threatening.

Tersild, Telford and Sawrey, (1975) children high in self-esteem are willing to prove themselves and perceive competitive situation as a challenge to demonstrate their competence. They predominantly anticipate success and even the likelihood of failure is not too threatening for them.

According to Kane (1975) the self awareness that the child develops in the process of interaction with people and enrolment leads to comparing himself with his peers in competition and courage as a result of success or failure in his endeavors.

Many and Many (1975) also concluded negative correlation between anxiety and self-concept. It has been found that self-image is one of the most important factors in learning motor skills. As success in motor skills depends upon physical fitness it may be hypothesized that there might be positive relationship between self-concept and physical fitness because many research works show a high relationship between the concept a person has of himself and his achievement in life. The students who participated in competition were found to have high self-concept than those who did not participate.

Ibrahim and Morrison (1976) have given a concise definition of self-concept as a composite of numerous self perceptions encompassing the values, attitudes and beliefs towards oneself in relation to environment.
Shavelson et al. (1976) noted that self-concept was important as both an outcome and as a mediating variable that helped to explain other outcomes. The physical self-concept may be influenced by an experimental intervention involving sport, exercise, or a weight loss program, but physical self-concept may also function as a behavioral mediator of the influence of an intervention. In their theoretical definition of self-concept as a person's self-perceptions that are formed through experiences with and interpretations of his/her environment, emphasizing that self-concept is not an entity within the person, but a hypothetical construct that is potentially useful in explaining and predicting how a person acts. Consistent with this perspective, Age and gender effects on self-concept have theoretical, practical and methodological implications.

Vincent (1976) composed the self-concept of college women athletes and physical education major. The Tennessee Self-concept Scale was administered to college women (N=460) athletes and non-athletes, physical education majors and general college students, and participants and non-participants in high school competitive athletic programmers to determine whether differences exited among these groups in self-concept scores. Women physical education majors and participants in high school competitive athletic program were found to have significant higher self-concept scores than all other group's non-physical education major, athletes, non-athletes and non high school participants. Only one significant difference was found between athletes and non-athletes, with non-athletes scoring higher in the category of family self. All groups scores highest for internal frames of reference in identity, followed by behaviour and lowest in self-satisfaction. For the
external frames of reference, all group scored highest in family self and lowest in personal self.

Singer (1976) postulates that self concept is learned by an individual’s inference from his unique experience. The individual’s perceptions of the feeling of others towards him strongly influenced his self image. In turn, self concept may prove the most powerful motivation for specific behavior. As the type of behavior depends upon what one feels one is capable of and appropriate to his need. Thus self concept and unique behaviour pattern of an individual resemble the relationship between egg and chick.

Bandura’s (1977) highlighted the motivational value of self-concept and theoretical prediction that individuals low in self-efficiency tend to avoid achievement situations whereas those with high efficiency expectations approach and presets under challenging situation.

Buss (1978) & Aronson (1980), expressed that low self esteem people tend to be more easily persuaded and prone to conformity as they are very much in need of approval but inwardly they disliked themselves for giving in too much to others. They may be rejected by others, hence, react adversely. They may develop hatred for others and may start indulging in antisocial activities and are always occupied by loneliness.

Gruber and Porking (1978) conducted a study on personality traits of sports women. Results indicated that women physical education majors were happy- go- lucky sourer, serious, touch vended and had more falltvable alert poise scores.

In an experimental study, Keffer (1978) administered Tennessee Self-concept Scale to measure to self concept, and Copper’s test to measure cardio-vascular fitness of adolescent boys. Results showed
improvement in the self concept and cardio vascular fitness after participation in a running program.

**Self-Concept and Sports Achievement**

Martintk, Cheffers and Zaichkowsky (1978) studied the effect of organized physical activity on the development of specific motor skill and self concept. They found that motor development and self concept scores were significantly higher for the group which participated in the physical activity program, then for the control group who did not participate. However a motor skill improved progressively in higher classes; self-concept actually declined in classes third, fourth and fifth, thus indicating non significant correlation between motor skill and self concept.

Loy, Me Pherson & Kenyon (1978), studied that role of sports within the educational milied appears to adhere to both a functionalist and a conflict perspective. One of the other hand, sports were referred functional for raising educational aspirations, for encouraging academic achievement, for fostering social integration and for serving as a catalyst or mechanism for upward social mobility. On the other hand, it has been agreed that sport interferes with the entertainment of the basic educational goals.

According to Buss (1978) if an individual had a positive attitude towards himself and society means changing positive self-concept which implies the person is internally more active hence higher performance motivation. On the other hand, the persons who have negative attitude towards himself and society, possess negative self-concept. The persons with negative self concept arise sympathy and
pity in others and may have abnormal depression of mood as seen in neurotics or psychosis.

Buss (1978) and Aronson (1980) expressed that low self esteem people tend to be more easily persuaded and prone to conformity as they were much in need of approval but inwardly they disliked themselves for giving in too much to others. They may be rejected by others and hence, reacted adversely. According to the researchers, they were likely to develop hatred for others start indulging in antisocial activities and were always occupied by loneliness.

Mofstede (1978) remarked on gender belief system that support the more positive physical self-concept of males than females. According to him both countries Germany and Turkey were similar in the preponderance of masculine values where men are supposed to be assertive and striving for success and females should be modest socially supportive.

Clower (1979) administered AAHPER Youth Physical Fitness Test Battery Doudlah’s sort for movement concept and Tennessee self-concept scale on college women to investigate the inter-relationship and the effects of an eight week activities curriculum on self concept movement and physical fitness. The results of the study indicated that there was a moderate positive correlation for movement concept and self-esteem for low fitness subject, movement concept related to several self concept sub scores for the low fitness subjects, but high fitness subjects exhibited a correlation only with the physical self-item.

In an investigation, Jackson (1980) found a significant relationship between total physical fitness and total self-concept scores for both the college male and female groups.
Young (1981) administered the AAHPER Youth Physical Fitness Test, Tennessee self concept scale and questionnaire concerning academic achievement, estimation and perception to grade seventh and ninth boys and girls in his study on relationship amongst achievement. Physical fitness and self concept significant correlation were reported between various subscale scores of Tennessee’s self concept scale and dependent variables. A significant (p= .05) relationship between self concept and physical fitness was indicated for seventh grade boys (R = 0.41) but not for girls of ninth grade.

Mary (1983) fitness may have psychological consequences, because enhanced fitness level often has a positive effect on one’s body image. Thus, improving one’s fitness through sport would increase his positive feelings about his body and enhance his self-concept. Thus physical self concept changed as bodily changes occurs.

Gurdial Singh and Kalpana Deb Nath (1986) studied the competitive performance and self-concept of Indian Gymnasts. They found that the better performance group was better in self-concept scores when compared with the poor performance group. The better performance of the group, they claimed could be attributed to its better self-concept. It appeared that the authors had made a generalization which at the moment could be accepted as the study failed to control other variables.

Russell (1986) studied the self arrangement of adolescents and found that subjects with high self arrangements rated their health positively, where more active subject had more positive rating of mood and were more internally rather than externally regulated. They also devoted more time to studies and generally had higher performance motivation.
Choubey (1987) stated that all the six dimensions of self concept showed significant difference between high and low soccer players. Thus, the sum of these dimensions was also expected to show significant difference between these two groups, because of such reasons probably the high fit soccer player scored significantly higher in total self concept then that of the low fit soccer payer.

Battle et al (1988) in their research also found that self-esteem was negatively correlated with anxiety and depression.

Although self-concept of a person has negative effect on the nature and achievement of the person but it is not a rigid concept. It can be modified throughout life.

We have certain factors which improve the self-concept of a person.

i. Effect of age
ii. Effect of sex
iii. Effect of others attitude
iv. Effect of sports

Phillips (1988) reported corroborative evidence for this interesting fact was revealed by a study which says that more than 20% of the children equal proportions of boys and girls had self perceptions that seriously underestimated their actual high abilities and displayed a corresponding pattern of disparaging self and other achievement attitudes.

Shaw and Gangopatheyay (1988) concluded in their study that notwithstanding their geographical and cultural background, the athletes showed equal self-concept on health, physique and temperamental qualities.
A Horney (1989) has explained four conditions under which low self esteem produces anxiety.

A) Unstable and fluctuating self image of low self esteem persons create anxiety. Low self-esteem persons frequently have to present a false front to the world. This is a strain which creates tension and results in anxiety.

B) Low self-esteem makes a person sensitive to evidence that confirms his inadequacy. This vulnerability is anxiety provoking.

C) Worthlessness and inadequacy create isolation-both physical and emotional. As it has been seen that a low self-esteem person can't share himself with others, life has to be faced alone, which is a source of anxiety depression.

According to Cooley (1991) one's self-image is a social product. He calls it a reflected or looking glasses self. He has paraphrased the whole thing very simply as “My self-concept is my idea and my neighbourer's idea about me.”

Another definition according to Lefton (1991), “The self-concept is the individual's way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling and behaving”.

Haines and Scalise (1993) also found low self esteem individuals may develop hatred for others and may indulge in antisocial activities and are occupied by loneliness found a negative correlation between self-concept and loneliness in their research study.

Iqubert (1993) in his research indicated that more frequent hair pullers and nervous twitches scored lower in self-esteem and high on anxiety. They were in the habit of giggling and biting their finger nails.
Alfermann and Stoll (2000) conducted a study on the effects of physical exercise on self concept and well being in which two field experiments on middle aged adults, the effect of exercise on self concept and wellbeing were investigated. In both the experiments participants were randomly assigned to either experimental or control groups. After six months training physical self concept, self esteemed and subjective well being were assessed before and after the six months programme. Compared with a wait list control group exercises improved significantly in physical self concept and declared in psychosomatic complaints.

Gill (2002) the stereotypical perspectives within society, cultural expectations and differential opportunities to demonstrate competence may influence the physical self of male and females. This is true for both cultures for two reasons. First, the world of sports is a universally male dominated world where male criteria of success (higher, faster and longer) are applied. As males are biologically advantaged to meet these criteria they score higher in all tasks that include speed and strength, sports seem particularly opt to meet the stereotypical expectations that men are more competent and stronger than women.

Bardel et al. (2003) conducted a study on three hundred thirty six (N=336) subjects which includes 183 men and 153 women. They engaged them into various sports e.g. track and field, football and tennis. The study revealed that state self esteem was affected by the results of a competition. The ‘Winning’ athletes demonstrated significantly higher scores in their states self esteem while the ‘loosing’ athletes state self-esteem scores were lower in the sports competition.

According to Sandhu (2003), the variables of anxiety and self concept have implications in the field of sports. Psychologists believe
that cognitive processes determine the behaviour of an individual in specific situations. This also manifests an individual’s perception of the situations, manifests behaviour and the variables of state, trait and sports competition anxiety. These variables are therefore, important from the practical and theoretical point of view.

Dalwinder (2006) concluded that there would be significant differences on different parameters of self concept between inter college and inter university athletes and that high performance athletes would be better as compared to low performance athletes. The results have also shown that the university level athletes were found significantly better on physical, social, temperamental and total self concept as compared to the college level athletes. No significant difference were found between both the groups on the educational, moral and intellectual inter level self concept.

Babbio (2009) conducted study on relation of physical activity and self-esteem. The aim of this study was to examine the relations between self-esteem appraisal and physical activity (N=211) subjects, ages 19 to 35 years and selected from the general population after a brief structured interview. They were grouped by sports habits into three distinct groups named athletes, non-athletes and sedentary people, and then were examined for significant difference in self-esteem.

As reported by Saini (2010) participation in physical activity and sports not only improves cardiovascular health and helps us to manage body weight by using excess calories that otherwise would be stored as fat, but also helps people to make friends, develop sense of competition and reduce stress. It does not matter what type of physical activity you perform sports, planned exercise, household tasks, or work-related tasks all are beneficial. Sports aimed at whole population without
discrimination of ages, physical, social, cultural or ethnic conditions, race or creed. We believe that physical activity and sports not only promote fitness but it is best source of recreation and provides an ideal environment for social development. Hence, regular physical activity may help you feel and move better whether your goal is to achieve and maintain a healthy weight or improve your health, becoming physically active is a step in the right direction. It is never too early or too late to make physical activity and sports a part of your life.