CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF

RELATED LITERATURE
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The review of related literature acts as a guideline for identifying the general trend in the research work already done in the concerned field or area. The review also helps the investigator in formulating the problem and in providing direction to the research undertaken. The present investigator has made sincere attempts to conduct a comprehensive and thorough survey of the related literature with respect to the variables under investigation. It is also necessary to acquaint oneself with the results of the research which helps the investigator to formulate his/her objectives and hypotheses.

In this chapter, the investigator has quoted some research studies which are important for understanding about the mental health, self-esteem, and competitive anxiety in relation to the sports performance. The careful review of related literature enlisted in this chapter based on various sources vis-à-vis journals, periodicals, encyclopedia, unpublished thesis etc. which were available in various libraries. The relevant literature pertaining to the present study has been abstracted in this chapter to provide the background material to evaluate the significance of this study as well as interpret its findings. The chapter has been divided into three sections namely; Mental health, Self-esteem, and competitive Anxiety. The first section takes appraisal of studies, which deals with mental health of players. The Second section summarizes studies that analyses the level of self-esteem among players. The third section deals with the review of studies that measures the level of competitive anxiety among players.

SECTION 1: MENTAL HEALTH

The Medical Profession finds it fruitful to think about mental health as the absence of mental diseases. On the other hand the psychologists and the teaching professionals regard mental health in positive term as the
presence of certain psychological characteristics that make an individual mentally healthy when he understands himself and his own motivation, wishes, desires, drives, and healthy self esteem.

Roy et. al. (1962) formed a group of young men who were considered to be mentally healthy. The sample comprised one hundred and forty (N=140) physical education training students in the age group of 14 to 17 years. They were tested by administering:

(a) Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale.
(b) Andler's Perception of Feeling Test.
(c) Barron's Ego Strength Scale.
(d) Nowli's Adjustive Checklist.

Out of the total 140 subjects, the 31 were found to be mentally healthy, 60 were found to be mentally ill and 49 fell in the category of doubtful cases.

Chand (1974) conducted a study on fifty (N=50) male athletes to find out the relationship of adjustment to performance in 800 meters race. He found that participation in 800 meters race brought more adjustment among participants. He further added that pre-anxiety performance in 800 meters race was influenced by the participant's health, emotional and social adjustment.

Kochar (1976) conducted a study on the Influence of Yogic Practices on Mental Fatigue. The sample comprised thirty eight (N=38) young boys. The age group was 14 to 18 years. The treatment schedule consisted of 8 asanas, 2 pranayamas and Shavasana was prolonged for 3 to 4 minutes after the session. The duration of the yogic training was six months. He found that a significant positive effect of yogic practices in reducing mental fatigue, postponing the onset of fatigue and a significant improvement in overall mental health.
Mangotra (1982) studied Mental Health as a correlate of intelligence, education, academic achievement and socio-economic status. He found that the mental health of boys and girls appeared to be considerably influenced by the two factors namely intelligence and physical health. The mental health of boys was dominated by the feelings of depression and neurotic behaviour, on the other hand girls were found to be suffering from a sense of insecurity and anxiety.

Mohebali (1982) studied the socio-psychological correlates of mental health. The purpose was to determine the impact of cultural differences, generation gap, sex and mental health. Further comparisons were made between Indian and Iranian children with respect to mental health, value orientation and frustration modes. It was found that the maximum resignation frustration was seen in Indians, whereas maximum regression was seen in Iranians. Females tended to be aggressive, whereas males were regressive and designative. The expression of frustration in aggression led to balance mental status whereas that in the regression resulted in neuroticism. Adolescents of India and Iran both had more aggression frustration in comparison with their adult counterparts. Indian females had predominantly more aggression where as Iranian females had regression.

Dhoundial (1984) carried out a research study on Home Environment and Emotional Disturbance among Adolescents. The sample consisted of two hundred seventy six (N=276) emotionally disturbed adolescent boys to explore the effects of factors like Home environment and Social environment. The subjects were selected from rural and urban areas of Almora district by using Emotional Disturbance Inventory. He brought to light a significant fact that children who participate in school health, sports or recreation programmes exhibited lesser frequency in occurrence of emotional disturbance spells.

Kumar, Pathak and Thakur (1985) conducted a study on Mental health of Individual team and non-athlete. These groups were matched on
age and socio-economic status. In their study they found variations in mental health of individual team and non athletes. Analysis yielded significantly poor mental health for non athletes than the team athletes and individual athletes.

Singh and Madhu (1988) conducted a study on Relationship between Psychological Adjustment and Academic Achievement. The twenty (N=20) male subjects in the age group 18-20 years were selected to study the impact of logics on mental health variables. They used the Cattle's Anxiety Questionnaire, Tiwari & Singh's Security and Insecurity Inventory, Hand Steadiness Apparatus, and Trigram's Short-Term Memory test to obtain the data. The experiment was conducted for six months. They discovered that due to yogic practices, short term memory and hand steadiness had improved, a decrease in anxiety level and feelings of security was also observed. Thus, a positive effect of yoga was reported on the above mentioned variables of their study.

Florian et. al. (1995) conducted a survey that Does hardiness contributes to mental health during a stressful real-life situation? The roles of appraisal and coping. In their study on two hundred seventy six (N=276) Israeli recruits, they applied questionnaires to assess the hardiness, mental health, cognitive appraisal, and ways of coping at the beginning and end of 4 months combat training period. Path analysis revealed that 2 components of hardiness-commitment and control measured at the beginning of the training - predicted mental health at the need of the training through the mediation of appraisal and coping variables. Commitment improved mental health by reducing the appraisal of threat and the use of emotion-focused strategies and by increasing secondary appraisal. Control improved mental health by reducing the appraisal of threat and by increasing secondary appraisal and the use of problem – solving and support-seeking strategies.

Sisodia (2003) conducted a study on Effect of Transcendental Meditation on selected Physiological variables in Judo. The sample
consisted of sixty (N=60) judokas studying at various standards at Lakshmibai National Institute of Physical Education and Jiwaji University, Gwalior with the purpose to find out the effect of Transcendental Meditation (TM) on selected Physiological variables in Judo. The subjects were assigned randomly to experimental and control groups, each group consisted of thirty (30) students. The variables selected for the study were Anaerobic power (AP), Vital Capacity (VC), Resting respiratory rate (RRR), Resting heart rate (RHR), Total body fat percentage (TBFP), and lean body weight (LBW). On the basis of the results the following conclusions were drawn in case of AP performance, transcendental meditation did not improve performance significantly in comparison to the non-meditates. In case of VC, TM, had not shown significant improvement among experimental group as compared to the control group. The results with regard to RRR and TM were found to be ineffective in improving performance as compared to the control group. The TM was found much effective in improving RHR. The results with regard to TBFP and TM had shown insignificant change as compared to non-meditates. The results with regard to LBW and TM were found to be ineffective for experimental group as compared to control group.

Kanwar (2004) conducted a study to assess the level of mental health among Judo players. The sample consisted of two hundred eighty (N=280) champion and non-champion judokas belonging to Northern region i.e. the state of Punjab, Haryana, Delhi and U.T. Chandigarh, both the gender groups who had participated in inter-college level competitions. The subjects were administered Mental Health Battery (Singh and Gupta, 2000) to measure six dimensions of mental health as well as the overall mental health. The champion judokas were found to be better than non champion judokas on the mental health dimensions i.e. emotional stability, adjustment and on the overall mental health. In her study she further found that the male judokas were significantly better than female judokas on the mental
Sharma (2005) carried out a study to find out the effects of physical activity programme on the mental health of special children. The subjects of the study were eighty (N=80) special children, who were divided into two equivalent group i.e. experimental group and control group. The subjects were of 15 to 18 years age group. He administered specifically designed physical activity programme to the experimental group and evaluated its effects on their mental health by administering the Mental Health Battery (Singh and Gupta, 2000). The results of his study demonstrated significant improvement in the mental health of the special children (experimental group) who had undergone the physical activity programme as compared to the control group which was not subjected to the physical activity programme.

Walter et. al. (2006) conducted a survey study to assess the teachers’ beliefs about mental health service needs in inner city elementary schools. The sample consisted of total one hundred nineteen (N=119) teachers from six elementary schools in a major city in the Midwestern United States. It was surveyed to assess their beliefs about the major mental health problems facing their schools; the major barriers to surmounting those problems, their preference for mental health topics for in-service education, and their education, experience, knowledge, attitudes, and self-efficacy pertaining to mental health issues. Disruptive behaviour was endorsed by approximately 50% of teachers as the largest mental health problem facing their schools, and lack of information/training was endorsed as the greatest barrier to surmounting mental health problems. The highest rated topics for in-service education were disruptive behaviour disorders and implementing behaviour plans. Although most teachers had taught students with mental health problems, most had little education in mental health and little consultation with mental health professionals. Correspondingly, teachers' knowledge about mental health issues was limited, and they did not feel
confident about their ability to manage mental health problems in their classrooms. The authors observed that the teachers would benefit from education, training and consultation from mental health professionals if they serve as effective gatekeepers to mental health services.

Paul (2006) conducted a study on academic anxiety, psycho-social conflict and mental health. The sample consisted of three hundred seventeen (N=317) subjects (159 resident and 158 non-resident). In resident group 79 were sportsman and 80 non-sportsman whereas in non-resident group 80 were sportsman and 78 non-sportsman. The age group was 13 to 17 years. He administered Mental Health Battery (Singh and Gupta, 2000) to find out the mental health of the subjects. He assessed significant difference between resident and non-resident group, sportsman and non-sportsman groups as well as boys and girls on the variable of overall mental health. He further found that resident, sports group and boys had better mental health than their counterpart i.e. non-resident group, non-sports group and girls.

Hamer et. al. (2008) conducted a study on Dose Response Relationship between Physical Activity and Mental Health. Researchers surveyed nearly 20,000 Scottish adults to determine their level of psychological distress and self-reported frequency of physical activity including sports, walking and domestic activity. Researchers used the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) to examine the association of different types and amounts of physical activity with current mental health. At least one session of 20 minutes a week of any type of physical activity was associated with lower risk of psychological distress. They observed that being physically active once a week for 20 minutes is enough to boost mental health, but there is lack of consensus regarding the optimal amount and type of activity to achieve these benefits.

Kumar (2009) conducted a study on Evaluation of cognitive and mental constructs among all India inter-university sportspersons (swimming,
canoeing and kayaking). The sample consisted of total three hundred sixty (N=360), out of which 264 male and 96 female subjects. There were 158 successful and 202 unsuccessful players from four different zones i.e. North zone, South zone, East zone and West zone in the age group 18 to 25 years. He used the Mental Health Battery (Singh and Gupta, 2000) to measure six dimensions of mental health as well as the overall mental health. The differences between successful and unsuccessful group were found to be significant on all indices of mental health i.e. emotional stability, overall adjustment, autonomy, security-insecurity, self-concept, intelligence and as well as on the overall mental health. The successful players had significantly higher level of mental health as compared to unsuccessful players.

SECTION 2: SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is related to many forms of behaviour. An individual who is high in self-esteem tend to report fewer negative emotions and less depression than an individual low in self esteem. Similarity, not at all surprisingly an individual high in self-esteem is better able to handle stress and experience fewer negative health effects when exposed to it. The relationships between self-evaluation, effort, and re-evaluation of the self suggest a cyclic aspect to the dynamics of self-esteem. Term self-worth is frequently used to refer to aspects of motivation and moods. High self-esteem is associated with a mood of cheerfulness, feelings of optimism, and relatively high energy. Low self-esteem is accompanied by feelings of doubt about one’s worth and acceptability, and with feeling desperate, depressed, or even sad. Such feelings may be accompanied by relatively low energy and weak motivation, invariably resulting in low effort. In contrast, high self-esteem is associated with high energy, which increases effectiveness and competence, which in turn strengthen feelings of self-esteem and self-wroth. Neale et. al. (1969) conducted a research on physical fitness, self-esteem and attitude towards physical activity. The study consisted of one hundred sixty five (N=165) boys. They measured the physical fitness, self-esteem, level of voluntary physical activity in five physical education classes. They
found significant correlations between self-estimate of physical activity and attraction to physical activity, and between attraction and voluntary participation in physical activity.

Graf (1971) conducted a study on Induced self-esteem as a determinant of behavior and explored behavioral predictions generated from cognitive theory in terms of behavior expectancies resulting from induced self-esteem and induced guilt. The sample consisted of total ninety (N=90) undergraduates enrolled in introductory psychology courses at San Diego State College. The hypothesis of the study was that a decrease in self-esteem leads to behavior that has the aim of disconfirming the negative self-image: i.e. raising self-esteem back to the pre-induction level. To test the hypothesis, high and low self-esteem was induced, and then subjects were given an opportunity to engage in dishonest behavior in a non-competitive situation. Three groups of 30 subjects each were given an abbreviated form of the California Psychological Inventory. After completing the test, each subject was given a “clinical evaluation” of his performance: After giving an appropriate time to read his evaluation, the subject was asked to rate himself on a 10-item list of bipolar adjectives. His scores on this test were used to check the effectiveness of the self-esteem induction. An analysis of variance on responses to the self-rating scale confirmed the success of the self-esteem inductions (F=3.39, df =87, p<.05). Scores of the high self-esteem group were significantly more positive than the neutral self-esteem subjects. Scores of the low self-esteem subjects were significantly lower. The subjects in the low self-esteem group engaged in dishonest behavior than the other two self-esteem groups.

Srivastava (1981) conducted a study on the effects of self-esteem and academic performance on alienation among students in an Indian educational environment. The purpose of the study was to test certain predictions of the self-esteem and the consistency theory regarding the effects of Indian student’s self-esteem and their academic performance on the experience of alienation. The Ss were classified according to a 2 (high
how self-esteem) x 2 (high / low academic performance) design of the ANOVA of alienation scores. Results revealed a significant key effect of self-esteem and an interaction effect of self-esteem and academic performance. Rey and Sheppard (1981) conducted a study on relationship of psychology, psychological androgyny in female athletes to self-esteem. They administered the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) and the Texas Social Behaviour Inventory (TSBI) on female university athletes in order to determine differential self-esteem in the four PAQ categories. The concept of psychological androgyny and masculine categories and those same subjects attained significantly higher self-esteem (P<.01) as compared to the feminine and undifferentiated. Therefore, as supported in the literature, it appeared that the presence or degree of masculine characteristics resulted in high self-esteem. It is not that characteristics associated with femininity inversely relate to self-esteem but that the absence of characteristics defined as masculine yields a relationship with self-esteem that approaches zero. The present results support that women who either possess the traditional female qualities and the qualities associated with masculinity (displaying psychological androgyny) or who describe themselves as possessing only characteristics defined as masculine do have higher self-esteem than stereotypic females. It concludes that androgynous women or self-descriptions as primarily masculine will more likely result in high self-esteem.

Olszewska (1982) conducted a study to find out the relation of a self-image, self-estimation and a tendency to dominate or submit to the effectiveness of the performance of team players. He investigated Two hundred sixty (N=260) volleyball, handball and soccer players. He administered the Giessen Test for assessing the level of aspirations and A-S Reactions Study Test to determine the practical assessment of performance effectiveness. He found that players who achieved a high level of performance effectiveness have a high self-image, are either sensible or reckless, and reveal a tendency to submit.
Trujillo (1983) conducted a study to find out the effect of weight training and running exercise intervention programmes on the self-esteem of college women. The subjects were assessed at the beginning and end of one college semester for self-esteem, sex role identity, and physiological attitudes. The result revealed that self-esteem increased significantly for both the weight training and running groups while a loss occurred for the control group. Further, weight training group showed significant gains in self-esteem as compared to the control group. In addition, physiological gains in strength and in cardiovascular fitness occurred for the weight training and running groups, respectively.

Richman and Rehbarg (1986) conducted a study to assess the development of self-esteem through the martial arts. They studied the level of self-esteem for beginning belt level and upper belt level marshal artists. The sample consisted of total Sixty (N=60) marshal artists. They were assessed for levels of self-esteem which was found to be significantly lower for beginning belt level marshal artists than for upper belt level ones. Self-esteem was also related to the marshal artist’s self-perceptions regarding their abilities in forms, fighting and physical conditioning.

Utley and Rush (1986) conducted a study to investigate the effects of self-esteem and locus-of-control on academic achievement. The research population consisted of total two hundred eighty two (N=282) of 9th grade students. Among 282 subjects, one hundred forty (N=140) were female subjects and one hundred forty two (N=142) were male subjects, respectively. They used the Cooper Smith Self-Esteem Inventory to determine self-esteem and intellectual achievement responsibility questionnaire to determine internal-external locus-of-control scale scores form the comprehensive test of basic skills, reading vocabulary and comprehension and mathematics computation and application used to determine achievement. To test the data three hypotheses were formulated:
(i) That there would be a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement as measured by the comprehensive tests of basic skills, reading vocabulary and comprehension and mathematics computation and application.

(ii) That there would be a significant positive relationship between locus-of-control and academic achievement as measured by the comprehensive test of basic skills, reading vocabulary and comprehension and mathematics computation and application.

(iii) Confined the two variables self-esteem and locus-of-control, and predicted that there would be significant positive relationship between self-esteem, locus-of-control and academic achievement as measured by the comprehensive test of basic skills, reading vocabulary and comprehension, mathematic computation and application.

To test the hypotheses the following statistical procedures such as analysis of variance, Pearson Product-Moment Correlations, partial correlation analysis and regression analysis. They found:

(i) a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement.

(ii) a significant positive relationship between locus-of-control and academic achievement.

(iii) a significant positive relationship between self-esteem, locus-of control and academic achievement.

(iv) the other hypotheses were relatively weak but significantly correlated.

Cutolo and Antonio (1987) conducted a study to assess the inter-relationship of female competitive athletic participation, sex role, self-concept and self-esteem. The research population consisted of two hundred (N=200) high school girls of Leansan City Hissouri Public School. They
administered the sex role self concept inventory and Coopersmith self-esteem inventory to collect the data. One hundred (N=100) girls were members of their high school inter scholastic Athletic teams, and were placed into 4 categories based on length of participation: up to 1 year, 1 to 2 years, 2 to 3 years, and 3 to 4 years of interscholastic athletic competition. The one hundred (N=100) subjects did not have any competitive experience and were selected form high school gymnastic classes. Means and S.Ds of Bem scores and Coopersmith self-esteem scores were calculated for each level of competitive athletic participation and sex role. Self-concept was found to be correlated in a positive direction with athletic participation. The scores on the sub-scales were found to be correlated in a positive direction with level of athletic participation and self-esteem.

Foon (1989) conducted a study on Sports participation among adolescent females: effects on self-esteem, affiliation patterns and locus of control. A sample consisted of seven hundred seventy nine (N=779) teenage girls. A model was developed which explained 38% of variance for the sports participation variable. The variables which proved significant in explaining participation in sports were peer affiliation, self-esteem, family affiliation, and locus of control. She observed that a range of variables have been suggested to explain rates of participation in sports among adolescent females. She emphasized the importance of self-esteem, affiliation patterns and attribution styles for sports involvement among Australian female adolescents.

Weiss et. al. (1990) conducted a study on Self-esteem and Casual Attribution for Children’s Physical and Social Competence in Sports. They explored the relationship between children’s self-esteem and attributions for performance in both physical and social achievement domains. The objective of the study was to determine the children’s physical and social self-esteem as well as participations and attributions for performance and inter-personal success in a summer sports programme. They found a significant relationship between self-esteem and causal attributions for both
physical and social domains. For physical competence, they found that children high in self-esteem made attributions that were more internal, stable, and higher in personal control than did low self-esteem children. For social competence, the result revealed that children high in self-esteem made the attributions that were more internal, stable, and higher in personal and lower in external control than did children low in self-esteem. These results provided support for a self-consisted approach to self-esteem.

Doganis et. al. (1991) conducted a study on Self-esteem and locus of control in adult female fitness programme participants. The sample consisted of Ninety six (N=96) Greek women and were between 18 to 40 years of age and were participating in physical fitness programmes. The objectives of this study were to test the factor structure and psychometric properties of the Exercise Objectives Locus of Control (EOLOC) scale, and to examine its relationship with self-esteem. The factor analysis of the EOLOC scale explained 58.5% of the variance considered satisfactory and high reliability score was revealed in the final form of the scale. The results also showed a positive relationship between Self-Esteem and EOLOC Internal subscale and negative relationships between Self-Esteem and EOLOC External and Chance subscales. The findings suggest that persons with positive attitudes toward the self are those who believe that they are able to control the exercise outcomes.

Sonstroem et. al. (1993) conducted a study on path analysis of a self-esteem model across a competitive swim season. An adaptation of the previously developed exercise and self-esteem model by Sonstroem and Morgan (1989) was tested longitudinally with ninety three (N=93) male interscholastic swimmer were evaluated at pre-season, mid-season and post-season. Swimmers completed three self-perception scales that ranged from evolutions of specific swim skills through broader perceived physical competence to global self-esteem. Performance scores were calculated across events by standardizing swim time to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1. The model was able to explain 84, 83, and 80% of physical
competence, skill and performance respectively at the third testing period. Swim improvement tended to be small (median change =2.9%). Relationship among variables at each testing period and significant relationship occurred between different variables across different testing periods. These were not extinguished when social desirability was added to the model. Social desirability failed to significantly influence subsequent measures of any model variable.

Kamal (1995) conducted a study on Self-esteem attributional components of athletes versus non-athletes. He found several studies in which athletes have higher level of overall self-esteem in comparison to non-athletes of the same gender. The study consisted of one hundred eighty five (N=185) subjects which includes 95 male university athletes and 90 male non-athletes. He administered Semantic Differential Scale to measure the Self-esteem attributional components. It was hypothesized that differential social cognition would be linked to the athlete's status as an experienced athlete in their sport which could then engender additional mood-congruent cognitions in the areas of optimism, attractiveness, aggressiveness and independence, resulting in overall greater self-esteem. A discriminate analysis of component self-esteem factors offered support to these hypotheses, in which the athletes showed higher self-esteem attributes in areas not normally associated with competitive sports.

Dekel and Tenenbaum (1996). This explorative study was designed to examine the association between the intensity in which adolescents engaged in physical activity (PA) and their body-image and general self-esteem. Furthermore, it was aimed at examining the hypothesis that adolescents with postural deformities who engage in PA will perceive their body (in particular) and the self-similarly to their healthy counterparts and more positively than adolescents with postural deformities who do not engage in any PA. Two-hundred and eighty-six (N=286) male and female adolescents (12-18 years) out of which 146 were healthy and 140 were diagnosed as suffering from structural and non-structural Adolescent
Idiopathic Scoliosis (AIS) were administered a body-image (Secord and Jourard, 1953) and the Tennessee self-concept (Fitts, 1965) questionnaires. Subjects were also classified with respect to their level of engagement in PA (extensive, moderate, and low). A 2(postural status) x 2 (Gender) x 3 (PA level) ANOVAs indicated a significant 3-way interaction on body-image, but not on self-esteem. Adolescents with AIS, not engaged in PA, had lower body-image than their peers, particularly males. However, both males and females with AIS perceived their body positively when engaged in moderate or extensive PA. Being an exploratory prospective research, the results do not permit assigning any casual effect to PA on perception of the body and the self. The results support the specificity hypothesis of self-esteem and encourage investigation as to the particular physical activities which are most beneficial for adolescents who suffer from postural deformities.

Fox (2000) conducted a study on the effect of exercise on self-perceptions and self-Esteem. There is increasing interest in the contribution of exercise in both the promotion of mental well-being and the treatment and prevention of mental illness and disorders. Within this context, self-esteem has been regarded as an important element of well-being and a construct that might be open to change through exercise. This paper discusses recent advances in the theory and measurement of self-esteem including the concepts of multidimensionality, hierarchical structuring and the specific role of the physical self with a view to a) informing critique of the existing literature and b) suggesting future research challenges. The results of a recent comprehensive review of 37 randomized and 42 non-randomized controlled studies investigating the effects of exercise on self-esteem and physical self-perceptions are summarized. This followed by suggestions for advancing research in the field and practical pointers for those already involved in the promotion exercise for mental health.

Ryska (2002) conducted a study on Self esteem among intercollegiate athletes: the role of achievement goals and competitive
orientation, imagination, cognition and personality. He found that low level of self-esteem indices (self-regard, physical abilities) was associated with ego orientation and hyper competitiveness. A sample consisted of one hundred eighty six (N=186) intercollegiate athletes to determine the multivariate relationship between task and ego goal orientations, hypercompetitive and personal development competitive attitudes, and the self-esteem components of self-regard, social confidence, and physical abilities. Canonical correlation analyses revealed that the self-regard and physical ability aspects of athlete's self-esteem were related to task orientation, personal development competitiveness and not hyper competitiveness. Conversely, low levels of these self-esteem indices were associated with ego orientation and hyper competitiveness. Results are discussed both in terms of conceptual difference between motivational goals and competitiveness as well as methodological issues regarding the assessment of competitive attitudes among athletes.

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

Singh (2005) conducted a study on Psychological variables among athletes. The sample consists of two hundred eighty six (N=286) which includes 144 successful and 142 unsuccessful, 150 male and 136 female, 122 from North region and 164 from South region respectively. He administered the self-esteem inventory constructed by Prashad and Thakur (1988) for the collection of data. In his study he found that male athletes exhibited significantly higher personally perceived self-esteem where as no significant differences were observed with regard to the social perceived self-esteem and over all self-esteem.
Bobbio (2009) conducted a study on the relation of physical activity and self-esteem. The aim of this study was to examine the relation between self-esteem appraisal and physical activity. The sample consists of two hundred eleven (N=211) subjects, ages 19 to 35 years and selected from the general population after a brief structured interview. They were grouped by sport habits into three distinct groups named athletes, non-athletes, and sedentary people, and then were examined for significant differences in self-esteem scores measured by the Heatherton and Polivy State Self-esteem scale which accesses three correlated factors, respectively, performance, social, and appearance. As hypothesized, self-esteem scores between-groups differences emerged for the appearance factor only, and the sedentary group scored comparatively lower than the other two groups.

William et. al. (2010) studied the relationships among Mental Health, Self-esteem and Physical Health in Chinese Adolescents. The study explored the relationships among mental health, self-esteem and physical health in Hong Kong Chinese adolescents. The sample consists of one thousand nine hundred forty five (N = 1945) Chinese adolescents between the ages of 12 to 19 from four secondary schools of different regions. The study revealed that a significant number of adolescents in Hong Kong are experiencing depressive symptoms. The overall results indicated that self-esteem of adolescents was correlated to and a predictor of their physical and mental health. Health care professionals should take a more assertive role in promoting relevant health education to the community with emphasis on helping adolescents develop positive self-esteem.

SECTION 3: COMPETITIVE ANXIETY

Competitive anxiety defined as the tendency to perceive competitive situations with feeling of negative self-appraisal, worry, self-doubt, apprehension or tension. The past few years have seen a burgeoning interest in the relationship between competitive anxiety and sports performance. The sports psychology is the key to sporting excellence and
success. Excellence is considered to be synonymous with performance enhancement, success and improvement. Recording better performance is an important motive for participation in competitive sports. The Competitive anxiety and sports performance have very close relationship, sports performance will be optimal under a moderate level of anxiety, and anxiety levels that are either very low or very high will degrade the sports performance. Competitive trait anxiety is a concept which denotes how anxious an individual typically becomes before and during competitive situations. Anxiety can affect sports performance positively or negatively.

Husman (1954) conducted an analysis of aggression in boxers, wrestlers and cross-country runners. He examined that anxiety levels often change when pre-competition and post-competition measures are compared; a few research studies on this topic suggest that, at least in wrestlers, extremely stable measures are found prior to competition. He found no significant differences in pre-match and post-match anxiety in a group of college wrestlers.

Matarazzo and Matarazzo (1956) conducted a study on anxiety level and pursuit motor performance. They found that the relationship of anxiety to performance of both a simple and complex nature has been demonstrated in studies of verbal and motor tests. The subjects falling in the middle portions of an anxiety scale performed best on a small maze task, while those scoring at both extremes evidenced inferior performance.

Nelson and Langer (1963) conducted a research on Getting to really know your players. They assessed college basketball team on some of the psychological parameters present among athletes in competitive situations. They applied the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale to measure the anxiety levels of the team. The results revealed that the performance of athletes with extremely high levels of anxiety was poor. They also found that athletes who scored extremely low in anxiety did not perform well either, perhaps because of lack of dedication. The results of Nelson and Langer’s study
support the result of an earlier study on the effects of anxiety on learning. In an extensive review of the literature on anxiety, Reed (1960) concluded that both high and low levels of anxiety tended to disrupt the learning process, whereas moderate levels of anxiety created an ideal atmosphere for learning.

Hollingsworth (1965) conducted a study on effects of performance goals and anxiety on learning a gross motor task. She emphasized to determine the effects of special performance and encouragement on the acquisition of a gross motor skill. She also investigated the relationship between levels of trait anxiety, state anxiety, and performance of the same task. The sample consists of Ninety (N=90) male and female junior high school students who had scored either “high anxious” or “low anxious” on Spielberger’s Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) were randomly divided into a “performance goal group” a “verbal encouragement group”, and a control group. The subjects practiced a two-ball, one hand juggling task for five minutes on twelve consecutive school days. They took the STAI just before each practice session. The average number of catches per trial was recorded for each subject and each session. All subjects in the “verbal encouragement group were told to do their best. Subjects in a “performance goal group” were given a goal based on their previous trial. Apart from the data on anxiety, no significant differences in performance levels occurred. A strong relationship was existing between state and trait anxiety. It was also found that as the performance level increased with practice, the anxiety level tended to decrease.

Missiuro (1965) studied emotions in pre-contest situations. He stressed on “psychic warming up” in referring to these affective responses to the anxiety provoking stimuli associated with achieving competitive goals. Anxiety in athletes can, according to Missiuro, effectively activate physical resources. For instance, the acceleration of the pituitary — adrenal and simpatico-adrenal systems not only aids in coordinating auxiliary muscles necessary in task completion, but also significantly increases the overall
efficiency level of motor acts. Anxiety, he also found, stimulates the adrenergic system resulting in increasing of adrenaline flow creates a beneficial influence on the contraction of fatigued muscles. Because fatigue leads to increments in the threshold for muscle contraction, adrenaline facilitates muscle functioning by intensifying both heart contraction and total blood flow to stimulated muscles.

Hutson (1966) studied the relationship between level of anxiety and the learning of skill in beginning horse back riding. The Parallel Anxiety Battery was used to assess levels of anxiety in six (N=6) women enrolled in beginning riding class. The findings showed that as the students increased in skill, their anxiety tended to decrease.

Selvin (1970) studied the influence of trait and state anxiety upon the performance of novel gross motor tasks under conditions of competition and audience. The Spielberger’s test of state and trait anxiety (STAI) was applied to assess the effect of anxiety on the performance of an unfamiliar gross motor skill. Eighty (N=80) high school non-athletes executed a modified fencing lunge and recovery under experimental conditions of competition. Results from the study showed that individuals with low levels of trait anxiety performed better in the novel skill than those who had been classified as having high level of trait anxiety.

Griffen (1972) conducted an analysis of state and trait anxiety experience in sports competition by women at different age levels. The state anxiety levels of women engaged in competitive sports decrease with age. State anxiety levels of women engaged in competitive sports differ among sports. The effects of age upon state anxiety are not consistent in all sports or the effects of sports upon state anxiety for varying age levels. Trait anxiety levels of women engaged in competitive sports are significantly different at three age levels. Trait anxiety levels of women engaged in competitive sports differ among sports and the effects of age upon trait
anxiety are not consistent in all sports or the effects of sports upon trait anxiety consistent for varying age levels.

Bahrke (1977) studied the influence of acute physical activity and "Non-cultic" mediation versus a control treatment on state anxiety. The data consists of seventy five (N=75) adult male volunteers. Further 25 subjects randomly assigned to each group. Physical activity was performed at 70 percent of V02 Max for 20 minutes by subjects in the exercise group, subjects assigned to mediation group practiced Benson’s Relaxation Response for 20 minutes and the subjects in the control group simply rested quietly in a reclining chair for 20 minutes. State anxiety was measured by means of the Spielberger (STAI) and it was assessed — (1) prior to, (2) immediately following, (3) ten minutes following each treatment. Oxygen consumption, heart rate, skin temperature and blood pressure were also measured as confirmatory variables under selected conditions. The data was analyzed by means of two-ways repeated measures (ANOVA) and analysis revealed a significant reduction in anxiety occurred for each treatment. This held for both those subjects falling within the normal range for state anxiety, as well as those subjects regarded as high anxious. It was also noted that none of psychological variables differed significantly following the central and mediation treatment. The present evidence suggests that acute physical activity, no cultic mediation, and a quite rest session are equally effective in state anxiety.

Novaczyk’s (1977) conducted a survey while comparing trait and state anxiety levels between three divisions of youth ice hockey participants and trait anxiety levels between athletes and non-athletes. The sample consisted of one hundred three (N=103) 8th and 9th grade athletes. The Sports Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) and the State Anxiety Inventory (SAI) were administered to all subjects. Subjects were given tests before and after practice sessions. There were significant differences among competitive situation and between pre-test and post-test situations.
Gerson and Deshaies (1978) studied a competitive trait anxiety and performance as predictors of pre-competitive state anxiety. In their study, they examined batting averages of female varsity softball players participating in a national tournament and found that, indeed, higher pre-competitive state anxiety was associated with a lower batting average. Perhaps the expectancy of performing poorly does in fact lead to poor performance.

Weinbreg and Genuchi (1980) studied the relation between competitive trait anxiety, state anxiety, and golf performance. They investigated the performance of golfers, as golf is a game that requires precision, coordination, and the integration of fine muscle movement. It is an especially appropriate venue for study the effects of anxiety level on the athletic performance. Excessive levels of anxiety may interfere with the execution of golfing responses that must occur within a relatively narrow range of expertise. They found that golfers with high anxiety trait levels were more likely than golfers low in trait to experience elevated state anxiety on days 1 and 2 of a collegiate tournament. Further, it was shown that high levels of state anxiety and strong expectations of poor performance were related to how well golfers did in the tournament. Better performance was associated with low anxiety, and poorer performance was associated with high anxiety.

Wandzilak et. al. (1982) conducted a study on factors related to predictability of pre-game state anxiety. The sample consisted of Ninety three (N=93) female high school volleyball players. They were administered the adult versions of the Sports Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) and the competitive short form of Spielberger’s State Anxiety Inventory (CSAI) to determine their trait, pre-competitive and pre-game state anxiety levels. The primary purpose of their field investigation was to assess the effectiveness of competitive trait anxiety (CTA), two different pre-competitive anxiety measures, and two parameters of success / failure to predict pre-game state anxiety. The subjects were divided into two groups with SCAT and the CSAI
being administered to Group 1 (N=48) 24 hours prior to the competition and Group 2 (N=45) three hours before the first match. All subjects repeated the CSAI 20 minutes before playing. Replication of previous laboratory findings concerning the relationship between CTA and pre-game state anxiety was confirmed. Then, through a multiple regression technique, it was found that of the independent variables tested, SCAT (20%) and won / loss percentage (8%) resulted in a total of approximately 28% of the variance in predicting pre-game state anxiety for Group 1. For Group 2, the three hour pre-competitive score (36%) and SCAT (13%) were responsible for almost 50% of the variance. It was also noted that there is need for standardization of testing procedures, including times and settings, when basal measures are involved.

Owen and Lanning (1982) conducted a study on the effects of three treatment methods upon anxiety and inappropriate attentional style among high school athletes. They examined the effects of relaxation training plus attentional training on anxiety and additional style measures, on fifty eight (N=58) high school athletes. Out of fifty eight athletes, thirty (N=30) were from a private high school and twenty eight (N=28) from a public high school. The average age was 15.8 years. The State—Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) developed by Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene (1970), and Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Style (TAIS) by Nideffer (1976) were administered to collect the required data. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed. Duncan’s New Multiple Range Test was used as a post-hoc analysis. Results revealed that when compared with a control group all three treatment methods were effective in reducing reported state anxiety. No significant differences were observed among the three treatment methods nor did any of them result in significant differences in attentional style. All the three treatment groups scored significantly better than the control group on the Maze Test Performance Measure.

Power (1982) conducted an analysis of anxiety levels in track and field athletes of varying ages and abilities. He applied Martens’ Sport
Competition Anxiety Test on sixty five (N=65) adult male track and field athletes. They were further divided into sub-groups representing all ages, events, experience and abilities. There was a significant relationship between age and anxiety (p<.01). No logical pattern regarding competition anxiety emerged from any of the sub-group.

Gould et.al. (1983) conducted a study on Competitive anxiety in junior elite wrestlers. The sample consisted of four hundred sixty (N=460) junior elite wrestlers participating in a national tournament. In the degree of competitive stress reported by the wrestlers in comparison to the high-trait anxious wrestlers the low trait anxious wrestlers experienced less stress, 24 hours prior to competition, 1 hour prior to competition, 2 minutes prior to competition and in the actual competition against the individual perceives to be their toughest opponent. The low trait anxious wrestler were also superior in terms of their perception of personal ability, their pre-tournament confidence, the percentage of all matches in which they did not worry and the trouble (or rather, lack of difficulty) they had in sleeping.

Dowthwaite et. al. (1984) conducted an investigation into anxiety levels of soccer players. They tried to analyze the effect of a competitive game on the anxiety levels of individual players. The subjects were eleven (N=11) members of Worecester college of higher education soccer team during the 1982-83 competitive seasons. The players’ age group was 18 to 29 years. The adult version of the sports competition anxiety inventory (SCAI) was administered to determine their trait anxiety, 10 minutes before the first and immediately after the last match. The competitive short form of Spielberger’s State Anxiety Inventory (CSAI) was administered to determine state anxiety levels ;10 minutes before the first and immediately after the last match. The CSAI was applied to three matches, two judged to be easy and third match being classified as crucial. The instrument should detect changes in anxiety state due to importance of the game. The findings indicated that the group which won all the three games was indicative of changes in anxiety states before and after competition. The players were
significantly more anxious before the crucial game when compared to the easy games.

Rainey et al. (1987) investigated the competitive trait anxiety among male and female junior high school athletes. The sample consisted of one hundred twenty (N=120) subjects which include 60 male and 60 female junior high school athletes. The Sports Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) was used to identify athletes with high and low (upper and lower 25 percent) competitive trait anxiety (CTA). High-CTA athletes reported more frequent evaluation and performance worries and more anticipated negative feelings when playing poorly than low-CTA. These groups did not differ on perceived importance of success in sport, in satisfaction with sport experiences, or perceptions of their success/failure in sports. Males and females differed significantly in only team performance expectancies. Results provided support for the hypothesized relationship of fear of failure and fear of evaluation to CTA.

Singh (1988) assessed the level of sport competition anxiety between male and female players attending national camps. The sport competition anxiety level of one hundred eighteen (N=118) top level Indian track and field athletes (76 male and 42 female) and seventy one (N=71) hockey players (45 male and 26 female) in the age group of 18-36 years (males) and 16-26 years (females) attending national camps were assessed by administering the Sports Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) developed by Martens (1977). It revealed from the results that the male athletes and male hockey players had less competitive anxiety as compared to their counterpart female athletes and female hockey players. It was further observed that the male and female athletes differed significantly on competition anxiety from male and female hockey players.

Bird and Horn (1990) investigated the Cognitive Anxiety and Mental Errors in sports. They tried to assess the relationship between level of cognitive anxiety and degree of mental errors in a sport setting. The sample
consisted of two hundred two (N=202) female softball players whose age ranged from 14 to 17 years. The dimensions of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and self confidence were assessed by administering Competitive States Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2) developed by (Martens et. al. 1978). Analysis of variance yielded a single significant main effect which indicated that the two mental-error groups differed in cognitive anxiety.

Edmund et. al. (1992) conducted the study on Cognitive orientations of Ultra marathoners. They examined the sport-specific cognitions of one hundred twelve (N=112) ultra marathoners competing in a 100 mile trail run. The responses of ultra marathoners to constructs of confidence, competitive orientation, and commitment to running were recorded. The researchers had used sport orientation questionnaire. They found no significant differences in cognitive orientations between finishers and non-finishers or between males or females. Responses to open-ended questionnaire revealed that most of the ultra marathoners reported predominantly external thoughts during races. They had feelings of psychological well-being and strength as a result of ultra marathon. These results show the unique sport specific cognitive orientations of ultra marathoners.

Ping (1993) conducted a study on competitive motives as predictors of cognitive trait anxiety in university athletes. The sample consisted of four hundred six (N=406) subjects involved in 30 events. The purpose of the study was to examine motivational predictors of cognitive competitive trait anxiety (CCTA). Factor analysis of CCTAI items revealed six factors; game preparation, failure, opponent's ability, social evaluation, injury and external condition. Factor analysis of the items of competitive motives (CM) revealed five factors; desire for victory, high ability demonstration, social approval, enjoyment, and self-challenge. Stepwise multiple regression analysis demonstrated that all the CCTAI factors were significantly predicted by common and unique predictors of the five CM factors. Positive and negative relationships between CCTAI and CM factors did not clarify conclusiveness of whether intrinsic or extrinsic motivation differently mediated cognitive
competitive trait anxiety (CCTA). The findings indicate that the motive is a predictor of cognitive competitive trait anxiety (CCTA).

Krane and Williams (1994) conducted the study on cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and self-confidence in male and female high school and college track and field athletes. The sample consisted of two hundred sixteen (N=216) athletes. They used the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2) to collect the data. The athletes have completed the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2) within 20 minutes’ of each event in which they competed at a prestigious invitational track and field relay meet. Consistent with expectations, a 2x2x2 (gender by competitive level by place) MANOVA revealed male athletes reported lower somatic anxiety and higher self-confidence than female athletes and college athletes displayed lower cognitive and somatic anxiety than high school athletes. Contrary to hypothesis, the place main effect was not significant. A significant three-way interaction was found on the cognitive anxiety subscale. College male non-placers displayed the lowest levels of cognitive anxiety while high school male non-placers displayed the highest levels. When examining the hypothesis that athletes in sports of differing complexity and duration would have different anxiety and confidence levels only cognitive anxiety was found to differ in athletes in events of differing complexity with the high complexity athletes displaying greater cognitive anxiety than the low complexity athletes. No significant anxiety or confidence difference was found among athletes in events of differing duration.

Davids and Gill (1995) conducted a study on multidimensional state anxiety prior to different levels of sport competition. The sample consisted of one hundred twenty (N=120) 60 male and 60 female junior high school athletes in the age group of 12 to 15 years. Seventy (70%) percent of the subjects (N=84) attended a public school at New York, while thirty (30%) percent of the subjects (N=36) attended parochial school in Tale do, Ohio. They used the Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT) to identify athletes
with high and low (upper and lower 25%) competitive trait anxiety (CTA). The purpose of the study was to replicate the fear of failure and fear of evaluation portions of Passer’s (1983) study, but with more heterogeneous samples. Subjects were treated in accordance with the ethical standard of American Psychological Association (APA, 1981). High-CTA athletes reported more frequent evaluation and performance worries and anticipated more negative feelings when playing poorly than low CTA. These groups did not differ on perceived importance of success in sports, satisfaction with sport de-experiences, or perceptions of their success/failure in sport. Males and females differed significantly only in team performance experiences.

Williams et. al. (2000) conducted a study on predicting anxiety in competitive sports. The relationship between attitudes towards winning and competitive anxiety was explored in fifty nine (N=59) undergraduate students competing on four different New Jersey based, NCAA Division three sports teams. In a backward multiple regression analysis, cognitive anxiety was predicted significantly only by self-confidence, while somatic anxiety was predicted significantly by self-confidence and the rated importance of the competition.

Bhushan (2002) carried out an investigation on Anxiety, Aggression and team cohesion as related to performance in selected team sports. The sample consisted of two hundred forty (N=240) male and female athletes of college and university level, who participated in different team games with the purpose to examine the variables i.e. anxiety, aggression and team cohesion. The subjects were in the age group of 18 to 25 years. He applied Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene’s (1970) State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) to measure the state and trait anxiety and Marten’s (1977) sports competition anxiety inventory to measure sports competition anxiety. The hockey group did not demonstrate any significant differences among the college and the university athletes on the variable state, trait and sports competitive anxiety. However, college and university athletes of volleyball group demonstrated significant results (p<0.05) on the variable state anxiety
whereas the same sports group did not indicate any significant differences on trait and sports competitive anxiety. As like the Hockey group, the group of basketball and handball sports group on the variable state, trait and sport competitive anxiety with regard to college and university athletes also did not demonstrate any significant difference.

Singh (2002) conducted a Comparative study of Psychological variables of athletes of Individual and team sports. He carried out an investigation on athletes from selected disciplines of sports on the dependent variable Motivation, Anxiety, Aggression and Cohesion in relation to the independent variable of individual and team spots. Subjects were drawn from the affiliated colleges of Panjab University, Chandigarh and P.U. Campus by using systematic cluster sampling technique. The sample consisted of one hundred sixty five (N=165) subjects (45 were from individual sports and 120 from team sports). No significant differences were found between the athletes of individual and team sports in either ‘State’ or ‘Trait Anxiety’.

Kaur (2004) conducted a study on psycho-physical status of kabaddi players of Panjab university to carried out an investigation on variable sports competitive anxiety. A sample consisted of forty (N=40) kabaddi female players which included 20 inter-college and 20 inter-university players. To collect the data on variable sports competitive anxiety, Martens (1977) Sports competitive Anxiety Test was used. In her investigation she found that university female players had optimal anxiety level as compared to the college female players, as university female players were significantly better as compared to the college female players on the variable sports competitive anxiety.

Singh (2005) conducted a study on Psychological variables among athletes. The sample consisted of two hundred eighty six (N=286) which included 144 successful and 142 unsuccessful, 150 male and 136 female, 122 from North region and 164 from South region respectively. He used the
sports competitive anxiety inventory developed by Marten (1977). The results revealed that female athletes were found to have significantly higher level of sports competitive anxiety as compared to their male counterparts. He also found significant differences between successful and unsuccessful athletes on the variable of sports competitive anxiety. The unsuccessful athletes had higher level of sports competitive anxiety.

Cottyn et.al. (2006) studied the measurement of competitive anxiety during balance beam performance in gymnasts. The purpose of the present study was to investigate competitive anxiety during balance beam performance in gymnasts. Competitive anxieties was assessed continuously by heart rate monitoring and by retrospective self-report of nervousness in eight (N=8) female national level gymnasts during their balance beam routine during one competition and two training sessions. A significant negative correlation was found between the score of the retrospective self-report of nervousness and performance during the routine. There were no significant differences in performance score by the judges between the three test sessions. There were also no differences in the retrospective self-report of nervousness. However, heart rate was significantly higher during the competition session than during the training sessions. The potential value of the retrospective report of nervousness for the study of critical events during gymnastic performance is illustrated.

Mellalieu et al. (2006) studied the self-confidence as a mediator of the relationship between competitive anxiety intensity and interpretation. The aim of the study was to examine whether self-confidence mediated the relationship between competitive anxiety intensity and direction. The sample consisted of two hundred forty six (N=246) which included elite (N=102) and non-elite (N=144) participants completed the self-confidence subscales of the Competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory and the worry and somatic subscales from the sport anxiety scale. Consistent with procedures recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) linear regression analyses were used. The findings for elite athletes revealed worry intensity to significantly
predict self-confidence and worry direction. However, when self-confidence was controlled, worry intensity did not predict worry direction over that which was significantly predicted by self-confidence. Within the analysis for somatic symptoms, only self-confidence was found to predict somatic symptom direction. For the non-elite athletes, worry and somatic symptom intensity predicted both self-confidence and direction, and direction when self-confidence was controlled. The findings for the elite athletes suggest that self-confidence mediates the relationship between performers’ worry symptoms and subsequent directional interpretations. However, the findings suggest that high levels of self-confidence and low symptom intensity are needed for non-elite athletes to demonstrate a less debilitative interpretation.

Nicholls et. al. (2010) studied the coping self-efficacy, pre-competitive anxiety, and subjective performance among athletes. The aim of the study was to explore the relationships between (a) coping self-efficacy and subjective performance, (b) coping self-efficacy and pre-competitive anxiety, and (c) pre-competitive anxiety and subjective performance. The sample consist of three hundred seven (N=307) athletes which includes 252 males and 55 females aged 16-34 years, who competed at national/international (n = 18), county (n = 54), club/university (n = 139), and beginner (n = 96) level. All participants completed a measure of coping self-efficacy and anxiety before a competitive event and a subjective performance measure after competing. The findings revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship between coping self-efficacy and subjective performance. Negative relationships between coping self-efficacy and both somatic and cognitive anxiety were also observed. However, somatic and cognitive anxiety did not predict subjective performance. The present findings support previous results regarding the influence of self-efficacy and provide applied practitioners with recommendations that may enhance athletic performance.