CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION
One of the most challenging as well as intriguing question for mankind has been to understand the relationship between mind and body. This question has been attempted to be answered in terms of parallelism, duality, monism and inter-relationship. The metaphysical concepts, spiritual outbursts, religious texts and philosophical treatises have dwelled a lot on this issue. With the start of psychology as a scientific enterprise in the last century this has been viewed in terms of psychophysical reality. The Indian (Zorn, 1966) as well as western (Wertheimer, 1972) writings have clearly pointed out a 'mind-body' relationship which has been exemplified in many ways. Mental depression leading to physical lethargy and happiness leading to physical activity on the one hand, and the impact of physical status on the states of mind on the other, are just a few illustrations of the psychophysical unity of the human being.

Sports is a remarkable setting in which the psychophysical capabilities are put to test under highly demanding conditions. The competitive athletic activity tests both mind and the body of the individual. The success in athletic activities implies the development of specific physical qualities and psychological attributes. The process of training particularly helps in development and modification of both these aspects of human behaviour. It could be safely stipulated that the training imparted to the athletes will have definite consequences on their psychological attributes in addition to their physical capacities and psychomotor skills. This is the very focus of the present investigation.
Singer (1977) clearly explains that "Because personality is determined by genetic factors but modified by environmental experiences, a strong possibility exists that personality influences activity preferences, as well as being modified by activity experiences. The personality mold is formed early in life but can be changed by later experiences."

According to Alderman (1974) the athletes have been found to be more sociable, dominant, extravert, confident, conventional, mentally tough and emotionally stable when compared to the non-athletes. These differences have directly or indirectly been attributed to athletes' involvement in athletic activities.

Sinha (1986) after reviewing researches in this area opined that there are two questions that arise in this connection. Has participation in athletic activities developed psychological qualities or they were already present to a certain degree prior to the participation, and to what extent a person must possess such psychological qualities to become an outstanding athlete?

Whosoever may be the causes of changes in personality it can well be presumed on the basis of the available evidences that since the environmental
situations have a great impact on the psychological make-up of the individuals there is every possibility that those who participate in athletic activities for a prolonged time cultivate such psychological attributes which help them in becoming successful athletes in their respective fields of specialization. As far as the development of personality through physical movements is concerned it is a well known fact that from 'the cradle to the grave' individuals live, act, react, and interact with their physical movements and in this process they get transformed into confident, disciplined, aggressive, hostile, intelligent, and social adults. Long ago Professor Groos (1901) while postulating his theory of play put forth the idea that "the child prepares himself through playing for the activities which he has to perform when he becomes a young man." He found that every play was anticipatory and children anticipated the serious business of life and unconsciously prepared themselves for the future vocations according to their nature. He hypothesized "play as the product of emerging instincts in the individuals, something that brings instincts to the surface, fixes them and then exercises them in preparation for the time when the individual matures."
This theory supports the idea of development of personality through play activities and since sports activities are the extension of these motor movements, this idea seems to have a significant link with the development of specific psychological qualities through participation in athletic activities. Sports as Singer (1974) views it, is a "human activity that involves specific administrative organisation, and historical background of rules which define the objective and limit the pattern of activity. It involves competition or challenge and definite outcome primarily determined by physical skill." With this background in mind it can be conceived that if the individuals take part in such organized and demanding form of athletic activities then by virtue of the importance of the situation there are clear possibilities of development or modification in those psychological attributes of the individuals which are highly required to succeed in these activities.

How sports participation influences the overall development of sports participants? Frost (1971) answers this question by describing that sports:

1. Provides an environment which leads to maximum health and normal growth.
2. Develops adequate strength, agility and speed.

3. Develops general coordination and the motor skills needed for daily life (e.g., walking, standing, lifting, pushing, dodging, running, climbing etc).

4. Improves the power of perception, and understanding through a natural and progressive development of the highly organized nervous system and a sound supporting organism.

5. Develops the ability to perform in variety of movement situations and at the same time fosters appreciation for these activities, and habits and attitudes which will lead to continued participation during childhood, adolescence and adulthood.

6. Provides opportunities for self expression through movement exploration, rhythmic activities, aquatics, games and contests and other similar rewarding activities.

7. Satisfies needs for belonging, self-esteem, and approbation of superiors through the development of competencies in games.

8. Provides a means of social interaction where individual can learn to know and understand one another and to live together in healthful and wholesome way.

9. Provides opportunities to lead and follow, to cooperate and compete, to share responsibilities, triumphs and defeats. It is through such experiences that friendships are made, self-reliance is fostered, and character molded.

10. Tests the individual physically, emotionally and morally through participation in vigorous and
demanding competitive activities in the course of which hidden resources are called out and courage, determination, and self-confidence are discovered and developed.

11. Satisfies the needs for fun, relaxation, and the satisfaction of accomplishment, which are so necessary for both mental and physical health.

12. Helps in achieving self-fulfilment which comes through optimum growth and development. Challenging and exciting physical and emotional experiences, and through team work in accomplishing goals and experiencing success.

Keeping this proposition in view the individuals undergoing a systematically long-drawn athletic training programme can be psychologically assessed before and after their physical (athletic) training programme to explore the changes taking place in their psychological attributes.

For the purpose of this study the athletic activity could be defined in terms of 'physical activities, systematically learned to perform effectively in various sports disciplines.' The individuals engaged in such activities are called "athletes" which include both male and female participants of various sports activities involving both gross and fine motor skills. In Indian
sports set-up most of the time the term 'athlete' indicates towards the person who participates in the Track & Field Events. However, this term is taken here in its comprehensive sense encompassing all kinds of organized sports activities. Thus the individuals participating in recreational sports cannot be called 'athletes' according to this definition.

**Special Sports Training**

The term special-sports-training implies the long-drawn sports specific theoretical and practical training imparted to the trainees of National Institute of Sports for 10 months leading to Diploma in Coaching in various sports disciplines viz. Track & Field Athletics, Badminton, Basketball, Boxing, Cycling, Football, Gymnastics, Handball, Hockey, Judo, Swimming, Table Tennis, Volleyball, Weightlifting and Wrestling. In the span of 10 months the trainees learn the underlying principles of their respective sports activity and practise the execution of movements according to the psychophysical demands of their sport disciplines. The training schedules are arranged in such a way that they practise these movements daily for $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the morning and 2 hours in the evening.
This 3½ hours training includes number of general physical fitness exercises along with the event-specific physical workouts. This training is imparted to them by the most knowledgeable senior coaches available in India. Apart from the theory and practical aspects of sports they are also taught the related aspects of sports sciences which include Sports Psychology, Sports Medicine and Physiology, Sports Biomechanics, Sports Anthropometry and General Theory and Methods of Sports Training. As in sports, the sports sciences also have theory and practical classes. The entire course is divided into 3 trimesters. In the first two trimesters examinations are conducted in sports and sports sciences in the end of each trimester, however, the last trimester is solely devoted to sports theory and practicals. The course concludes with the final assessment in the form of oral, written and practical examinations. The requirement of passing in sports sciences is stressed however, special emphasis is given on passing the theory and practical examinations in sports. Because of more weightage placed on the learning of teaching and coaching skills of sports, the trainees get automatically more involved in the theoretical and practical aspects of their respective sports discipline.
Taking into account the aforementioned systematically drawn sports specific academic and professional training programme this process is termed as 'special sports-training' which is not available elsewhere in India, in such a comprehensive and specialized form.

**Psychological Attributes Included in the Study**

Psychological attributes are the qualities which form part of the nature of a person. In other words the psychological qualities of an individual which are reflective of his personality makeup are called psychological attributes.

One may describe the athletes as being anxious or emotionally stable, docile or hostile, internally motivated or externally motivated, nervous or confident. These labels are psychological attributes which describe the psychological makeup of athletes.

The psychological attributes which are explored in the present study are enlisted and described below:

1. Extraversion/Introversion
2. Neuroticism/Stability
3. Psychoticism
4. Social Desirability
5. Sportsman Spirit
6. Competitive Anxiety
7. Achievement Motivation and
8. Locus of Control

The concepts of Extraversion/Introversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism were put together by Eysenck (1960) in his theory of personality to describe various independent dimensions of personality. To understand the nature of these psychological attributes one has to go into the conceptual basis of his theory of personality.

Eysenckian Model of Personality

Eysenck (1960) considers personality "a more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment." This definition of personality gives a comprehensive view
of the psychological spectrum consisting cognitive, conative, affective and somatic aspects of the way one interacts with the environment.

As per Mohan and Virdi (1935) the Eysenck's Personality Theory has been developed as a trait theory through factor analysis and descriptive analysis of personality dimensions put forth by Eysenck (1947, 1952, 1957, 1960, 1963, 1967, 1969, 1970, 1972, 1983). His theory sets the relationships between biological and sociological aspects of personality in which he has explained the influence of individual differences in physiological structure on the socialization process of the individual. He includes four dimensions in his descriptive systems namely extraversion/introversion, neuroticism/stability, psychoticism/stability and intelligence. These dimensions according to him are virtually independent to each other. The choice of the term dimension has resolved the longstanding controversy of types and traits of personality. In the dimensional system individuals can be located at any point within the area bound by the two factors allowing thereby a much greater range of discriminable personalities.
Majority of people fall in the middle range on each of these dimensions, with only a few approaching towards the extremes (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964, 1973).

Eysenck (1967, 1970) postulated the biological basis of Extraversion/Introversion. He maintained that Ascending Reticular Activating System (ARAS) was the structure in the Nervous System which formed the basis for individual differences in Extraversion/Introversion.

He assumed the state of arousal to be higher in introverts than extraverts. He related individual differences in Extraversion/Introversion to the hypothetical inherited differences in the functioning of nervous system for which he referred to the Pavlovian concepts of Excitation and Inhibition (Pavlov, 1927) for explaining his basic concepts in the following way:

"Individuals in whom excitatory potential is generated slowly and in whom excitatory potential so generated is relatively weak, are thereby predisposed to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour; individuals in whom excitatory potential is generated quickly and in whom excitatory potential so generated is strong, are
thereby predisposed to develop introverted patterns of behaviour. Similarly individuals in whom reactive inhibition is developed quickly, in whom strong reactive inhibitions are generated, and in whom reactive inhibition is dissipated slowly, are thereby predisposed to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour; individuals in whom reactive inhibition is developed slowly, in whom weak reactive inhibitions are generated, and in whom reactive inhibition is dissipated quickly, are thereby predisposed to develop introverted patterns of behaviour."

Eysenck (1967) explained the physiological differences between introverts and extraverts in the light of the concepts of "weak" and "strong" nervous systems proposed by Sokolov (1963) and Teplov (1963). Introverts are assumed to have a weak nervous system and extraverts a strong nervous system. Organisms with weak nervous systems are assumed to respond at lower levels of stimulation and are assumed to respond with greater intensity to stimuli than organisms with strong nervous systems. However, the weak nervous system as a result of its extreme reactivity is more subject to
protective or transmarginal inhibition than the strong nervous system. The concept of protective or transmarginal inhibition implies that when levels of excitation are reached which are above some optimal value, inhibition occurs which serves to dampen or decrease such excitation. Eysenck assumes that introverts are more subject to transmarginal inhibition than extraverts. Eysenck's theory thus implicitly assumes some upper level of arousal which is reached at a lower level of stimulus intensity by introverts than extraverts. Once this level is reached, new inhibitory processes occur which reduce excitation. As a result of the operation of this form of inhibition, it is possible that at high levels of stimulus intensity cortical arousal should be lower for introverts than for extraverts.

In the initial stages of his research in personality, Eysenck (1947) brought out two dimensions of personality which he labelled as Introversion/Extraversion and Neuroticism. To measure these two dimensions he developed the Maudsley Personality Inventory (1959). However, on finding these two dimensions negatively correlated at the later stage Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) came out with a
revised version of the MPI called the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI). A third dimension of personality, i.e., Psychoticism was added in the latest version of their inventory called Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1973). According to the author this questionnaire can be used in different cultures for the assessment of personality (Eysenck & Eysenck 1983). The Personality dimensions included in the latest version of his questionnaire are elaborated below:

Extraversion/Introversion

These are the two extremes of behaviour conceived as a dimension of personality which represent number of social and asocial characteristics of the individuals. According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) "a typical extravert tends to be outgoing, impulsive and uninhibited, having many social contacts and frequently taking part in group activities. The typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves for excitement, takes chances, often sticks
his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change. He is carefree, easy going, optimistic and likes to "laugh and be merry." He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and to lose his temper quickly. His feelings are not kept under tight control and he is not always a reliable person."

On the other hand "a typical introvert is a quite retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people, he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, "looks before he leaps" and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness and likes a well ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under tight control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic and places great value on ethical standards."

A comprehensive review of studies by Pervin (1980)
reveals that introverts are more sensitive to pain than are extraverts. They become fatigued and bored more easily than do extraverts. Excitement interferes with their performance while it enhances performance of extraverts, and they tend to be more careful but less fast than extraverts (Wilson, 1978). Other findings are as follows:

1. Introverts do better in school than extraverts, particularly in more advanced subjects. Also students withdrawing from college for academic reasons tend to be extraverts. Whereas who withdraw for psychiatric reasons tend to be introverts.

2. Extraverts prefer vocations involving interactions with other people whereas introverts tend to prefer more solitary vocations. Extraverts seek diversion from job routine while introverts have a lesser need for novelty.

3. Extraverts enjoy explicit sexual and aggressive humor whereas introverts prefer more intellectual form of humor.

4. Extraverts are more active sexually, in terms of frequency and different partners, than the introverts.

5. Extraverts are more suggestible than introverts.

Keeping in view the psychological demands of sports activities these findings have strong implications in this field.
Neuroticism

This personality dimension included by Eysenck (1947) in his theory refers to a general emotional over responsiveness, emotional lability and likelihood to neurotic breakdown under stress and is found closely related to the inherited degree of lability of the Autonomic Nervous System (Eysenck, 1964, 1967).

Within the Eysenckian theoretical framework it is understood that the individuals who score high on Neuroticism may be described as being anxious or worrying individuals, moody and frequently depressed. They are not able to sleep properly and suffer from vague somatic trouble of a minor kind like; headache, digestive problems, insomnia, backache etc. They are over emotional and tend to react too strongly to most of the stimuli and find difficulty in getting back to normalcy after emotionally arousing experiences. Their strong emotional reactions interfere with their adjustment, making them react in irrational, sometimes, rigid ways. When combined with extraversion these individuals are likely to be touchy and restless and become excited.
and even aggressive at times. A typical high scorer on Neuroticism thus can be described as a worrier with a constant preoccupation with things that might go wrong and a strong emotional reaction of anxiety to these thoughts. Such individuals are predisposed to develop neurotic disorders under stress however, these predispositions should not be all the time equated with actual neurotic breakdown because a person despite having high Neuroticism score may function adequately in various spheres of his life (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1963).

On the other hand, the emotionally stable person, tends to respond emotionally only slowly and generally weakly and returns to his normal functioning quickly after emotional arousal. He is usually calm, even-tempered, controlled, and unworried. Eysenck (1968) maintained that some people are constitutionally predisposed to react strongly with their Sympathetic Nervous System towards incoming stimuli of various kind and they are termed as 'Neurotics'. Those who react much less strongly with their Sympathetic Nervous System towards incoming stimuli of various kinds are the stable ones. Probably because of these distinctions the neuroticism has been considered as "autonomic drive" (Dollard and Miller, 1950; Mowrer, 1950; Spence and Taylor, 1951; Furneaux, 1961; Eysenck,
It also acts as "motivational force." Since it acts as a motivating force, neuroticism affects acquisition of efficiency (Eysenck, 1957). Lazarus et al (1952) described this motivational force to possess energizing and directive properties. Later on Feldstein and Sloan (1984) hypothesized that higher the desire the less will be the increment of stimulation required to reach optimal stimulation and lower the drive the greater the increment of stimulation necessary to reach optimal level."

Psychoticism

Eysenck (1976) included this dimension at the later stages of development of the EPQ and found that this dimension was also independent of Extraversion and Neuroticism. As Neurosis is regarded a pathological exaggeration of high degrees of some underlying traits of neuroticism, psychoticism is also found to be a pathological exaggeration of high degrees of some underlying traits of psychoticism present in the individuals. Psychoticism is used by Eysenck for differentiating the normal from the abnormal. Eysenck and Eysenck (1973) found a close relationship existing between psychoticism and masculinity. Men were found to be scoring much more
higher than women on this factor.

According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1978) the individual scoring high on psychoticism may be described as "Solitary and uncaring for people. He is often troublesome and does not fit anywhere. He may be cruel and inhuman, lacking in feeling and remains insensitive to issues. He is hostile to others, even to his kith and kin and aggressive even to loved ones. He has a liking for odd and unusual things and a disregard for danger. He likes to make fool of other people and upset them whereas a child who is high in psychoticism is isolated, troublesome child, glacial and lacking in human feelings for his fellow beings and for animals. Such children try to make-up for lack of feeling by indulging in sensation-seeking "arousal jags" without thinking of the dangers involved. Socialization remains an alien concept to both adults and children. Empathy, feelings of guilt, sensitivity to other people are notions which are strange and unfamiliar to them. This description, of course, refers in its entirety only to extreme examples. Persons scoring relatively high but nearer the middle range of scores would be far more frequent than extremes and hence would show these behaviour patterns to a much less highly developed degree. Psychiatric terms which would seem to assimilate this
kind of behaviour pattern are "schizoid," "psychopathic" and "behaviour disorder."

Eysenck and Eysenck (1978) found that high scorers on psychoticism undervalue the people, particularly people in authority. Their interests tended to be impersonal in sex, war, horror movies and sports. Their artistic productions were bizarre and their artistic preferences were unusual.

As the sports activities demand a very high level of psychological fitness to excel in today's rapidly increasing competitions, the sports participants need to be highly emotionally stable. The neurotic or psychotic tendencies present in them may lead to disastrous failure in the crucial and stressful moments of the highly tension-filled competitive situations of sports.

The relationship of the Eysenckian concepts of Extraversion/Introversion, Neuroticism, and psychoticism to sports can be observed in the following conclusions based on an exhaustive review of literature done recently by Eysenck and Nias (1986).
1. Sportsmen and sportswomen tend to be characterised by an Extraverted temperament. This seems equally true of outstanding performers as of average performers, physical education students, and others who are at a much lower level than Olympic participants or champions in various sports.

2. There are many different trains of arguments leading from the low levels of cortical arousal level experienced by the extravert to the superior sporting performance characteristics of such individuals. Among these are: high pain thresholds, sensation-seeking, assertiveness and competitiveness, and generally a lack of cortical control and inhibition of ongoing behaviour and immediate reactions.

3. There is a tendency for athletes, particularly outstanding ones, to be low on Neuroticism, and to suffer less from anxiety than do non-sportsmen and women. The findings do not support this conclusion universally, but the trend is definitely in this direction, particularly with outstanding sportsmen.

4. The reasons for the negative relationship between excellence in sport and anxiety-neuroticism lies probably in the drive stimulus qualities of anxiety, which distract the athlete from his appointed task.

5. There are few direct studies of the psychoticism-superego variable, but in general very successful athletes seems to have higher scores on psychoticism than do less successful sportsmen or non-sporting persons. Although less work has been done with this variable than with Extraversion and Neuroticism, but the results seem fairly well established.

6. The reasons for the relationship between psychoticism and success with sport probably lies in the aggressiveness of the high psychoticism scorer, his egocentricity, and his general competitiveness. It is possible that these qualities may be less apparent in team sports, where cooperation is necessary, than in individual sports, but there are no data to support this hypothesis as yet.
7. The effects of sporting activities on personality are not really known, although there are many theories in this connection. It is often suggested that sporting activities may have a beneficial effect on personality, particularly in reducing depression and anxiety, but the evidence does not support such a view.

Social Desirability (LIE SCALE)

The 'Lie' (L) Scale was basically included in the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) to facilitate detection of faking and Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) found it successful in identifying individuals' 'faking good.' A number of factorial and experimental studies have been carried out to explore the nature of this scale (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971). The scale has been found to be possessing a considerable degree of factorial unity, with individual items having high loadings on this factor and on no other. According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1975), this scale measures some static personality factor which possibly denotes some degree of 'social naivete' yet, not much is known about the precise nature of this scale (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975).

Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) found 'increased tendency
to lie' associated with introversion. Persons having 'L' scores of Zero scored high on E-scale. Mosher (1965) observed that a high 'L' or social desirability score showed a tendency to protect self-esteem, or a ego defence mechanism.

Many investigators have given different viewpoints on this scale. It is being considered a tendency to respond in a socially desirable way and also described as 'a desire to conform to social norms' (Edwards, and Ver- din, 1978), 'nice personality' (Skinner 1977) etc.

A detailed review of literature on this scale (Verma, 1977) suggests that this is a powerful independent factor of personality which needs to be studied in its own right and not as a more 'response-bias' to be corrected.

**Locus of Control**

The concept of Locus of Control developed by Rotter (1966) has attained a notable place in the psychological investigative works done in the recent years. The Locus of Control is regarded as a personality construct which
reflects the individual's perception of the place of events and the degree of personal control that he has over the reinforcements following his behaviour. The concepts such as self confidence, ego strength, mastery etc. have been used to denote the "degree to which man is able and believes himself to be capable of controlling the important events in his life space" (Lefcourt, 1966).

In other words, the concept of locus of control refers to the individually perceived sources of control over certain behaviours or events. Internal locus of control is associated with the perception of events, whether positive or negative, of being consequences of one's own actions and thereby potentially under personal control. External locus of control on the other hand refers to perception of negative or positive events as being unrelated to self behaviour and accordingly beyond personal control (Lefcourt, 1976). It was noted by Rotter (1966) that reinforcement, a recognised major determinant of behaviour was not simply a "stamping in" process but it depended upon the individuals perception of it (Decharms, 1976; Fanelli, 1977 and Lefcourt, 1976). It is a generalized expectancy, as opposed to specific expectancy, being an abstraction developed from a host of experience in which
expectancies have met with varying degrees of validation.

Lefcourt (1976) says that Locus of Control can more suitably be defined as "a circumscribed self appraisal pertaining to the degree to which individuals view themselves as having some causal role in determining specific events." It is a personality dimension involving individuals' perceived control over events occurring in his life. It refers to the extents to which a person believes that he has control over the reinforcement which he experiences. Some individuals develop unshakable beliefs that valued reinforcements occur only by chance, and that men are not the masters of their destinies. Others may strongly believe that the man is responsible for his fate. When a reinforcement is perceived by the individual following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his actions, then it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. Individuals interpreting the events in this manner hold a belief in "external control." On the other hand, if the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behaviour for his own relatively permanent characteristics
then it is termed as "internal control." An internally controlled person believes that he is in control of his fate and that effort and reward will be inter-correlated. But an externally controlled individual thinks that it is powerful others or the systems which determine his efforts and rewards.

Although sports provide man with the opportunity to rely on his own abilities and capabilities in an arena in which he can prove to himself and others that he is worthy or capable yet winning greed is, strictly speaking, associated with the cultural ethos of a society (Alderman, 1974). The sport psyche is very much affected by the socio-political philosophy of a nation. A single value or a group of values, may at a given moment impinge upon the athletes' performance. A different value or a group of values may at another time, prompt him to perform well (Gratty, 1974). Whateoever may be the dynamics it has been a common observation that there are two major loci of control in the career of sports competitors - the internal and the external. The internal factors may include, ability, superiority in skill, practice, suitable body build etc. While the external factors may include, chance factors, luck, influence of highups, financial backing, officials' role and judgement etc (Kamlesh, 1996). Success or failure
in sports, to a great degree, are definitely dependent on these factors. The political climate exerts tremendous influences upon the direction and the quality of sports participation (Cratty, 1973). Many superior athletes fail to achieve the desired goals, not withstanding their practice and preparation for the events, for luck does not favour them. For many a promising athletes, sometimes gates are shut at the time of entry or start. When the athletes take refuge in the lady-luck under whose capricious eyes all are equal, or they earn the patronage of politicians, their belief in superior skill or ability and dedication toward a goal and concentration during participation is shaken. Sports is one of the unique settings in this context for the study of internal and external loci of control of the sports participants.

Researches have shown that the individuals having External Locus of Control are more prone to such maladaptive behaviours as, anxiety (Patton and Freitaz, 1977; Malinari and Khanna, 1981), Neuroticism (Agrawal and Walia, 1977; Morelli et al, 1979; Wamback and Panackal, 1979) and rigidity (Mishra, 1974). Both theory and research point to Internal Locus of Control as the more effective mode of functioning of the individual. Internality has
been positively related to self concept (Agrawal and Singh, 1974), study habits (Prociuk and Breen, 1974; Faroqi and Thawaxan, 1973) and academic achievement (Prociuk and Breen, 1974). In the past, several investigators considered the degree to which Internal–External Locus of Control might be related to attribution of causality of success and failure outcomes. Gilmore and Minton (1974) and Sobel (1974) reported that internals are more likely to attribute success to their own abilities and external attribute failure to luck or chance. Furthermore, evaluation of outcome tended to be consistent with one's locus of control orientation. The findings of Chaudhary (1986) indicated that the dimensions of locus of control are factorially independent of personality variables and causal attribution.

**SPORTS ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION**

One of the most prominent psychological motives seen in man is the need to achieve. The need for achievement is defined operationally as behaviour which shows effort to do one's best, to do better than others or, in general, to accomplish something (Ruch, 1970). Achievement motive is the social motive to accomplish something of value or
importance, to meet standards of excellence in what one does (Hilgard et al 1979).

In his latest work Cratty (1989) has presented an excellent account of achievement motivation in sports in which he has mentioned that "the achievement of excellence for its own sake usually implies that athletes are motivated to do well because they possess the skills or the physical qualities needed to perform a given sports. To phrase it another way, they are intrinsically motivated. A great deal of research and thought has been devoted to variables influencing intrinsic motivation, usually believed to be the most desirable type of motive." Weiner (1972) has defined achievement-oriented behaviour as "behaviour directed toward the attainment of approval, or the avoidance of disapproval for competence of performance in situations to which standards of excellence are relevant." Zigler and Child (1969), pointed out that Achievement Motivation is a desire to excel in reference to a standard of excellence.

According to Weiss (1969) "the pursuit of excellence is an inherent part of many cultures. It was suggested by him that one of the few ways in which youths may exhibit
excellence is through physical endeavours, using their bodies as the vehicle for acquiring a measure of greatness not usually attainable by youths in intellectual endeavours requiring broad experience."

Cratty (1939) has mentioned that Atkinson (1964) a leading researcher concerned with achievement motivation has divided this type of orientation into two subcomponents: (1) the need to achieve success (Ms) and (2) the need to avoid failure (Maf). He used a projective test T.A.T. (Thematic Apperception Test) to evaluate these qualities, and generally equated the need to avoid failure with task centered anxiety. According to Atkinsons' formula, an individuals overall achievement motivation is represented by the need to achieve minus the motive to avoid failure. He concluded that a high achiever was an individual whose need for success was greater than the need to avoid failure, while a low achiever displayed the reverse tendency, a need to avoid failure greater than the need for success.

Weiner (1972) has enlisted the following characteristics of people having high achievement needs:
1. They are likely to initiate and to choose achievement laden situations as sport, in which goals are visible and measurable.

2. They persist after failure and tend to accept personal responsibility for failure, rather than blaming others.

3. They work with greater intensity, and often with greater efficiency and speed.

4. They more often choose tasks of intermediate difficulty in which their capacities are likely to be tested, rather than tasks of little difficulty or those in which attainment is highly unlikely.

5. They seek feedback about their relative success at frequent intervals. Thus, the athlete who constantly asks for some appraisal by the coach is probably exhibiting relatively high achievement needs.

6. Their social affiliation and acceptance need may be slow, they value performance success rather than friendship formation as an outcome of competitive sports.

Cratty (1989) gives a word of caution when he says that "achievement-oriented athletes may at times prove socially abrasive both to teammates and to their coach. Their constant seeking of feedback with which to evaluate their own performance, coupled with their social rejection of less able teammates, may make them cases for special handling and consideration by those in charge of athletic teams."
Singer (1984) expressed his views that "Sports by its very nature provides conditions that bring out a degree of achievement orientation in those who decide to compete. The awareness of "deciding to compete" or to engage in conscious rivalry may come to an individual much later in life but the psychologists, for sure, know that the element of competition is inherent in play whether the child is in the know of it or not. Hence achievement-oriented motivation is an inextricable part of human behaviour - whether it is in work or in play."

According to McClelland (1953) achievement motivation should be defined as "competition with a standard of excellence" or the "degree to which a player is willing to approach a competitive situation. Singer (1984) observes that achievement motivation is typically considered with behaviours in the context in which there is: (1) reference to a standard of excellence or competition against others which allows for evaluation as to level of success or failure, (2) a degree of challenge (uncertainty as to outcome) and (3) a personal sense of responsibility for the outcome."
It is undeniable that unless one is highly motivated, one may not perform excellently at a given task and also unless some success is achieved, the further effort in the task may not be continued. Normally, individual who exhibit a high need for achievement are optimistic, conscientious and ambitious and show more frequent patterns of delayed gratification and long term involvement.

**SPORTS COMPETITION ANXIETY**

Medical dictionary defines anxiety as "apprehension of danger accompanied by restlessness and a feeling of oppression in the epigastrium." Morehouse & Miller (1976) call anxiety "a disorganisation of a person's motor nervous system that renders him incapable of skilled movement." The concept of anxiety has been variously labelled as disturbed state (Johnson, 1951), emotional reactivity (Hardman & Johnson, 1952), nervousness (Ikegami, 1970), neuroticism (Kane, 1970) and so on and so forth. According to Rethlingshafer (1963) anxiety is like passing clouds across the sun which lingers and truly beclouds the man. Pikunas (1969) explains anxiety as an unrealistic and unpleasant state of body and mind. Followers of psychoanalytic school of psychology consider anxiety to be a
"defence mechanism" against repression and suppression of the primary and secondary needs of life.

According to Kamlesh (1984) "preparing for and seriously training to participate in the highly competitive sports of the modern times, is fraught with anxiety element. This puts the athlete virtually on tenterhooks. Skill-acquisition, selection in the team, attitude of the coach, chances of successfully competing and "winning", peer-acceptance etc are some of the factors which give an athlete" anxious moments." Hull (1943) observed that in the early stages of learning when wrong responses are dominant, low anxiety subjects should be expected to perform better than high anxiety subjects. The reverse would be true after skills were thoroughly mastered.

It is conceived that in the early stages of learning, the subjects are more anxious and their performance proceeds with fits and starts and there are many a "stumbling blocks." With the level of skill-acquisition going up, anxiety seems to be going down since success in achievement and building up of confidence, reduce anxiety. Spence and Spence (1966), Milne (1971), Misner (1973) and O'conner (1977) have confirmed that high
anxious subjects would do more poorly than low anxious
subjects and the moderately anxious subjects tend to
improve their performance. High level of anxiety has
a detrimental effect upon motor performance.

**Trait Anxiety Vs State Anxiety**

Although there was some conceptual distinction
emerging between trait and state anxiety in the 1950s,
it was Spielberger (1966) who clearly differentiated the
two. State Anxiety refers to an existing or immediate
emotional state characterised by apprehension and tension.
Trait Anxiety is a predisposition to perceive certain
situations as threatening and to respond to these situa-
tions with varying levels of state anxiety. Anxiety
states are characterised by subjective, consciously
perceived feelings of apprehension and tension, accompa-
nied by or associated with activation or arousal of the
Autonomic Nervous System. Trait anxiety, however is a
motive or acquired behavioural disposition that predis-
poses an individual to perceive a wide range of objectively
non dangerous circumstances as threatening and to respond
to these with state-anxiety reactions disproportionate
in intensity to the magnitude of the objective danger.
Persons high in trait-anxiety either perceive more situations as threatening, or respond to threatening situations with more intense levels of state-anxiety, or both. The following analogy, suggested by Spielberger (1966), is useful in conceptualizing the difference between state and trait anxiety. State anxiety is to trait anxiety as kinetic energy is to potential energy. State anxiety is like kinetic energy; it is a reaction taking place now at some level of intensity. Trait anxiety is comparable to potential energy, a latent disposition for a reaction to occur if triggered by appropriate stimuli.

Competitive Trait Anxiety is a situation-specific modification of the A-trait construct developed by Spielberger (1966). Competitive A-trait is defined as a tendency to perceive competitive situations as threatening and to respond to these situations with feelings of apprehension or tension. The operationalization of the competitive A-trait construct is important in understanding behaviour in sports, specifically understanding which competitive situations are perceived as threatening and how persons respond to this threat. The sport competition anxiety test (SCAT) has been developed to assess competitive A-trait (Martens, 1977).
General Anxiety Vs Situation Specific Anxiety

Martens (1977) reported that many behavioural scientists have examined the relationship between general A-trait and various behaviours, but they have not obtained the anticipated consistent findings and generalizations. A group of psychologists (Mandler & Sarason, 1952; Sarason et al, 1960) have presented an alternative viewpoint based on their belief that personology is not yet ready to study anxiety as a unitary, general phenomenon. Instead, they claim that anxiety is a learned response to situations. In other words, one person may become quite anxious when taking a math test, sitting in the dentists' chair, or delivering a speech, but not become anxious when competing in a hockey-game, performing at a piano recital, or taking a drivers' examination. Thus, we can better predict behaviour when we have more knowledge of the specific situation and how persons tend to respond to these types of situations. Spielberger (1972) pointed out that "in general, situation specific trait anxiety measures are better predictors of elevations in A-state for a particular class of stress situations than are the general A-trait measures."
The competitive A-trait construct is a situation-specific construct, especially developed to identify A-trait dispositions in competitive sports situations. Its development is based substantially on the evidence that situation-specific A-trait constructs are better predictors of behaviour in the particular situations for which the construct was designed.

What determines the level of competitive anxiety experienced by the athletes? Martens (1977) tried to answer this question by explaining that "the consequences of engaging in the competitive process may be self-imposed or acquired from others, they may be tangible or nontangible, and they may be perceived as rewards or punishments. In competition, the consequences are frequently viewed in terms of success and failure with success normally perceived as a positive consequences and failure as a negative consequences. The long term consequences of competition have considerable influence on the subjective competitive situations, or how the person perceives future objective competitive situations. Understanding the history of consequences from participation in competitive situations helps determine whether a person approaches or avoids them. In large part, the accumulated consequences of participation in the competitive process are thought
to determine the individual difference in competitive 
A-trait."

SPORTSMANSHIP

As the sports competitions are growing tougher with 
rapidly increasing importance of victory in this area, 
a general tendency of lawlessness is observed in many 
athletes. However, in its true sense, it is not meant for 
creating indiscipline but to provide an atmosphere where 
the individuals have ample opportunities to grow as sincere, 
honest, and morally strong human beings. "Playing game 
with the spirit of the game" remains a valuable slogan 
which clearly indicates that winning by hook or crook can 
not be labelled true sports but the thing which matters 
most is the fairness with which it is played, no matter 
it is won or lost.

According to Savage (1929) "such qualities as loyalty, 
self-sacrifice, courage, and, above all honesty can be 
more readily and directly cultivated through the activities 
and habits of the playing field than in almost any other 
phase of college life."
For Kennedy (1931) it was not sufficient that sportsmanship characterize man's activities on the athletic field; it must permeate all of life. He maintained that when the individual passes out from the playing fields to the tasks of life, he will have the same responsibility resting upon him, in greater degree, of fighting in the same spirit for the cause he represents. He will meet bitter and sometimes unfair opposition. He will meet defeat but must not forget that the great victory of which he can never be robbed will be the ability to say, when the race is over and the struggle ended, that the flag he fought under was the shining flag of sportsmanship, never furled or hauled down and that, in victory or defeat, he never lost that contempt for a breach of sportsmanship which will prevent him stooping to it anywhere, anyhow, any time.

Lawther (1959) throws light on the concept of sportsmanship by describing the true sportsman. He says that "Sportsmanship refers to behaviour, not to the inner feelings of competitors during competition and after victory or defeat. The good sportsman is able to control his feelings in such a way that he can smile and congratulate the winner when he, himself is defeated, and
refuses to boast or gloat when he wins. He plays hard but fair. He is friendly to his opponents and thoroughly enjoys the challenge of real competition. Inspite of zeal and high emotional pitch, he remains a gentleman. But if he does not hate to lose, and love to win, he deserves no credit for his behaviour. He is controlling no emotions. He has no emotions. He is only half a man."

Pope Pius XII (1960), speaking of fair play which is widely regarded as an essential ingredient of sportsmanship, has said:

"From the birthplace of sports came also the proverbial phrase" fair play.....sports is the school of loyalty, of courage, of fortitude, of resolution and universal brotherhood."

According to Frost (1971) "through sports a person is involved in many situations in which he must stand alone and experience intense emotions. This type of situation abounds in life and one must learn to face it. Lessons learned in sports can assist a person in making right decisions and ethical judgements later in life. Participants in athletics are influenced by the ideas, principles
and actions of outstanding leaders whom they admire and respect. Self-descriptive acceptance of rules, control of emotions, subjugation of the self for the good of the group, are examples of habits and principles which may be learned in sports and which can later be applied in other spheres of life."

As per Singer (1977) "Sportsmanship" has been defined as "honest rivalry" and the "graceful acceptance of results." Many educators claim that sportsmanship and other desirable values can and should be taught through athletic experiences.

Winer (1979) observed that the players having good amount of sportsmanship do not get unduly depressed after they lose but they tend to analyse the reasons of their defeat and come back to play regularly. They do not become hostile, abusive or quarrelsome after getting frustrated instead they show fair amount of emotional maturity in their behaviour.

Indicating towards the dynamics of sportsmanship Tutko (1979) describes the winning athletes as courageous, loyal, competitive, dedicated, fierce, determined,
aggressive, team persons, tough-minded, psyched-up and motivated individuals.

There is a long standing belief that sports builds character which is the core of the sportsmanship or sportsmanspirit. Athletes by long interaction with their coplayers, and opponents develop such traits like tolerance, feeling of coexistence and cooperation, confidence, sacrifice, dedication etc. which contribute towards character development and sportsmanspirit.

Sportsman spirit, as Dubey (1935) puts it, has a great significance in all the aspects of one's life. It indicates, the standard of thinking, mode of behaviour and general outlook. It also determines a certain characteristics of one's personality, such as honesty, tolerance, Courtesy, friendliness, cheerfulness, obedience and so on.

Sportsmanship is open to interpretation, especially with respect to its application to and demonstration in sports. The moralist has one viewpoint, the pragmatist another. The issue is the discrepancy between expected
and actual behaviour. Very few people would encourage the coach to teach his players to use unethical practices, to deliberately break rules, to cheat, and to act out their emotional instability. Ideally the athlete should be able to play hard but fairly. It must be realised, however, that the social conduct and athletic performance involved in playing hard will not always be in conformity with a strict code of ethics.

Kroll (1975) posits that sportsmanspirit differs from those rules of conduct associated with "manners" or "etiquette"; rather, it is better conceived as involving a sacrifice of success strategy in favour of a decision guided by moral criteria.