Chapter-II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Review of the related literature precedes a well planned research study. The researcher conducted a review of following related literature:

In a study, Bhullar (1976) assessed the attitude of university students towards physical activity in relation to academic performance, intelligence, social economic status and personality characteristics. She concluded that individual’s who score high on personality factor were endued favorably towards physically activity and subjects with higher intelligence have more favorable attitude towards physical activity in general. It was also revealed that subjects with favorable and less favorable attitude towards physical activity i.e. top 27 per cent and bottom 27 per cent cases differed significantly at .05 levels. On personality factor and socio-economic status subjects having favorable attitudes were academically superior.

Berg and Ebel (1976) investigated the effect of umpiring vocal-manner on a performance-measure of confidence, 30 baseball players viewed a series of videotaped pitching-catching-umpiring sequences and rated confidence in their ability to hit each pitch. Matched sequences were presented under each of two controlled conditions: for Conventional, the umpire called "strikes" emphatically and "balls" in an indifferent manner; for Modified, this vocal-manner was reversed. A single Conventional (or, Modified) sequence embedded within a series of contrasting sequences and a "bad" pitch (clearly out of the strike-zone) were included as tests of the effectiveness of the experimental manipulation. Results indicated: (1) Modified umpiring enhanced confidence; (2) this effect was most prominent among highly experienced players; (3) low-anxiety players showed
higher confidence under both conditions; (4) Modified sequences embedded within a Conventional background elicited significantly greater confidence than in the background sequences.

Research work by Nelson (1990) examined 40 male youth of grade VII through X obtaining attitude towards sports by modified were physical educators inventory, socio-economic status measured by Hollings Lead index of social position and self concept by Davidson adjective check list.

Lee, Whitehead, Ntoumanis, and Hatzigeorgiadis (2008) examined the value-expressive function of attitudes and achievement goal theory in predicting moral attitudes. In Study 1, the Youth Sport Values Questionnaire (YSVQ; Lee, Whitehead, & Balchin, 2000) was modified to measure moral, competence, and status values. In Study 2, structural equation modeling on data from 549 competitors (317 males, 232 females) aged 12-15 years showed that moral and competence values predicted prosocial attitudes, whereas moral (negatively) and status values (positively) predicted antisocial attitudes. Competence and status values predicted task and ego orientation, respectively, and task and ego orientation partially mediated the effect of competence values on prosocial attitudes and of status values on antisocial attitudes, respectively. The role of sport values is discussed, and new research directions are proposed.

Bhatnagar R.P. (1967) studied some of the personality variables and predictors of academic achievement, autonomy, interception, dominance, nurturance, endurance and aggression correlated positively and need for deference, affiliation and abasement correlated negatively with achievement.

Dwyer and Carron (1986) studied the relationship between personality and ability in wrestling. A wrestling-specific version of the Jackson Personality Inventory (JPI-W) was constructed and compared to the parent JPI. Wrestlers were
categorized as qualifiers (N = 46) or nonqualifiers (N = 52) on the basis of an ability classification scheme which involved the previous year's performance at specified tournaments. These two groups were then examined for differences on eight JPI scales (anxiety, energy level, interpersonal affect, organization, risk taking, self esteem, social participation, and tolerance), eight corresponding JPI-W scales, wrestling age category (senior, junior, and juvenile), and wrestling experience. The results indicated that in comparison to nonqualifiers, qualifiers had significantly greater wrestling experience and higher self esteem as measured by the JPI-W.

Hardy and Silva (1986) examined the relationship between selected psychological traits as measured by the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) 16 PF inventory and fear of success as measured by the Fear of Success Scale (FOSS). The subjects were 36 Senior elite wrestlers (age 20-25) who were invited to the Colorado Springs Olympic Training Center to prepare for an up-coming inter-national competition. A stepwise multiple regression analysis revealed that the following 16 PF factors predicted fear of success (p less than .05): IPAT-Q4, IPAT-L, IPAT-E, and IPAT-O. The multiple R was .75 and the R2 was 57.78%. Interpretation of the results suggest that while this sample of Senior elite wrestlers generally exhibit extremely low fear of success scores, athletes who are tense, frustrated, apprehensive, submissive, humble, and trusting tend to be more fearful of the consequences of success than those who are relaxed, unfrustrated, self-assured, assertive, competitive, and suspecting.

In a study (Halvari, 1987) the prediction that approach-oriented wrestlers should perform better than indifferent- and avoidance-oriented ones, was studied. The 1970 Achievement Motives Scale of Gjesme and Nygard was administered to 47 boys, and subjects' scores were sampled for four different wrestling championships on international and national level. Measured were oxygen uptake,
speed of movement, muscular strength, and serial performance of five wrestling holds. Approach-oriented wrestlers performed better than indifferent-oriented ones on 9 of 15 tasks. Only in international competitive situations did the approach-oriented wrestlers perform better than the avoidance-oriented ones. Results are interpreted in terms of hypotheses about achievement motivation, and pedagogical implications are discussed.

A study by Howard, Cunningham, and Rechnitzer (1987) used longitudinal data to determine the effects of personality on the natural decline in fitness in 121 middle-aged men. At the beginning of the study, personality was assessed using the 16PF. Fitness measures included grip strength, predicted body fatness, and predicted maximum oxygen intake. It was found that the second-order personality dimension, introversion-extroversion, was related to grip strength and predicted maximum oxygen uptake but not to body fatness.

The psychological characteristics of athletes have been of tremendous interest in the field of sports psychology for the past 20 years (Cratty, 1989). A number of studies have investigated the contribution of psychological variables to athletic performance and, particularly, athletic success. This area of study is important for understanding why some less physically talented athletes achieve greater success than their peers, while physiologically superior athletes sometimes do not succeed (Davis & Mogk, 1994). Indeed, motivation, diligence, anxiety, and various other psychological qualities have accounted for as much as 20% to 45% of the variance in successful athletic performance (Morgan, 1980).

Certain personality characteristics have been consistently found in athletes, such as introversion (Hagberg, Mullin, Bahrke, & Limburg, 1979), lower levels of cooperation (Harder, 1992) and narcissistic personality characteristics (Carroll, 1989). Among elite cyclists in particular, high self-confidence has been associated with strong performance (McCann, Murphy, & Raedeke, 1992). Athletes have also
been found to possess the "iceberg" personality profile, as measured by the Profile of Mood States (POMS; Morgan, O'Connor, Ellickson, & Bradley, 1988). Athletes with the "iceberg" profile on the POMS scored lower than the population average on tension, depression, anger, fatigue, and confusion, and above the population average on vigor. This profile has been found among successful wrestlers (Silva, Shultz, Haslam, Martin, & Murray, 1985), crew team members (Morgan & Johnson, 1978) and distance runners (Morgan, O'Connor, Ellickson, & Bradley, 1988; Morgan & Pollock, 1977).

Lewthwaite and Scanlan (1989) examined intrapersonal and significant adult factors related to the levels of dispositional or competitive trait anxiety experienced by 9- to 14-yr-old male participants of a competitive wrestling program. Competitive trait anxiety (CTA) is a personality disposition which reflects the tendency to experience stress in situations involving competitive sport (20). Multiple regression analyses of questionnaire data revealed that boys with more frequent somatic competitive trait anxiety symptoms 1) had lower self-esteem, 2) reported greater upset if they performed poorly, and 3) expressed a greater preference for avoiding a tournament match. Investigated cognitive anxiety symptoms involved characteristic precompetitive worries about failure and worries about adult expectations and evaluation. Youngsters with more frequent worries about failure placed greater importance on wrestling well and felt greater upset when they performed poorly, in comparison with boys who worried less frequently about failure. More frequent adult-related worries were predicted by greater personal upset for poor performance and perceptions of 1) greater parental and coach shame and upset, 2) more negative adult evaluations, and 3) greater parental pressure to wrestle.

Finkenberg, DiNucci, McCune, and McCune (1992) examined the effect of competitive trait anxiety on performance in open- (sparring) and closed- (forms)
skills in Taekwondo. 58 subjects responded to the Sports Competition Anxiety Test immediately prior to competition. Subjects were categorized into groups showing high, medium, and low competitive anxiety to assess whether differences on the variables of sparring and forms were significantly related with scores on competition anxiety, age, or gender after adjusting for the covariate of years of competition. Multivariate analysis of covariance showed no significant differences between subjects and the normative samples on competitive anxiety scores except for boys, whose scores were significantly higher than those of a normative sample of male youth athletes.

A study by Salokun (1994) investigated the relationship between improvement in Total Positive Self-concept scores and increase in sports skills before and after training of 10 weeks for 45 minutes daily by 12- to 14-yr.-old junior high school and 16- to 18-yr.-old senior high school boys and girls. The 288 subjects were selected using a stratified (intact class) random technique. Subjects were randomly assigned to different sports, 96 to field-hockey and 96 to athletics (32 to discuss, 32 to long jump, and 32 to sprints). 96 control subjects were randomly selected from one class of each age bracket. Analysis of covariance showed that the trained subjects scored significantly higher in total positive self. A positive correlation between gain in sports skill and increase in self-concept scores was noted for both boys and girls within each age group. Age and sex had no effect on this pattern. The result supports inclusion of success-oriented sports in the high school curriculum.

Ntoumanis and Biddle (1998) examined which combinations of goal orientations are compatible with perceptions of mastery and performance climates in a sample of 146 British university students. With regard to mastery climate, the analysis showed that the critical factor was the degree of task orientation since those with high scores in this factor (irrespective of the degree of their ego
orientation) perceived the climate as more mastery-oriented than those with low scores in task orientation. This was substantiated by the large differences in effect sizes between the high- and low-task groups. As far as performance climate was concerned, the most negative perceptions of climate were held by those who were rated both low in task orientation and high in ego orientation. A general inference from these results is that high task orientation is motivationally adaptive, whereas high ego orientation is not motivationally detrimental as long as it is accompanied by a high task orientation. These findings are in contrast with previous suggestions that have called for the enhancement of task orientation with the concurrent suppression of ego orientation. Our results are, however, consonant with studies which have employed a goal profiles analysis in sport and in physical education, and with empirical evidence from real sport settings.

Woodman and Hardy (2003) investigated meta-analysis (k = 48) two relationships in competitive sport: (1) state cognitive anxiety with performance and (2) state self-confidence with performance. The cognitive anxiety mean effect size was $r = -0.10$ ($P < 0.05$). The self-confidence mean effect size was $r = 0.24$ ($P < 0.001$). A paired-samples t-test revealed that the magnitude of the self-confidence mean effect size was significantly greater than that of the cognitive anxiety mean effect size. The moderator variables for the cognitive anxiety-performance relationship were sex and standard of competition. The mean effect size for men ($r = -0.22$) was significantly greater than the mean effect size for women ($r = -0.03$). The mean effect size for high-standard competition ($r = -0.27$) was significantly greater than that for comparatively low-standard competition ($r = -0.06$). The significant moderator variables for the self-confidence-performance relationship were sex, standard of competition and measurement. The mean effect size for men ($r = 0.29$) was significantly greater than that for women ($r = 0.04$) and the mean effect size for high-standard competition ($r = 0.33$) was significantly greater than that for low-standard competition ($r = 0.16$). The mean effect size
derived from studies employing the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 ($r = 0.19$) was significantly smaller than the mean effect size derived from studies using other measures of self-confidence ($r = 0.38$). Measurement issues are discussed and future research directions are offered in light of the results.

Gibson and Foster (2007) suggested that the majority of self-talk during exercise is either positive or neutral in character. The majority of 'thoughts' during low-intensity exercise have been described as being dissociative conversational chatter. However, with increasing exercise intensity, there is a greater percentage of associative and motivational thoughts, which includes thoughts about feeling and affect, body monitoring, command, instruction and pace monitoring. It has been suggested that self-talk is necessary for creating a time 'wedge' between the activity described by the self-talk, and the self-talk itself. The information redundancy created by this time-wedge allows the capacity for reflection about what is occurring, and self-awareness of the part played by the individual themselves in the activity being performed. Self-talk may be a discussion between a singular 'I' and a singular 'me', or may be a multi-party dialogue. There are anatomical correlates to self-talk, with neural activity in a number of brain areas related to the occurrence of both overt and subvocal self-talk, particularly in Broca's region in the left frontal cortex, and Wernicke's region in the left posterior superior temporal cortex. Whether specific training of self-talk can improve performance is controversial, although recent studies have suggested that task-specific self-talk appears to have a beneficial effect on physical performance. Further studies are required to assess the ability of physical or mental training to modify self-talk in a beneficial and permanent manner, and whether these changes affect an individual's exercise performance and sense of self.

A study by Patsiaouras (2008) examined the effect of person-centered intervention on motivation for athletic performance. 74 volleyball players, 24 boys
and 50 girls (M age = 13 yr., SD = 1.0), completed a motivation questionnaire, the Leistungs Motivations Test für Jugendlichen prior to and after an 8-mo. group treatment that included the application of Roger's person-centered method to the participants of the experimental group (1 boys' team n = 12; 1 girls' team n = 11), at a frequency of at least one session per week. In the control group (1 boys' team n = 12; 3 girls' teams n = 39), no particular method was used apart from the pedagogical methods that coaches selected. Results revealed a statistically significant decrease in boys' scores on desire for performance and success between the pre- and posttest measurements. No significant change in girls' scores was observed. Thus, the 8-mo. treatment using the person-centered method did not improve volleyball players' motivation for performance.

Arruza, Telletxea, Arribas, Balague, Cecchini, and Brustad (2009) find out the effectiveness of competition plans on athletes' performance outcomes was assessed while accounting for the mediating influence of state depression and self-efficacy. Competition plans reflect an integrated and personalized plan that consists of a set of decision-making rules based on the principles of self-control and self-efficacy development that are tailored to the specific demands of an upcoming competition in a given sport and highly individualized to take into account the specific qualities of the athlete. The relationship between the development of a competition plan and athletes' evaluations of their competitive outcomes was of interest. 11 elite athletes participating in 104 competitions involving 7 different sports participated. Results support the beneficial effect of a well-developed competition plan in affecting athletes' perceived performance; the relationship was mediated by state depression and self-efficacy. Coaches and sport psychologists should devote increased attention to the development and refinement of athletes' precompetition performance plans while also considering participants' self-efficacy and mood characteristics.
Hays, Thomas, Maynard, and Bawden (2009) examined the role of confidence in relation to the cognitive, affective, and behavioural responses it elicits, and identified the factors responsible for debilitating confidence within the organizational subculture of world-class sport. Using Vealey's (2001) integrative model of sport confidence as a broad conceptual base, 14 athletes (7 males, 7 females) were interviewed in response to the research aims. Analysis indicated that high sport confidence facilitated performance through its positive effect on athletes' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours. However, the athletes participating in this study were susceptible to factors that served to debilitate their confidence. These factors appeared to be associated with the sources from which they derived their confidence and influenced to some extent by gender. Thus, the focus of interventions designed to enhance sport confidence must reflect the individual needs of the athlete, and might involve identifying an athlete's sources and types of confidence, and ensuring that these are intact during competition preparation phases.

Boardley and Kavussanu (2009) examined: (a) the effects of perceived motivational climate and coaching character-building competency on prosocial and antisocial behaviours towards team-mates and opponents in field hockey and netball; (b) whether the effects of perceived character-building competency on sport behaviours are mediated by moral disengagement; and (c) whether these relationships are invariant across sport. Field hockey (n = 200) and netball (n = 179) players completed questionnaires assessing the aforementioned variables. Structural equation modelling indicated that mastery climate had positive effects on prosocial and negative effects on antisocial behaviour towards team-mates, while performance climate had a positive effect on antisocial behaviour towards team-mates. Perceived character-building competency had a positive effect on prosocial behaviour towards opponents and negative effects on the two antisocial behaviours; all of these effects were mediated by moral disengagement. No effect
was found for prosocial behaviour towards team-mates. The model was largely invariant across sport. The findings aid our understanding of social influences on prosocial and antisocial behaviours in sport.

Rambali (1989) conducted a research on personalities and achievement motivation of sports and non-sports persons. A sample of 400 students (200 sports and 200 non-sports persons) was selected randomly from the various institutions of Varanasi. The main objective of the study was to compare personality and achievement motivation of sports and non-sports men. Cattell’s PF and Srivastava achievement motivation scales were administered. One of the main findings of the study was that the sportsmen scored significantly higher in the personality traits, emotional stability, intelligence, trust worthiness, assertiveness, obedience, independence; relax temperament and practicability than non-sport men. Contrary to it, the non-sport men were found to have a weak ego-strength, apprehensiveness, less intelligent, less stable, tense and humble. The sport men were also possessing significantly higher motivation scored higher on extroversion, toughness, poise and independence.

On the basis of a study, Parkash (1989) reported that Physical Education teachers and athlete coaches have made many attempts to analyses the measure of various tracts which contribute to success athletics and games. With in the field of games and sports, much emphasis has been laid on the physical ability and skills for the success of a player. It is during the last half century or so that Physical Education has speculated upon the possible inter-relationship between physical activity and various social forces.

A study conducted by Han (1993) revealed relationship between physical education activity preference, socio-economic status and personality need of 322 freshman Sophomore College of Women analysis of variance employed in
the study revealed that socio-economic status for the University sample studied was not a significant factor in physical education activity preference.

A research conducted by Sharma (1984) investigated the differentials of non-sportsman and university representing sportsman in the total sample on personality self-concept, intelligence and socio-economic status variables.

In an interesting research, Williams (1997) studied the relationship between race and socio-economic status to the early development of motor ability in elementary school children. The subjects were given the Georgia Adaptation Children Physical Development Scale. The study showed a significant difference between blacks and whites and their socio-economic status levels. Further analysis of the data showed that the motor ability scores in black increased with the increase of level of socio-economic status. However, when socio-economic level was compared on motor performance with regard to race, no significant difference was observed.

Gordhan Singh (2001) in his study found that the income, assets and education of the parents is related to the performance of the wrestlers and the average income and performance of wrestlers bore a positive relationship as level of wrestling increase average income also increase except state and university level players.

Crnic and Lamberty (1994) discuss the impact of socioeconomic status on children's performance in the school as well as in the sports ground. They concluded the segregating nature of social class, ethnicity, and race may well reduce the variety of enriching experiences thought to be prerequisite for creating readiness to learn among children. Social class, ethnicity, and race entail a set of 'contextual givens' that dictate neighborhood, housing, and access to resources that
affect enrichment or deprivation as well as the acquisition of specific value systems.

Ramey and Ramey (1994) describe the relationship of family socioeconomic status to children's readiness for school. They viewed that across all socioeconomic groups, parents face major challenges when it comes to providing optimal care and education for their children. For families in poverty, these challenges can be formidable. Sometimes, when basic necessities are lacking, parents must place top priority on housing, food, clothing, and health care. Educational toys, games, and books may appear to be luxuries, and parents may not have the time, energy, or knowledge to find innovative and less-expensive ways to foster young children's development.

One of the most striking and profound findings in epidemiology is that individuals lower in socioeconomic status (SES) have poorer health than individuals higher in SES. This relationship holds true whether health is measured as the prevalence rate of illness, the severity of illness, or the likelihood of mortality and it is true for most types of diseases, as well as for many risk factors for diseases. This finding has been reported for many countries, including those with and those without universal health care. And it has been demonstrated across the life span, from childhood to older adulthood (Adler et al., 1994; Anderson & Armstead, 1995; and Chen, Matthews, & Boyce, 2002).

One of the most intriguing aspects of the relationship between SES and health is that it exists as a gradient. That is, it is not just that poor people have poorer health than rich people. Rather, each step increase in SES is accompanied by incremental benefits in health. This gradient makes the search for underlying mechanisms a challenge for researchers. Obvious mechanisms, such as inadequate nutrition, housing, or health insurance, cannot explain why upper-middle-class individuals have slightly poorer health than upper-class individuals. In this
research Eagly & Chaiken (1995) studied SES and health relationship, with an emphasis on children’s physical health.

Researchers have suggested many explanations for the effect of SES on health. For example, the effect may be due to genetic influences, environmental exposures to toxins, quality of medical care, and psychological-behavioral factors, just to name a few possibilities (Anderson & Armstead, 1995). Here I provide a brief overview of some of the primary psychological-behavioral factors.

Other researchers which worked in this area had focused on individual characteristics that fall into four main categories: stress, psychological distress, personality factors, and health behaviors (Adler, 1994; Anderson and Armstead, 1995).

With respect to stress, lower-SES children and adults experience more negative life events (stressors) than higher-SES individuals; in addition, they perceive greater negative impact from any given event (stress appraisal). In turn, a large body of literature has linked stress to a wide variety of negative biological and health outcomes in both children and adults. Evidence has documented that stress is one plausible mediator linking SES to health (Cohen, Kaplan, & Salonen, 1999). Thus, one theory is that as one moves down in SES, the amount of stress one experience increases, which in turn takes a physiological toll on the body, putting one at greater risk for a variety of diseases. A second possibility is that psychological distress plays a role.

Because of the social environments in which they grow up, lower-SES individuals may be more prone to experiencing negative emotional states than higher-SES individuals are, and if the experience of negative emotions has biological consequences, this could also lead to poorer health. Previous research has found support for the notion that lower-SES individuals are more likely to
experience negative emotions such as depression and anxiety, and that these negative emotions are linked to illnesses, such as cardiovascular disease, as well as to mortality rates (Gallo & Matthews, 2003).

A third hypothesis is that lower-SES individuals are likely to possess personality traits that are detrimental to health. That is, lower-SES individuals may be more likely than higher-SES individuals to possess certain dispositional traits that are adaptive in the social environments in which they live, but have negative health consequences. For example, living in a dangerous neighborhood may make lower-SES individuals likely to mistrust others and to hold cynical attitudes toward others. Thus, one might expect lower-SES individuals to be more hostile and less optimistic about their future than higher-SES individuals are. In turn, such personality traits have been found to place individuals at increased risk for illnesses (Adler, 1994).

Finally, compared with individuals of higher SES, those of lower SES may be less likely to engage in healthy behaviors, such as exercising, eating a healthy diet, and not smoking. In part, this may be because of available resources. For example, the availability of healthy products in grocery stores varies by the SES of neighborhoods (Williams & Collins, 2001); people with reduced access to healthy products in their neighborhood grocery stores will have increased difficulty maintaining a healthy diet. Lower-SES neighborhoods also are more dangerous than higher-SES neighborhoods, and less likely to have public parks and venues for exercise (Williams & Collins, 2001); thus, decreases in SES increase the barriers to engaging in regular exercise.

These factors are promising possibilities for clarifying the psychosocial reasons why decreases in SES are associated with decreases in health. However, most of these factors focus on the individual. In trying to understand the health of
children, it is particularly important to consider the role of factors in the family and the larger environment. In addition, given the vast social, cognitive, emotional, and biological differences between young children and older adolescents, it is important to consider whether the relevance of the various factors depends on the individual’s age.

A research has shown that amount of time spent in low SES is an important predictor of adult mortality rates (McDonough, Duncan, Williams, & House, 1997), young adults’ self-reported health (Power, Manor, & Matthews, 1999), and cognitive development and behavioral problems in children (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994).

Some researchers have suggested that there may be critical period in childhood when SES has its biggest effect. They found early childhood experiences may program a pattern of biological and behavioral responses that has prolonged effects across the life span. Research has demonstrated that SES early in life is a predictor of adult health behaviors (Lynch, Kaplan, and Salonen, 1997), and that early childhood environments predict adult cardiovascular disease (Barker, 1992). In addition, these relationships persist even after accounting for the effect of adult SES. These findings suggest that it may be important to understand the characteristics of a child’s environment during critical windows in order to understand health consequences later in life.

The researchers (Kawachi, Kennedy, Lochner, & Prothrow-Stith, 1997) have argued that different societies have different levels of trust and cohesion among community members, and of investment in the community (social capital). Those communities that have low levels of social capital may have access to fewer public goods (such as community-organized group transportation) and find day-today life more stressful (e.g., difficulty getting to health care clinics) than those that have high levels of social capital. The communities of lower-SES families are
likely to have lower levels of social capital than the communities of higher-SES families, and, in turn, social capital has been found to mediate the relationship between SES and health.

In a very interesting study Williams & Collins (2001) found lower-SES neighborhoods may contribute to the SES-health relationship of a sports person. A neighborhood that is dangerous creates barriers to engaging in positive health behaviors such as participating in sports or exercising more toxic environments (greater pollution, more lead paint, etc.) than higher-SES neighborhoods. Finally, neighborhoods vary in terms of their degree of segregation. Neighborhoods that are segregated tend to receive less investment in public services than integrated neighborhoods do. More segregated neighborhoods tend to be lower in SES and to have higher mortality rates.

On the basis of their research Repetti, Taylor, & Seeman, 2002) concluded that the quality of relationships within the family may affect the performance of a sports person. These are characterized by conflict and aggression, as well as the degree of supportiveness in the home. Researchers have documented that families with high levels of conflict and with cold, unsupportive relationships are more likely than other families to have children who experience health problems throughout life, and have dysregulated biological systems.

A study found that individuals who were low in SES but believed they had a high degree of control over their lives had health profiles that were more similar to those of high-SES individuals than to those of low-SES individuals who did not believe that they had control over their lives (Lachman & Weaver, 1998).

Williams and Scott (1953) conducted a study of Negro infants. He found that a group of Negro infants reared in homes of low socio-economic status were
substantially above average gross motor acceleration as compared to Negro infants who were reared in homes of high socio-economic status.

Although there is found much research work conducted in the areas of attitude, personality, and socio-economic status in relation to sports performance though there are not much studies found which tried to find out the relationship between any of the two above mentioned variables. So, the researcher decided to conduct such a study which jointly focused on the effectiveness of the attitude, personality, and socio-economic status of the sports persons on their performance.