Concept requires tremendous insight. This means that a person must be able to see himself as he actually is, not as he would like to be or as others perceive him.

An operational definition given by Sacswet Gam (1981). "The self-concept is an individual's way of looking at himself." Thought self-concept is highly complex, most of the researches done today have concerned themselves with two dimensions of self-concept. These dimensions are — (a) positive/negative self-concept, (b) perceived self and ideal self-discrepancies.

Self-concept is the mean by which we create our image and identity (Chouhan 1978). Therefore, self-concept is the core of personality pattern. A change in the self-concept will bring changes in the entire personality. Changing one's self-concept requires tremendous insight.

With a strong self-concept base an individual will be more confident, assured and assertive in his actions with other people and in the endeavors he undertakes.

Koening (1969) in his study on high school basketball players
found that personality differences existed between athletes and non-athletes with regard to sociability, group orientation and emotional control. Both university team members and intramural players had higher self-concept than non-participants with regard to sportsmanship, degree of faminity and family influence.

Frost’s (1970) research on self-concept, shows that all sportsmen were of the opinion that other’s perception serve as an added and stimulus to perform well, inspire them to try harder and motivate them to perform better. "Self-Image" is also an important concept as far as team motivation is concerned.

Bash (1972) and Richard (1979) found no relationship between self-concept and sports participation.

Darden (1972) noticed significant differences on self-concept among team sports and individual sports but not between combined team sports and combined individual sports.

Pete (1973) employing two way ANOVA statistical procedure, observed that winning performance appears to have a significant positive effect on self-concept of high school wrestlers. Wrestlers have a lower level of self-concept as a result of low level of wrestling performance, whereas wrestlers who demonstrate high level of winning performance appear to have a significantly higher positive self-concept.

Alderman (1974) several kinds of identifiable personality traits revolve around what could be considered the sportsman’s self-concept, a self image traits such as self-confidence, self assurance, self-enhancement and self-concept all evolve out of this elaboration of a person’s self-concept a self Image.

Hirtchison (1977) using Martinek—Zaichkowsky self-concept
scale, on the other hand, concluded that there was no significant relationship between self-concept and body estimation.

Bittner (1977), Kulka and Progman (1976) and Zion (1979) reported that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and age.

Riley (1983) studied the inter-relationship between self-concept and physical performance from the perspective of symbolic interaction theory and findings revealed a significant positive relationship between self-concept and physical performance.

Singh and Debnath (1986) studied the competitive performance and self-concept of Indian gymnasts. They found better in self-concept scores when compared with the poor performance group. The better performance of the group they claimed could be attribute to its better self-concept. It appears that the authors have made a generalization which at the moment can not be accepted as the study failed to control other variables.

Mathew and Ranganathan (1987) in their study, concluded that there is no difference in the self-concept of volleyball and football players, but when the various dimensions of self-concept were compared separately it was conclude that :

I. The volleyball players have significantly higher self-concept regarding their health and physique.

II. There is no difference between the temperamental qualities among them.

III. Volleyball & football players showed more or less similar concept regarding their academic status.

IV. In case of intellectual abilities, the study showed no difference
between volleyball & football players.

V. Habits and behaviors seem to be alike for volleyball and football players.

VI. Both of them are having the same concept regarding emotional tendencies.

VII. The volleyball players are having significantly higher self-concept regarding their mental health.

VIII. The self-concept regarding socio-economic status of volleyball & football players showed no difference in this study.

Sharma (1993) investigated relationship of self-concept adjustment to performance of team players. The sample consisted of 240 male players selected randomly from the institutes of Chandigarh. He used the Sarswat (1984) self-concept scale. He found that high performance of football players, found negative relationship with physical, temperamental and moral self-concept. Significant difference was observed among four groups on moral intellectual and total self-concept.

ADJUSTMENT

Robert (1964) using the AAHPER physical fitness test and the Washburne social adjustment inventory, studied the physical fitness and adjustment of students in the college campus. The differences in the scores of basketball and football groups on the adjustment inventory were not significant at 0.05 level. He concluded that many forces must be studied to determine the needs of students to help them in their social and emotional adjustment.

Antovielli and Massellani (1973) conducted a study on
adjustment of 351 Italian top athletes. He used the Bell's inventory (1937) of adjustment. He found that male athletes were better adjusted than female athletes, athletes seemed to have better adjustments in athletics, volleyball, sailing and dancing. The sports in which adjustment was found poor, were cycling, rowing and gymnastics.

Rani (1974) studied the personality adjustment differences of (N=170) athletes and non-athletes, by administering the Bell's adjustment inventory (1937). Mean, standard deviation and t–ratio statistical techniques were used to analyse the data. She found that there were differences in personality adjustment between athletes, who participated in group and non athletes in the individual event group. Badminton players have better home adjustment than track and field athletes, wrestler and tennis players. As far as the team game groups were concerned, hockey players were better adjusted in health than football, basketball and volleyball players. Non–athletes had better home adjustment and poor health adjustment as compared to the athletes. Athletes were more aggressive than non–athletes and were also emotionally more unstable than non-athletes.

Verma (1975) reported that sportsmen participating in individual sports prefer own decision, whereas sportsmen of team sports were round followers and group dependent (group adherence). Winning and losing football teams were compared by Kroll and Peterson (1965). The winners were reported to be socially bolder, self-controlled and better integrated than losers.

Blazer (1975) conducted a study on 24 female volunteer subjects, who represented the U.S. in the 1972 Olympic games, as member of the swimming, track and field and ski–teams. Interviews, personal data questionnaire (PDQ) and Edward Personal Performance Schedule (1954) (EPPS), were used as tools to
assess the psycho-social characteristics of outstanding female athletes. It was concluded that outstanding female athletes had value orientation that pushed them from childhood onward to the highest level of performance in sports. They had particular family dynamics that seemed to be crucial like the parent's support and encouragement coupled with their high expectations. They gave manifestation of integrity and autonomy and they appeared to hold satisfying social contacts and heterosexual relations.

In another study, using the 16 PF questionnaire, Verma (1976) found that Kabaddi players were emotionally stable (factor C+), whereas wrestlers were emotionally less stable (Factor C−) and tense (Factor Q4). In the Indian cultural context Giri (1977), by using the 16PF questionnaire, observed that contact athletes, as compared with semi-contact and non-contact athletes, were bright (factor B +) and group dependent (factor Q2). He further observed that personality patterns of each of the group at various level were similar.

Hatfield (1978) conducted a study with regard to effect of interpersonal attraction and tolerance intolerance of ambiguity, an athletes team productivity. This study was concerned with identifying the effects of interpersonal ambiguity on actual productivity (win-loss proportions) in selected sports activities. One hundred and fifty physical education students (male) were randomly assigned to sports teams and on the basis of their responses to Budner's (1962) scale for intolerance of ambiguity, were divided into two groups of each sports, team comprising subjects who reported that scores as tolerance of ambiguity—(TA) competed against a team comprised of subjects, who reported themselves as intolerance of ambiguity (IA). Suezek and Laforage's (1955) inter-personal checklist was responded to in an attempt to determine whether differences were present between IA and TA. Teams with respect to how each team
member perceived his team and as to how each team member perceived his mates. The absence of any significant difference in this regard was suggested to have been caused by a general reference being made to a stereotype image of an athlete. As hypothesized, TA team's actual productivity was found to be greater in sports where inter-personal co-operation was not seen as a necessary condition for success, but where such co-operate was necessary, TA teams fared poorly and conversely. Team comprised of IA subjects performed better in highly attractive team sports and not so well in non attractive (individual) sports. The results were significant between IA and TA teams in win proportion in wrestling (t=1.96).

Sharma (1984) using the cattel 16 DF questionnaire reported that personality factor E+ (Aggressive) had been retained by basketball, football and volleyball sports groups excepting hockey sportsmen. Similarly, personality factor C+ (emotional stability) had been observed in the personality profiles of football and hockey sports groups, but the same factor was not retained by basketball and volleyball sports groups. Factor Q3− emerged in the personality profiles of basketball players. He has also found that the sportsmen representing universities are emotionally stable, aggressive, conscientious, trusting, practical and group dependent.

Singh (1986) identified some psychological differences between champion and non-champion boxers of all India Inter-university level. The sample consisted of 33 non-champion boxers who participated in All India Inter University Boxing Championship held at Haryana Agriculture University Hisser. The Cattel's 16 PF questionnaire was employed to evaluate the personality characteristics of the players. He found among others, that the champion boxers were emotionally more stable, less depressive, unfrustrated, socially bold and self-sufficient.
Bhatti (1987) has also studied the adjustment level of athletes and non-athletes by using Bell's adjustment inventory (1937). A descriptive analysis was carried out and it was found that home adjustment of non-athletes was significantly better than athletes. There could not be found any differences in their health, social and emotional adjustment. Basketball group was found to be emotionally better adjusted than non-athletes. The football group was superior in health adjustment, but inferior in social adjustment than non-athletes. No difference was found in home and emotional adjustment. Volleyball group was found to be submissive and retiring in their social contacts and emotionally unstable than non-athletes.

Fortgalland (1988) conducted a study on health condition and temperament before and after physical conditioning programme. The purpose of the study was to assess the strength endurance training on health condition and temperament of athletes specializing in different sports discipline. The subjects were students of professional course in coaching at NIS, south center, Bangalore. They were from track and field –27, volleyball –16, hockey–18, hand ball –16, lawn-tennis–5, kho–kho and kabaddi –28 and cricket–11. The test used was seven point bi-polar profile constructed by Mathesius (1972). The result indicated that after the strength endurance training, track and field, kho–kho and kabaddi players has shown the negative change in health conditions to a significant level. In other disciplines they had shown positive change but not significant.

Singh (1988) investigated psychological characteristics of athletes in team games and individual events. The psychological variables included, the adjustment variables i.e. home, health, social, emotional, educational and total adjustment. The sample consisted of 202 athletes (88 individual and 114 team athletes). The
athletes were attending the coaching camps in various games to participate in all India-university competitions. The adjustment inventory of Sinha and Singh (1980) was used along with some other personality measures. The findings of the study were that individual and team athletes did not differ significantly on various areas of adjustment except educational adjustment, where the difference was significant. Significant inter-sports differences were found on all areas of adjustment. The successful athletes also differed significantly from unsuccessful athletes in all areas of adjustment.

Nangia and Sengar (1989) administered Sinha and Singh adjustment inventory (1980) on 320 sports persons and non-sports persons. Subjects included players of university level teams of basketball, volleyball, hockey, cricket, athletics, badminton, table-tennis and non-sports persons. "t" test revealed significant differences in adjustment levels of sportsmen and sportswomen as well as between sports persons and non-sports persons. Significant differences were also found in the players of team and individual games.

Yadav (1992) studied selected personality variables, adjustment and socio-economic status of mass and class athletes of college and university levels. The sample consisted of 200 mass and 200 class athletes selected randomly from five universities of North-West India. The events included, basketball, football, handball, volleyball (mass sports), cricket, badminton and lawn-tennis (class sports). Cattell's 16 PF questionnaire (1962), Sinha and Singh Adjustment Inventory (1980) for the college students and Socio-Economic Status Scale by Gyanendra P. Srivastava (1982) were used. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed on different variables. The results indicated that mass sports athletes performed significantly better than the class sports athletes on adjustment variables i.e. health, social, emotional and educational. The results
with regard to successful and non-successful categories of athletes have not been found significantly different on adjustment variables except on health adjustment. The results, with regard to adjustment of different groups of athletes, indicated inter group differences on various subscales of adjustment. The handball and the basketball groups were found better adjusted than all other sports groups on home and health adjustment respectively.

Nirmaljit (1992) conducted a study with regard to the adjustment as related to performance and gender in team sports. The sample consisted 320 athletes (160 male and 160 female), selected randomly from colleges and universities of Haryana and Union Territory of Chandigarh. She used Sinha and Singh Adjustment Inventory (1980) to measure all the areas of adjustment. She found the university athletes were significantly different from the college athletes on social emotional and total adjustment. The male athletes from the team sports were found better adjusted than the female athletes from the same sports groups on all the adjustment variables except home adjustment in which the difference between the male and female athlete were not significant.

BODY IMAGE

Fisher (1958a, 1958b, 1961, 1965) has explained that some people focus more on the right than the left side, some of the back rather than the front and some on the upper half rather than the lower. A great deal of work has been done to explain the effect of body type and other physical characteristics on the performance of sportsmen. The effects of the morphological factors on sports performance have been well established by now.

Sloan (1963) found that college men having a positive body image had a higher level of motor ability than those who had a
negative attitude towards their body.

Sugerman and Haronian (1964) explored the relationship between body type and sophistication of body concept as measured by human figure drawings. They suggested that endomorphy or fat is related positively to a primitive body concept and mesomorphy or muscularity is related positively to highly sophisticated body concept.

Fisher (1964b) compared sex differences in body perception and found that a woman who is highly aware of her body is one who expresses herself with a clear sense of self-identity.

Leahy (1966) had found low correlation (.08 to -.22) between self–image and body image on one hand and on gross motor task of stabilometer balancing in college men on other hand.

Armstrong and Armstrong (1968) tried to explore the relation fitness to a dimension of body image for adolescent boys and girls. They found that the relationship between the body image and physical fitness existed only for girls but not for boys.

Dardon (1972) compared body image, body cathexis and self–cathexis variables among the following sports groups at Florida State University. Team sports– football (N=65), basketball (N=12) and baseball (N=26). Individual sports, weight–lifting (N=15), swimming (N=18) and gymnastics (N=9). Using multiple discriminate analyses, significant differences were noted among the team sports and individual sports. But not between the combined team sports and combined individual sports. Significant differences were also noted among six sports groups for the body and self cathexis variables, but not for the body image variable of the groups tested. The basketball players and gymnasts were found to be the most different from each other.
Synder and Kelvin (1975) in comparing women athletes and non-athletes on measures of psychological well being and body image, found more positive self attitude among the women gymnasts and basketball players and found inconclusive evidence of difference the two sports on body image and psychological well being.

Russel (1977) investigated the effects of participation in a selected programme of physical conditioning upon the body image and self-concept of male and female college students. Subjects included 120 male and female college students of Handerson State University Arkadelphia during the spring semester of 1976. Two groups were involved. The experimental group of 30 male and 30 female students voluntarily enrolled in the course of "conditioning". The control group consisted of 30 male and 30 female student enrolled in the course of "Health and safety." The results of this investigation were as follows:

1. Participation in physical conditioning did not significantly effect the body image of college men and women.

2. The effect of physical conditioning upon the body image of college men were not greater than the effects upon the body image of college women.

3. Participation in physical conditioning did not significantly affect the self-concept of college men and women.

4. The effect of physical conditioning upon the self-concept of college men was not greater than the self-concept of college women.

Kay (1979) investigated, if a relationship exists between body image and body composition, the second purpose was to determine
if a relationship did exist was the relationship general or specific to the body image weight factor. One hundred seventy (170) college females of physical activity classes of Texas University were included as subjects, and were administered a revised body image questionnaire and triceps, thighs and sacroiliacs skinfold measures were taken. He concluded that:

1. The body image of college females is related to their body composition, females who had a higher percent of body fat, had a negative body image. College females who had a lower percent of body fat, had a positive body image.

2. The Relationship between body image and body composition is specific rather than general. Females who had a higher percent body fat had negative feeling towards weight related items of body image. Females who had a lower percent of body fat had positive feeling towards the weight related items. Although the relationship is low, when the weight–related items were held constant, females who had a higher percent of fat tended to have positive body image.

Robert (1984) compared body composition, physical dimension and maximal physiological responses of females high school gymnasts to non–athletes high school females. Thirteen (13) high school gymnasts were compared with 13 non–athletes females of same high school. Gymnasts were members of an elite gymnastics team placed first in the 1982 Washington state gymnastics championship. Members of gymnastic team participated in training and competition for six months. Prior to measurement and were considered at their optimum level. He found that female high school gymnasts had similar skeletal structure when compared to non–athletic controls. Non–athletic high school female had less lean tissue and more body fat. The percent of body fat of gymnasts was
14.22% less than that reported for more mature females gymnasts. The female gymnasts also exhibited higher $O_2$ max and performed better on test to estimate anaerobic capacity and anaerobic power output than controls.

Paul Vaccaro (1984) selected eighty-seven female master swimmers ranging in age from 20 to 69 years, for a detailed study of their body composition and physiological responses at rest and during exercise. These women were then placed into two subset, a highly trained group and a not highly trained group. On the basis of the frequency, duration, and intensity of swimming workouts. Significant differences detected when comparing the highly trained group and not highly trained group on measure of weight, body density, percent fat and lean body weight ($P < .05$). Significant differences which favoured highly trained group were also seen when comparing these same two groups. (For $V_E$ max, $V_O_2$ max (1/Min) $V_O_2$ max (ml/kg$^{-1}$ min$^{-1}$) $V_O_2$ max. Both the highly trained and not highly trained swimming were considerably lower in percent fat than previously supported data for normal untrained women of similar age, in both groups. However, percent fat across age levels within each training group showed significant increase at approximately 40 years of age ($P < .05$) in the highly trained swimmers, $V_O_2$ max (ml$^{-1}$) decreased at a mean rate of about 7% per decade, while in the not highly trained swimmers the decline was approximately 8% per decade, It appears that the rate of decline in $V_O_2$ max in women with aging may be independent of training status.

Adame (1989) conducted a study of physical fitness, body image, and locus of control in college freshmen and women. They examined the relationship among physical fitness, body image and locus of control. The Hall’s Physical Fitness Test Profile, the Winsteread and Cash, Body Self-Relation's Questionnaire (BSRQ)
and the Nowickistrickland Locus of Control Scale were administered to 243 freshmen. The results showed that:

1. Women were significantly more positive about their physical appearance than men.

2. Men were significantly more positive about their physical fitness than women.

3. Men and women scoring in the internal direction viewed the physical fitness domain of their body image positively.

4. Men were more physically fit than women.

5. Unlike men, internally oriented women had more positive perception of the health aspect of their body image.

6. Physically fit men and women had positive attitude toward the physical fitness component of their body image.

Kathy and Virginia Overdorf (1994) conducted a study concerned with determining whether female high school athletes (N=364) in sports which require a thin body built were at increased risk for developing eating disorder based upon concerns about weight, attitude toward eating and level of self-concept. It was hypothesized that thin built athletes (cheer leading (N=58), gymnasts (N=24) and track and field (N=100) would report more excessive concerns about their weight, more negative attitude towards eating, and lower self-concept than normal built athletes [basketball (n=47), field hockey (n=35), soccer (n=39), softball (n=28) and volleyball (n=33)] athletes completed the eating behavior of athletes 11 inventory and the Tennessee self-concept scale during their sport season. As predicted, thin built athletes were significantly more likely to think about their weight. To believe that athletes performance was directly related to thin weight, to report
that others viewed than as being underweight, and to report dreading meal time. The thin build athletes were also more likely to think about food, to feel guilty after eating, and to feel little control over eating than the normal built athletes. In term of self-concept, the thin built athletes were significantly more likely to have a negative view of their basic identity and lower level of general adjustment. He finally concluded that since the female athletes in sports which require thinness tended to be preoccupied with their weight and food, and have low self-concept, they may beat increased risk for developing eating disorders.

**SOCIO–ECONOMIC STATUS**

McIntyre (1959) investigated the socio–economic background of athletes representing football, basketball and gymnastics. The analysis of variance revealed that gymnasts came from higher socio–economic background following by football, wrestlers and basketball players.

Ponthienex and Berker (1965) using AAHPER youth fitness test with both boys and girls age 10–12 in a small Texas community found relationship between socio–economic status and seven aspects of physical fitness test, and revealed that boys from low socio–economic status were faster than upper status boys, who surpassed the lower status boys in agility, speed and strength.

Barrette (1967) obtained students from a group consisting of upper class, upper middle class and lower middle class, found that above groups were more engaging in extracurricular activities, than students from the working class and lower class.

Marry (1969) samples eleventh grade girls representing three socio–economic groups, using AAHPER youth fitness test and
California Test of personality and local attitude inventory. It was concluded that high socio-economic group showed better adjustment than the middle group, and no significant differences were noted between socio-economic groups with reference to either physical fitness or attitude towards physical education.

Loy (1969) investigated UCLA graduate athletes on the nature of their families and found that 50% of wrestlers, footballers and basketball players belong to families where fathers did not complete high school education. The investigation further reported that 50% of wrestlers, 33% of baseball, trackmen and football players, 16% of basketball, 13% of swimmers and tennis players came from families where fathers were blue collar workers.

Jerry (1969) has studied the relationship between attitudes toward physical education activities, motor performance levels and socio-economic status of 50 matched pairs of Negro and Caucasian subjects who were randomly selected for the study from two different California Junior Colleges. The subjects were evaluated in the following performance test: (1) Running high Jump, (2) Standing broad jump, (3) Fifty yard dash, (4) Shot put and (5) Pull -ups. The "t" test, correlation coefficient technique and a multiple correlation method, were justified and found significant at the 0.05 level. The results revealed the Negro's superiority cannot be explained in terms of the aspects of socio-economic status and attitude toward physical education activities. Information about an individual socio-economic status does not lend to prediction of his gross motor performance ability.

Young (1969) has studied the relationship between personal social adjustment, physical fitness and attitude toward education. Among (N=114) high school girls with varying socio-economic status. ANOVA results revealed that there is a significant difference
between socio-economic group in the matter of personal-social adjustment, with high SES groups showing better adjustment scores than the middle groups, and the middle groups showing better than the low groups. The same results occur at the (P<.01) personal adjustment and at the (P<.01) level with reference to social adjustment.

Robert (1971) examined 40 youths of grades vii to x and obtained their attitude towards sports. Socio-economic status was measured by Holling's Head Index of social position (1959) and self-concept. It was found that the youth who had played sports had more favourable attitude towards sports. Sports participants, of white-collar background had a more favourable attitude toward sports than did the white-collar non-participants.

Lashley (1972) Administered AAHPER Youth Fitness Test, the California Psychological Inventory (1951) and the American Home Scale to 500 junior high school boys to determine if there would be any significant differences or relationship between the levels of physical fitness, personality characteristics and socio-economic status of the Negro and Caucasian junior high school boys of selected North-East Texas public junior high school. It was concluded that there was a significant relationship between the personality characteristics and the level of physical fitness and between socio-economic status and level of physical fitness of Negro and Caucasian Junior high school boys. There were also found some significant differences between the personality characteristics of Negro and Caucasian Boys. Caucasian junior high school boys had a significantly higher socio-economic status than the Negro boys.

Persky (1973) randomly selected 300 subjects to examine the relationship among socio-economic status, racial or ethnic
background, and physical development of New York city elementary school children. The comparative physical growth profiles were measured by the Wetzel Grid (1948). Semi annual measurements of the physical status of lower and middle SES subjects were conducted over the three-year period in order to detect their prevailing and ongoing physical irregularities. For the analysis of data chi square, t–test and Fisher exact probability test were used. This study has shown that the comparative physical growth profiles between middle non–white SES children and middle white SES children indicated no significant differences tending support to the researcher’s position that socio-economic status and not race is directly related to poor health. Most significant is evidence of the fact that a large corps of chronically ill students are found among the lower SES subjects.

Blanenbekar (1974) by using ‘t’–test found that athletes in non–combination sports came from families of higher social–status than did the non–athletes, while athletes involved in combative sports came from families little different in social status than those of non–athletes. The study also revealed that athletes in club related sports (golf, lawn tennis and swimming) came from families of higher social–status than athletes from other sports. However, there was little differences in the social status of athletes in combative sports and the remaining non–combative sports.

Mehra (1976) conducted a study of the socio-economic status of team–mates in different sports and concluded that members of basketball, athletics, hockey, cricket and football teams differed in their socio-economic status. Cricket players belonged to the highest SES group and the athletes to the lower group.

Hyes (1977) administered Ellis Index of class position to 126 wrestlers to determine the influence of social class on the wrestling
participation and success at the University level. The Spearman Rank order correlation coefficient was used to determine the correlation between success and social class. He found that the success level of University wrestling teams did not appear to be related to the social class competition of the teams, the wrestlers were found it belong to a middle class environment.

Shine (1977) reported sociological investigation of American elite winter athletes (N=80) who represented the USA in the winter Olympics games of 1976. Data revealed that the vast majority of athletes came from solidly middle and upper class families. Parental support, both emotional and financial, for the athlete's development was perceived very important by most of the subjects. Sports clubs and youth sports associations played key roles in the "Athletic pipeline" for the most athletes. The "urge to excel" was rated as the most important factor in becoming a world-class American winter athletes.

Best (1982) has given a description of social psychological differences between male athletes and non-athletes. He concluded that the athletes are more likely to be from the middle or upper class background and to have good relations with their parents. Both groups i.e. the athletes and non-athletes, do not differ in social values with the exception of valuing physical development. Athletes with upper class background have high intelligence and high achievement motivation. He also concluded that blacks are more likely to be athletes than whites.

Sharma (1984) tried to assess the differences between university representing sportsmen (n=282) and non–sportsmen (n=256) and among the various sports teams by using Dev Mohan's SES scale (revised 1972). The analysis of data revealed that university representing sportsmen in each of the five sports groups,
i.e. cricket, volleyball, football, basketball and hockey, are considerably higher than non-sportsmen on the composite SES variables belonged to cricket sportsmen followed by football, volleyball and basketball sportsmen. On the social status dimension the highest mean score was obtained by football, followed by cricket, volleyball, hockey and basketball whereas, cricket sportsmen attained highest mean score on the income status variables, followed by football, volleyball, hockey and basketball. On the professional status dimension of the SES variables, no significant differences existed between non-sportsmen and university representing sportsmen except for cricketers. The mean professional status score in the ascending order were that of basketball, hockey, volleyball, football and cricket. Cricket sportsmen score significantly higher on academic status dimensions of the SES variable than sportsmen from remaining four sports groups followed by football, hockey, basketball and volleyball sportsmen.

Gupta (1986) collected data through a pre-tested questionnaire distributed to 200 sports participants, 100 males and 100 females having an average age of 19 and 18 respectively. These belonged to student population of the universities of the Punjab state in India in 1984. They were also subjected to unstructured interview. He found that sportsmen/ women with higher socio-economic background are likely to participate in more prestigious games such as lawn tennis, cricket etc. He examined the relationship between occupation and game participation of the respondents. Stone (1957), (quoted in Gupta 1986) found that upper class adults indicated a preference for golf, hockey, and tennis, while middle class choose football basketball and bowling and the lower class preferred boxing and wrestling.

Kumar and Singh (1991) used sports competition anxiety
inventory of Raina Marten's (1977) Maudsley Personality Inventory (1959), and Socio-Economic Status Scale questionnaire and socio-economic status of senior wrestlers of national and international level of India. The analysis of data clearly revealed that Indian wrestlers of national and international level are extrovert, have a low level of sports competition anxiety, and possess low level of neuroticism. It was also found that Indian wrestlers come from middle economic status groups of Indian Society.